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Teacher as “Team Player”: An Early Career Teacher’s Refinement of Critical Pedagogical Discourses

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Teacher as “Team Player”: An Early Career Teacher’s Refinement of
Critical Pedagogical Discourses

Keisha-Moraé Hopkins Kibler

Dissertation submitted
to the College of Education and Human Services
at West Virginia University

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in
Curriculum & Instruction

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Department of Curriculum & Instruction/ Literacy Studies

Morgantown, West Virginia
2020

Keywords: critical pedagogical discourses, contextual discourses, teacher beliefs, teacher
practice, dialogic pedagogy

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ABSTRACT

Teacher as “Team Player”: An Early Career Teacher’s Refinement of Critical Pedagogical Discourses

Keisha-Moraé Hopkins Kibler

This study centers on one early-career English language arts (ELA) teacher’s development of his critical pedagogical discourses (CPD) within the contextual discourses of collaboration and data informed instruction. These contextual discourses circulated assumptions of teaching and learning that are privileged by the political ideologies of the neo-liberal agenda, which can erode the democratic purposes of education. Data is drawn from an eight-month interpretive qualitative case study that included classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. The two research objectives for this study included: to come to understand the range of ways an early-career ELA teacher navigated the tensions between his belief and the contextual discourses of teaching and learning and to complicate the role of the teacher’s CPD of student-centered learning in filtering the contextual discourses for pedagogical affiliation in a community of practice. Discourse data analysis indicated that the CPD simultaneously filtered and was refined through the filtering process, which informed the teacher’s membership across teaching contexts, compartmentalized monologic and dialogic practices within and across teaching units, and provided him the opportunity to realign his beliefs and practices through reflection on the use of dialogic tools in an instructional unit and the vision he had for himself and his students. This study suggests that teacher education and professional learning needs to purposefully provide dialogic spaces for teacher candidates and teachers to inquire into how their practice aligns with their beliefs and curricular visions of themselves as teachers and their students as learners and citizens. This study indicated that there is a need for future studies to address how pedagogical tools influence teachers’

curricular visions of their teaching and the pedagogical reasonings of their past, present, and future teaching.

Dedication

To all teachers beginning their teaching journey: may you find a community
where you will grow alongside each other

Acknowledgements

I have looked forward to writing the acknowledgement section of my dissertation, but as I begin, I realize that I have been writing this section all along my journey. So many people have been a part of my support circle, encircling me with love and encouragement. Without those who God has surrounded me throughout my life, I would not be where I am today.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This dissertation responds to one of the growing concerns for our teachers as instructional decision makers and facilitators of student learning: the focus of learning has been narrowed to the idea that learning is a product (Apple 2006; Beane, 2005). The binary view of learning as a product or learning as a process ignores the dialectical relationship between process and product (Alexander et al., 2009). There are conflicting beliefs surrounding the process and product views of learning. These ideologies are rooted in greater political ideologies of neo-liberalism, neo-conservatism, and democratic education.

For neo-liberals and neo-conservatives, teacher practice as instructional designers and facilitators of student learning is repurposed to focus on the skills of retelling and testing (Falk & Darling-Hammond, 2010). Narrowing the complexities of learning to a product also ignores the role of teachers as designers of instruction based on their documentation of students' growth through observation and collection of evidence of their developing understandings, which is more than a list of test scores (Falk & Darling-Hammond, 2010). Teachers as researchers in their classrooms professionalizes teachers as informed instructional decision makers. Gathering evidence of students' learning positions teachers as knowledge producers of the learning process where they can reflect on student work and share it with colleagues, making it possible for them to draw connections between instructional practices, student learning, and "philosophical issues related to teaching" (p. 75).

One philosophical issue related to teaching centers on the connection between assessing and teaching. Assessing is deeply rooted in epistemic beliefs of what counts as knowledge, what is worthy of knowing, and who has the power to determine what is worthy of knowing. Epistemic

beliefs shape how students and teachers are positioned in the classroom as consumers of knowledge or meaning makers. Through a gathering of authentic assessments, teachers gain a fuller understanding of what their students know and can do. This “scrapbook” (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005, p. 152) approach to teaching and assessing transcends the neo-liberal and neo-conservative agendas of focusing on standardized test scores, which only reflect a single snapshot to see if students selected the right answer. Through a collection of evidence of student learning, teachers have more opportunity to recognize student growth. Also, this type of documentation of student learning recognizes that learning is a dialectical relationship between process and product, where the process of learning is a means to the desired product of learning.

The neo-liberal and neo-conservative political agenda is deeply rooted in the belief that learning is monologic. According to Bahktin (1986), monologism refers to a single voice in an objectified world. As Nesari (2015) explained, teaching that aims to be monologic promotes universal, shared truths and ignores differences of others. Monologic teaching works to “turn off the process of dialogue as well as its potentials” (Nesari, 2015, p. 642). Democratic education is rooted in the belief that learning is dialogic, that the presence of multiple perspectives makes learning relevant and being open to examining multiple perspectives and questioning dominant ideology is essential to life. Through being open to multiple perspectives, democratic education upholds the reality that learning is dialogic, and students and teachers deserve the opportunity to be- to be meaning makers and critical viewers of their world and social realities (Ayers, 2010).

Instructional decision-making and facilitating student learning are not enacted in a vacuum. Teaching is greatly informed by a teacher’s beliefs and the contextual discourses of his or her teaching context (Thompson et al. 2013). Conceptualizing beliefs as static or developing in a linear, chronological process, positions beliefs as a decontextualized construct; a more pertinent

factor to understanding teacher beliefs is to consider how they can alter over time and the contextual factors that influence the changing of beliefs. Teacher beliefs as static neglects the social processes where beliefs are formed throughout the teacher's life, even before he or she decides to become a teacher (Lortie, 1975).

Beliefs make up a teacher's developing critical pedagogical discourses (CPD) (Thompson et al., 2013). A CPD is always in a state of becoming. As the CPD filters the contextual discourses, the CPD is also forming; through the simultaneous filtering and forming of the filter process, beliefs and practices inform each other. The conceptualization of beliefs and practices as mutually informing helps illustrate the complexity of teacher decision-making within the often-binding contextual discourses of the neo-liberal and neo-conservative political landscape where teaching is reduced to a set of behaviors and the product of learning is valued over the process.

Although neo-liberal policies aim to privatize and marketize public schools while weakening the power of teachers and their unions (Apple, 2006) and neo-conservative politics that drive schools to return to traditional educational practices, teachers have not simply sat back and absorbed the policies (Biesta et al., 2015; Priestly et al., 2012). Teachers make instructional decisions that are informed by their beliefs (Biesta et al., 2015) and the counterbalance of multiple contextual forces (Bridwell-Mitchell, 2015). Ecological conditions and circumstances shape actors' responses to the problems in their environment:

[T]his concept of agency highlights that actors always act by means of their environment rather than simply in their environment [so that] the achievement of agency will always result from the interplay of individual efforts, available resources, and contextual and structural factors as they come together in particular and, in a sense, always unique situations. (Biesta & Tedder, 2007, p. 137)

Thus, agency is not something that one possesses, but something that one does. Even though there are robust theories of agency (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998), teacher agency is still under-theorized (Priestly et al., 2012) and even underemphasized (Leander & Osborne, 2008). How teachers make sense of contextual discourses gives us insight into teacher agency. This is important work for teacher educators and professional development facilitators because all teacher learning opportunities, including formal, informal, mandated, or voluntary, need to be informed by how teachers are agents in their own meaning making while navigating conflicting contextual discourses.

Significance to this Study

The purpose of this dissertation study was to better understand an early career teacher's instructional decision-making among the contextual discourses across his learning and teaching contexts. A look across the contextual discourses of an early career teacher's learning and teaching contexts positions the teacher as a reflective agent, drawing on his or her experiences, to make sense of past experiences while also attending to future envisioning of himself as a teacher.

Therefore, this study focuses on how one early-career English language arts teacher filtered the contextual discourses of data informed instruction and collaboration of his teaching contexts through his CPD. As discussed above, the forces acting on teachers are informed by diverse and conflicting ideologies. Among these are powerful political ideologies that dispute the purposes of education and the role of teachers and learning. Neo-liberalism, neo-conservatism, and democratic education are three principle ideologies at work in education. Threads of these ideologies are present in teachers' realities; they are parts of the contextual discourses that teachers navigate daily. Having a robust, thorough understanding of the role of a CPD is important because it

recognizes that conflicting resources exist and that as teachers are situated within the contextual discourses, they are simultaneously constructing the discourses.

Research Question

The following question guided this study: What are the range of ways an early-career English language arts (ELA) teacher navigates the tensions between his own beliefs and the contextual discourses of teaching and learning?

To continue to situate my study in the context of neo-liberal policies, I specifically connected ways that teaching and learning have been controlled in West Virginia, a state with a declining economy which has opened the door for policies driven by neo-liberal ideas. For the remainder of Chapter 1, I will detail the realities of the neo-liberal and neo-conservative policies of educational reform. As Ayers (2005) explains, we must be honest about ways the neo-liberal and neo-conservative politics have created educational inequalities because just as it takes an active role to reproduce the discourses associated with these inequalities, it also takes an active role in confronting these discourses to transcend the status quo of our educational system.

Table 1 overviews the three schools of thought that address the purpose and the needs of education: neo-liberalism, neo-conservative, and democratic education. I also address how neo-liberalism and neo-conservatism work together, even though they have conflicting ideologies about the role of the state in education. Each school of thought has implications for teacher practice.

Table 1: Neo-liberalism, Neo-conservatism, and Democratic Schools		
Neo-liberalism (Apple, 2006; Tabrizi, 2014)	Neo-conservatism (Apple, 2006; Tabrizi, 2014)	Democratic Schools (Beane & Apple, 2007)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Open competitive markets ● Schools as businesses-product driven ● Possessive individualism ● Competition (test scores as markers of success) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● State control of content, knowledge, and cultural influences ● A move to return to the “romanticized” past 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Structure and curriculum uphold the democratic values of ... <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Diversity ○ Concern for others and ‘common good’ ○ Faith in individual agency and collective agency to solve problems ○ Open to multiple perspectives and exchange of ideas ○ Function of schools to uphold and promote democracy

Neo-liberalism

Proponents of neo-liberalism argue that open, competitive markets are the answer for strong economic development, and strong economic development is dependent on the products that schools produce: workers. Neo-liberal policies work to minimize the state's role, to reduce the state's control, and to increase economic progress. In turn, public funding of education is reduced. This creates a closer linkage to schools and business (Tabrizi, 2014) which focuses the public’s attention to evidence the schools are producing quality product: student test scores. Schools then become competitive entities; they compete against each other for public approval as they carry the burden of society’s inequities. However, the inequities of society are not a focus of the neo-liberal

agenda. In fact, the competitive nature of school is not even suspect; competition supports the idea of “possessive individualism” (Apple, 2006) where losers and winners naturally exist.

The neo-liberal agenda deskills teachers as thinkers and instructional designers. Teacher thinking is devalued and the focus on the competitive test score performance of schools removes teachers as professionals in schools and positions them as agents of testing companies. As agents of testing companies, they are disciplined by market competition to be more resourceful, skilled, and trained to produce the workers for our futures that also achieve high scores on standardized tests.

Neo-conservatism

As neo-liberalists strive for less state control, neo-conservatives depend on the state as an agent to control the content of schools to return back to the romanticized past where morals, values, and good ethics were the focus of the curriculum (Tabrizi, 2014), and by refocusing our school’s curriculum to reflect these values, we will return to American values and identity (Apple, 2006). This does not mean that the state supersedes an individual’s freedoms. This is where neo-conservatives and neo-liberals can meet; neo-liberals want less control from the state, allowing permission for neo-conservative curricula to be locally adopted. Through less state control of schools, neo-conservatives have more regulation of content (Apple, 2006), and through regulation of the content, citizens can return to the romanticized ideals of America. To return to these romanticized ideals, individuals must think of themselves as individuals who act in their own interest.

Similar to the neo-liberal agenda, the neo-conservative agenda also de-skills teachers as not knowing what they are “supposed” to teach by controlling the curriculum and values taught in schools. This managerial approach to teaching instills a false representation of knowledge in the

curriculum that is common across cultures, focusing on traditions that support the neo-conservative agenda, which can further marginalize underrepresented groups. As Beane and Apple (2007), explain, the neo-conservative control of the curriculum can also control teacher bodies in how they deliver the curriculum through conservative teaching practices and the professional learning they are required to engage in which becomes more about test scores than teaching practices.

The “Power Block” of Neo-liberalism and Neo-Conservatism

I situate this study in the neo-liberal and neo-conservative political landscape of K-12 schools. It is important to acknowledge the neo-liberal and neo-conservative politics embedded within the fibers that weave throughout the United States education system. Through acknowledging the complex ways these policies have repurposed education as places of business where students are products and our teachers are assembly line workers, I recognize that the tensions are not limited to the classroom or the school. These tensions are largely reflected in the overall visions of schools that perpetuate throughout society.

To gain a fuller understanding of the hard times that our school system has fallen upon, I first begin with an unpacking of the “power bloc” (Apple, 2004) of neo-liberal and neo-conservative political ideologies that comprises the neo-liberal landscape. First, the landscape is driven by neo-liberal market approaches aimed at saving education from the progressive teaching that it has fallen prey to throughout the years. The market approaches to education are glorified through the rhetoric of school choice and competition, appealing to the middle-class cultural norms of schools that produce students who achieve high standardized test scores. To save education, our nation must invest in outside resources that track learning and use tracking as a tool to keep schools in check. The market is set “loose on the schools so as to ensure that only ‘good’ ones survive” (Apple, 2001, p. 412). Secondly, through saving education, the United States can return

to the neo-conservative ideas of the past where middle class, white traditions are preserved. Neo-liberal politics work to return to the romanticized past through the “tightening control” (p. 112) of teaching and curriculum. National standards, curriculum mandates, standardized tests, and scripted curriculums become the norm in schools.

The human capital ideologies provide the framework for rejecting true democratic visions of schools for a “thin” democracy- where possessive individuals and consumption practices prevail (Apple, 2006). A thin democracy is not only overtly driven by individualism, it also narrowly defines democracy for its process. For example, a thin democracy recognizes democracy for its process of electing officials to represent the people. As a representative form of government, the voters are represented by the elected officials at all levels of society, from local boards to state and federal levels. The democratic visions of schools involve the values and principles of democracy, which positions democracy as more than a governmental election process, but as a “way of life” (Beane, 2005). I will discuss this more in the following sections.

In the current neo-liberal political landscape, schools as liberating social institutions is lost among the multiple voices of education reform that reduces schools to factories. Even the factory metaphor does not truly capture the possessive individualism that the power-bloc of neo-liberal and neo-conservative political ideologies has created and strengthened. The possessive individualism has re-purposed the roles of teachers, principals, and students. As Apple (2001) explains, to maintain the school image that is desirable to the market, the role of the teachers becomes task driven instead of intellectually driven. Principals become more concerned with public image, repurposing their role to public relations and moving away from focusing on the substance and rigor of the curriculum. Students become participants in a curriculum that is designed for them by outside interest groups. This mono-cultural curriculum becomes a

mechanism for the neo-conservative policies to specify what knowledge, values, and behaviors should be taught, reinforcing what is appropriate to know to function in society (Apple, 2000).

Conversations of school reform always include discussions of accountability. Noddings (2007) defines accountability as answering to a higher authority, as in the business world that is driven by a competitive market that replaces the democratic values of dignity and individual self-worth (Dewey, 1946). Within the “power bloc” (Apple, 2004) of neo-liberal and neo-conservative ideas supporting and sustaining each other, accountability disciplines the body. Teachers are expected to work to achieve test results, using district mandated curriculum materials that were crafted in isolation from the realities of teaching, learning, and students’ previous experiences and background knowledge. The focus on accountability modifies the teaching (behaviors) in the school to meet a list of unreasonable expectations. When accountability measures do not show progress, teaching becomes suspect and school districts continue to tighten the reins of control on teaching, simultaneously reducing teacher and student intellect to “mental labor” (Noddings, 2007, p. 44).

One form of tightening the control and narrowing the curriculum is to measure teaching effectiveness through the purchase of more testing tools that collect performance data on students throughout the school year. In the neo-liberal political landscape, standardized testing becomes an integral part of the curriculum, not just an end-of-the-year event. Only directing attention to test scores results narrows our focus on the good doings of our schools (Apple, 2001). The market financially benefits from the labor of the subjects; the neo-conservative ideas of standard based teaching and testing become a cultural norm that is unquestioned.

This managerial control of teaching and learning is the result of the “hijacking” (Apple, 2004, p. 33) of teaching by those who subscribe to the ideals of traditional pedagogies and testing

as a monitoring system used to blame lack of progress on progressive forms of teaching. In the neo-liberal political landscape, student progress is expected to happen quickly. The expectation for a quick turnaround of students' test results masks the greater social justice needs of students. Neo-liberal and neo-conservative politics do not ignore that the successes of schools affect society; they just ensure that school success is defined by and connected to the intervention of outside sources, ignoring the greater social needs and the economic disparity between schools in the United States.

Democratic Education

Unlike neo-conservatism and neo-liberalism, democratic education recognizes schools as part of a greater social system and values their contributions to society as more than the products they produce (Au, 2009). While neo-conservatism and neo-liberalism focuses on individualism, democratic schools recognize the role of the self to the collective other. As Beane and Apple (2007) explain, "democratic schools are marked by an emphasis on cooperation and collaboration rather than competition, and arrangements are created that encourage young people to improve the life of the community by helping others" (p. 12).

The structure of democratic schools seeks to remove institutional barriers for all students because true democratic values are invested in the idea that the successes of the self are tied to the successes of others. Democratic schools do not happen overnight; their structure and curriculum are committed to upholding democratic values as "more than principles on paper" (Beane & Apple, 2007, p. 10). All those involved in the school, including the students, need to be involved in the process of decision-making. However, this process is not to create an "illusion of democracy, but a genuine attempt to honor the rights of people to participate in making decisions that affect their lives" (p. 10). But whose lives are affected also need to be considered, which moves past the

possessive individualism and towards an emphasis on “cooperation and collaboration rather than competition” (p. 12).

The structure of democratic schools and the curriculum mutually inform each other. By this I mean that as democratic schools are built and sustained by democratic values; the curriculum emphasizes access to knowledge and the sharing of opposing viewpoints. This purpose of a democratic curriculum is not to teach students a universal truth that upholds the values and agenda of the authoritative culture, but rather seeks to teach students how to be critical readers of the world (Freire & Macedo, 2005). As critical readers, students assume the role of meaning makers, transcending the role of knowledge consumers that the neo-liberal and neo-conservative agenda prefer (Beane & Apple, 2007).

As the neo-liberal and neo-conservative political ideologies seek to de-skill teachers, democratic schools recognize teachers as professional, informed decision makers in the classroom. In fact, democratic schools do not just uphold democratic values for students; democratic schools also value teachers' voices when making decisions on curriculum and school structure. Although schools can be guided by outside research, democratic schools recognize that teachers are producers of knowledge about their students and what they can do and use this knowledge of students to make informed instructional decisions and to facilitate learning (Bean & Apple, 2007).

Neoliberalism Through the Mountains of West Virginia

This case study will specifically focus on one ELA teacher in a high performing school district in West Virginia: Mountain County (pseudonym). West Virginia is one of two states that has shown a continual decline in population for the past decade (United States Census Bureau, 2019). The dying coal mining industry is one of the reasons for people moving out of state. The

coal industry decline can be attributed to a variety of reasons such as federal regulations for clean energy, automation of the process of extracting coal from the land, and a competitive market (Plumer, 2013). Automation of large industries has deleted entire categories of labor. The declining population directly affects school funding because funding is based on property taxes. In 2015, coal mine layoffs and closures accelerated, which resulted in a mid-year one percent cut in the school aid formula. When fewer people buy homes, cars, and land, property taxes dwindle through the decline of property value and lessening of the population of taxpayers. Due to a decline in school enrollment in 2016, more than \$11 million in K-12 education funding was cut across the state's school districts (Quinn, 2016). Mountain County received a mid-year cut of \$453,000

The declining coal industry has propelled discussions on preparing students for careers beyond the traditional coal mining jobs. As Best and Kellner (1997) explained, “destruction of the old” is always accompanied by “creation of the new” (p. 16). The discussions of preparing students for jobs that did not exist years ago is not new or isolated within West Virginia. The globalization of the job market is often used to evoke a national fear that students in the United States will not have the skills needed to be globally competitive for jobs. This fear is further perpetuated by national reports that show students in the United States at low levels of proficiency in standardized reading and math tests (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2019).

The assumption grounded in the ideals of neo-liberalism is that access to technology will prepare our students for the changing global job market. One-to-one device programs are prevalent across the United States, costing school districts millions of dollars to implement and support. Mountain County spent \$1.5 million on Chromebooks for students in grades 3-12, a debt that will take three years for the school board to pay off, interest free (Bonnstetter, 2017). The voices across the district's professional knowledge landscape echo a mix of reasons and purposes for the

Chromebooks. Chris Urban, director of technology in the school district, claimed that Chromebooks will promote “rigor” in teaching (as cited in Bonnsetter, 2017). The promise that one-to-one technology will better teaching practice has not been proven. In fact, research shows that one-to-one technology does not change teaching practices in classrooms but amplifies the practices already occurring, regardless of their effectiveness (Halverson & Smith, 2009-2010).

In the neo-liberal landscape, district personnel can rationalize students’ high standardized test scores to the availability of technology or low scores to the lack of technology. Thus, technology is the driving factor of student successes or the absence of technology is a factor in their failures. For example, in 2016-2017, this school district achieved the highest scores on the statewide math assessment and second highest scores on the statewide reading assessment. Courtney Whitehead, coordinator of school-wide improvement and assessment, attributed the testing results to the availability of the Chromebooks that gave all students the opportunity to get accustomed to the format of the online state assessment (as cited in Griffith, 2016).

As Chapter 1 has purposefully situated this study within the neo-liberal and neo-conservative political landscape in a West Virginia school system, Chapter 2 will unpack the constructs of beliefs, practice, and CPD, which greatly inform how teachers respond to the political ideologies that are deeply woven in the fabric of public education.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Research on Teacher Beliefs: What are Beliefs? And Where Do They Come From?

Beliefs have been defined as a “messy construct” (Pajares, 1992, p. 308) that humans use to make “judgement of truth and falsity of a proposition” (p. 316). Considering what is true and what is not is a function of our belief system, and our belief system also informs *how* we communicate these truths to others. As Gee (2012) explains, all beliefs are “grounded in a theory of some sort that tells us what words ought to mean and how things ought to be described and explained. In this sense, all claims and beliefs are ‘ideological’ (p. 20). For teachers, what we believe is true and what we believe is possible guide our instructional decision-making. Beliefs have power because they are epistemic and ideological, and they hold their power because we seek out opportunities and experiences that align with our belief system or we work to fit new experiences into our already existing belief system. This does not mean beliefs are static, it means that beliefs are always in question for their purposes in relation to power and control or for making the world better for all (Gee, 2012).

Teachers form their beliefs about teaching and learning throughout their life experiences including their K-12 and college learning experiences, informal learning experiences, teacher education, and professional development. How teachers were taught in their K-12 experiences have a major influence on their beliefs about teaching and learning. Lortie (1975) named this the problem of “the apprenticeship of observation.” The teacher candidate draws on his/her experiences as a student in K-12 to inform visions of himself or herself as a teacher. Teacher candidates are not empty vessels to be filled with the knowledge of what it means to be a teacher; they have had years of experiences as students in K-12, but in those years of observing teachers teach, they were peripheral participants to teaching thinking about planning and facilitating

learning. As learners participate in learning activities, they are consciously and unconsciously forming their beliefs about the roles and practices of teachers, including materials that a teacher should use to teach content, the learning activities that a teacher should provide for his or her students, and even how time and space is organized in a classroom. The assumption of the apprenticeship of observation is that teachers resort to conservative teaching methods that they experienced as students, thus continuing to reproduce conservative teaching methods.

Smagorinsky and Barnes (2014) problematizes Lortie's conception of the apprenticeship of observation. Through extensive interviews of 19 teacher candidates in three geographically diverse teacher education programs, Smagorinsky and Barnes (2014) found that the teacher candidates recognized and worked to emulate progressive teaching models from their experiences as students. Thus, their findings pointed to the fact that Lortie's (1975) conceptualization has framed teachers as being resistant to change, freezing teachers and teaching practices in decade old moments of time.

New social interactions can provide teachers the space to adopt new practices that may prompt revisions of their beliefs. As Darling-Hammond et al. (2005) explained, teacher candidates need the space to "confront the apprenticeship of observation" (Darling-Hammond, et. al., 2005, p. 434) to challenge the conservative practices they may have grown accustomed to through their K-12 experiences. This challenging process can begin with teacher candidates examining their beliefs through the writing of autobiographies that include their analysis of their own formal and informal learning experiences and to stimulate reflection on teaching and learning (Alsup, 2006).

Kagan (1992) argues that teacher beliefs remain static unless the teacher is provided the opportunity to reflect on his/her beliefs and engage in learning that pushes against his/her belief system through the integration of new knowledge. Communities of practice (Lave & Wenger,

1991) can afford new beliefs and/or support the maintenance of old beliefs. The practices of the community can reinforce beliefs or prompt revisions of the beliefs. Teacher participants in Blömeke, et al.'s, (2015) research stayed committed to their progressive beliefs about the teaching of math within a context that prescribed to conservative beliefs of teaching and learning. This study of 231 third year teachers in Germany pushes against the notion that beginning teachers commit to authoritative contextual discourses. For these teachers, the contextual demands and dominant discourse of teaching and learning centered on conservative teaching practices, but they continued to stay committed to teaching math as a process of inquiry. Blömeke et al. (2015) suggest that one of the factors that supported the teachers within the conservative contextual discourses is the progressive community of practice that socializes teachers into the teaching practice after teacher education.

Thompson et al.'s (2013) research on beginning science teachers support the idea that beginning teachers need a “pedagogical affiliation” (p. 607) or a “sense of membership” (p. 607) in a community of practice that supports the development of their critical pedagogical discourses (CPD), especially when there is pressure to conform to conservative teaching practices.

CPDs are teachers' personal theories of teaching and learning that may not always be reflected in their practice but are reflected in ideas of what “should have been done” (p. 579). As Mansour (2009) explains, “Beliefs become personal pedagogies or theories to guide teachers' practices: teachers' beliefs play a major role in defining teaching tasks and organizing the knowledge and information relevant to those tasks” (p. 31). Thus, CPDs are beliefs. Thompson et al. (2013) describes the internalized function of beliefs that forefronts the idea that beliefs can impact practice. As Thompson et al. (2013) explained, CPDs are beliefs that are “threads of internalized dialogue” (p. 579) that teachers draw upon to write who they are and want to be. These

threads of dialogue are not stagnant in time; they are in flux, shifting across contexts, organizing experiences that align with visions of teaching, which also means that those experiences that do not align with visions of teaching are also organized and used to rationalize instructional decisions. Thompson et al. (2013) draws upon the research of Nolen et al. (2009) to describe ways TCs “filter” information and ideas presented to them based on their beliefs and their professional and personal affiliation. The CPD acts as a filter, and a filter is also a forming structure. As the CPD filters experiences, the filter is shaped and reformed. CPDs are always in a state of becoming; they are taken up to explain what should have happened in a teaching experience and to rationalize instructional decisions even when the CPD cannot be enacted in practice. As CPDs are always in a state of becoming, they are always in existence among contextual discourses. Contextual discourses exist outside the teacher; they are not part of the critical pedagogical discourses but have the potential to become internalized and to impact pedagogical decisions.

Teacher Practice: The Study of Beliefs

Within the context of this study, I draw on Scribner and Cole’s (1981) conceptualization of practice as “a recurrent, goal-directed sequence of activity” (p. 236). Practice as recurrent situates the practice within a broader context that includes engagement with others and historically produced cultural artifacts. Practice is always contextual, and goal driven. Context and goals do not function separately; they mutually inform each other. Thus, practice simultaneously structures the activity of a context while it reinforces the cultural norms. Teacher practice can reproduce conservative teaching traditions where students sit and absorb knowledge or teacher practice can transcend the status quo and provide students a space that uses students’ ideas as a springboard into deeper inquiry.

Both Grossman et al. (2009) and Connelly and Clandinin (1989) conceptualize practice as the “doing” of beliefs. However, within the body of literature on teacher practice, there is tension between the relationship between beliefs and practice. Pajares (1992) recognizes a strong relationship between a teacher’s beliefs and his or her practice, including what the teacher attends to in the classroom and prioritizes, adding another layer onto the belief/practice concept: perceptions affect practice. What people believe in affects what they notice and do not notice and how they respond to their noticing. For teachers, beliefs are manifested in their pedagogical approaches including the selection of materials, the learning activities they design or choose, ways they assess students’ progress, and the judgement of students’ capabilities and behaviors (Borg, 2001).

A review of the research on the relationship between beliefs and practice suggest that communities of practice are influential in shaping teachers’ practice (Kintz et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2013). Kintz et al. (2015) research supports the idea that teachers working in communities of inquiry can alter their practice when they are provided the space to “contribute their knowledge from the classroom and make connections to new frameworks and ideas” (p. 132). In this research, teacher practice was valued in the community and teachers’ learning was situated in their practice. A key point in this study is that communities of inquiry need a purpose and opportunities for teachers to connect theory to practice. An assumption that teachers know how to engage in critical inquiry and discussions of their practice with others can limit their professional growth and then their students’ learning. Kintz et al. (2015) research suggests that communities of inquiry need a facilitator, or coach, that can ask probing questions and engage the teachers learning from and in their practice. Although this research supports the notion that communities of practice are spaces of professional growth and change, the research does not discuss the contextual factors that can

affect teachers' practice. Within the study, the community of inquiry was the context, but the macro-contexts where the community of inquiry was situated, was not discussed.

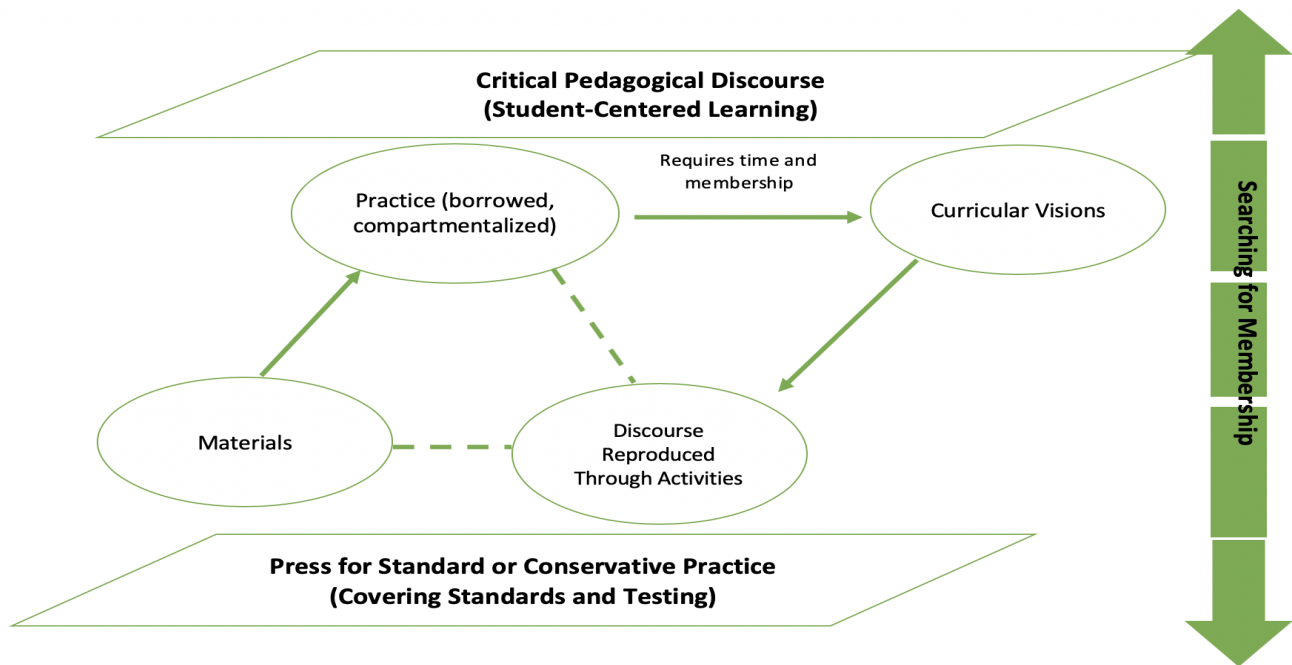
The idea of teachers working together in communities to learn the practice of teaching can lead to the assumption that all teachers share the same practices. As Lampert (2009) argues, the idea that teaching practice is "homogeneous" (p. 29) ignores the very purpose of communities of practice: places where people participate with a shared goal of transformation. For Lampert, practice is not just the enactment of beliefs or personal theories but practice itself is developed overtime across communities. Lave and Wenger (1991) explain that the term community should not be generalized to represent all groups of people or be defined based on boundaries. But community does imply shared goals and "participation in an activity system about which participants shape understandings concerning what they are doing and what that means in their lives and for their communities" (p. 98). Thus, communities of practice are places of change. But change does not just happen through practice. Afterall, "Practice alone does not make perfect, or even good, performance" (Darling-Hammond, et al, 2005).

Complicating the idea that teacher practice progresses seamlessly along a learning to teach trajectory, Thompson et al. (2013) identifies multiple variations in ways beginning teachers take up the CPD of ambitious teaching. The concept of ambitious teaching centers on student thinking and the teacher facilitating opportunities for the student to explain the what, how, and why of science concepts and phenomena. They identify three trajectories: Integrating ambitious practices, compartmentalizing ambitious practice, and appropriating the language of ambitious practice. Those teachers who integrate ambitious practice planned for opportunities for students to discover and refine their understanding. Through integration of ambitious practice throughout the learning sequences, teachers align themselves as members of the induction community which supported,

modeled, and sustained ambitious teaching practices. Teachers who integrated ambitious teaching practices did not create “verbatim replications” (p. 592) of ambitious teaching. Rather, these teachers used their CPD of ambitious teaching as a filter to repurpose the contextual resources that supported and sustained conservative practices.

Teachers who compartmentalized ambitious practice had to “reconcile” (Thompson et al., 2013, p. 595) the boundaries between the ambitious and conservative practice communities. Teachers in this group may have borrowed ideas from the ambitious practice community, but they also borrowed ideas and practices from the conservative practice community that had been historically reproduced in their current teaching context. One common element for these teachers was borrowing one ambitious teaching practice and implementing it into a fragmented moment within the learning sequence (Figure 1). Because they continuously borrowed practice from both communities, their curricular vision informed by their CPD and practice did not fully align. Thus, teachers who compartmentalized instruction worked slowly throughout the school year to move from partial implementation to full implementation of ambitious teaching practices or they did not move forward, they continued to draw from both communities of practices, compartmentalizing their instruction.

Figure 1
Compartmentalization of Practice (from Thompson et al., 2013, p. 608)



The teachers who appropriated language of ambitious practice labeled their teaching practice as ambitious when the focus of the learning activities was on the correctness of students' answers, thus only appropriating the language and not tools of explanation. Through their language appropriation, one could mistake teachers in this group as full members of the community of ambitious teaching, but their practice and their claims about their practice, did not align.

Dialogic Teaching Practice

In the above section, I discussed Thompson et al.'s (2013) research on ambitious science teaching practices with early career teachers. They define ambitious science teaching as the centering of students' ideas and the "regular adjustments to practice based on assessment of students' understanding" (p. 580). Integral to ambitious teaching practice that focuses on student's ideas is talk in the classroom. Teachers who take up ambitious science teaching practices use talk

as a tool to prompt students to further investigate their claims with scientific evidence and reasoning. Talk as a tool to promote discussions and support student thinking is not restricted to science teaching practice. In an ELA classroom, talk can be a tool that builds spaces where students' ideas are welcomed and are central to the community or a tool that builds up barriers that control the exchange of ideas.

Talk has a function in all discussions in the classroom: to voice ideas, to control ideas, or for social justice. Aukerman and Schuldt (2015) describe ways that talk functions in the monologically organized classrooms (MOC) and dialogically organized classrooms (DOC). MOC and DOC each communicate epistemic beliefs about what is possible for students. In MOC, talk centers on correctness of ideas and the transmission of knowledge and understanding. As Nystrand (1997) explains, MOC are places where teachers initiate questions with specific answers in mind, students respond, and teachers evaluate. This initiate-response-evaluate (IRE) model of classroom discussions privileges the teacher's confirmation of ideas instead of opening the opportunities for students to exchange ideas. Although multiple students may be involved in responding to the teacher's questions, the talk functions to control ideas through evaluation and the structure of the IRE model.

DOC provide space for "constructing ideas through dialogue" (Aukerman & Schuldt, 2015, p. 117) by posing questions that are purposefully planned to promote discussion and exchange of ideas and not a "report" (Nystrand, 1997, p. 72) of someone else's ideas. Boyd and Markarian (2015) define the function of dialogic talk in the classroom to "model and support cognitive activity and inquiry and supportive classroom relations, to engage multiple voices and perspectives across time, and to animate student ideas and contributions" (p. 273). Although classrooms are certainly dialogic, dialogic practices that are implemented at surface level can be

detrimental to students' learning, especially when dialogic instruction is simplified to mean more student talk in the classroom, regardless of the function and purpose of the talk. Surface level dialogic practices can limit the voices to a select few students who represent the dominant culture of the school and community.

The key to DOC is what happens to the talk after it is voiced. In what ways can teachers provide opportunities to “animate student ideas and contributions?” Alexander’s (2008) framework for the characteristics of classroom talk moves beyond the interactional focus of questioning technique towards ways teachers and students collectively and reciprocally work through the knowledge. This “accountability to knowledge” (p.106) builds on talk through simultaneously listening, evaluating, and synthesizing. Just as the function of talk in the DOC is for accountability to knowledge, teachers need to be accountable to their students. Engaging in discussions in thoughtful, reflective ways require specific literacy skills. This essential understanding can inform how teachers plan ways to model and scaffold listening, responding, and synthesizing so students are active participants in the discussion and the meaning making community.

Implementation of Dialogic Tools. Although effective learning and teaching are linked to the oracy practices in the classroom (Boyd & Markarian, 2015), the presence of opportunities for students to engage in oracy practices does not indicate a DOC (Caughlan et al., 2013). Teachers may plan for opportunities for students to engage in discussions, but the discussions need more than a presence in the learning sequence. This means that a teacher’s adoption of a dialogic stance towards teaching and student learning involves more than the in-the-moment aspects of a discussion, but also a futuristic view of ways to engage students’ in continuous opportunities to support their cognitive activity and inquiry. This involves treating “dialogue as a functional

construct rather than structural” (p. 273). To gain deeper understanding of dialogue as a functional construct involves studying the use of dialogic and monologic tools in the planning for learning and assessing for learning (Caughlan et al., 2013).

As Grossman et al. (2009) explains, teacher candidates often encounter a range of dialogic tools in their teacher education course work. Dialogic tools can have monologic functions when they are implemented superficially in the classroom (Caughlan et al., 2013). Thus, implementation does not lead to DOC. A teacher’s knowledge about the purpose of the dialogic tool, its placement in the learning sequence, and the students’ and teachers’ roles as leaders and responders with the activity are essential to fostering a DOC. Returning to the idea that beliefs are epistemic and ideological (Gee, 2012), dialogic teaching connects to what a teacher believes is knowledge that is worth knowing, whose knowing is recognized, and how the knowledge is viewed as something to be “consumed” (Boyd & Markarian, 2015, p. 273) or as an “anchoring for thinking and learning” (p. 273). Through providing students the space to anchor their thinking and engage in optimal learning, teachers are facilitating learning opportunities for students to think analytically.

According to Nystrand (1997) questions teachers ask in a discussion have the potential to be dialogic tools if the teacher does not have a predetermined response in mind. However, when students pose questions in a discussion, the questions tend to increase the possibility for dialogic interaction (Nystrand, 1997). One of the possibilities is peer dialogue that is collaborative. Collaborative peer dialogue can provide students with the opportunities to develop a shared understanding and construct new knowledge through the dialogic interplay of three language forms: participating, understanding, and managing (Newman, 2016). Participating language forms include how the speaker communicates ideas and builds on other’s ideas; understanding language forms include how the participants listen to each other's ideas with open minds and pose

questions that prompt the participants to further explore ideas; managing language forms encourages participants to contribute while keeping the talk focused on the goal.

A teacher's role in supporting students' talk and scaffolding how to formulate questions and build on peers' comments to extend engagement and analysis is underrepresented in the research (Newman 2017). For students to learn how to engage in collaborative talk, the teacher moves beyond the role of modeling and purposefully prompts students thinking and responses through interactional exchanges where the teacher listens and then synthesizes students' responses to draw students' attention to multiple perspectives. The interactional exchanges encourage students to listen to their peers, extend their own responses, and offer new insights gained through synthesis of their peers' ideas.

Significance to My Study

My study attends to the beliefs and practices of an ELA teacher with five years of teaching experience. Drawing on Gee's (2012) idea that all beliefs are "ideological" (p. 20), I recognize beliefs as a system of possibilities. Through beliefs, teachers can enact what they think is possible for their students and their students' futures. A teacher uses his or her beliefs to guide instructional decision-making in regard to what he/she chooses to teach, how he/she chooses to teach, and the materials he/she designs or takes up within the classroom. Beliefs are practice in action (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Grossman et al., 2009; Pajares, 1992), but contextual influences can also alter a teacher's practice. Thus, "problems of enactment" (Kennedy, 1999) can occur, and teachers can depend on more conservative teaching models instead of the ones they envisioned for their teaching.

Grossman et al.'s (1989) and Thompson et al.'s (2013) studies ground teacher decision-making within specific contexts. Specifically, Grossman et al. (1989) argues the need for more research that allows for an “analysis of the consequences of different approaches to professional development, including university programs, district-wide in-service programs, voluntary participation in professional organizations, school-based activities, and other structures with particular goals and supportive practices” (p. 24). Through interviews, my study attended to a teacher’s professional history so I could highlight the multiple contexts of his learning teaching trajectory. Although Grossman et al.'s (1989) study focuses on pre-service teachers’ tool appropriation in specific contexts, attending to teachers and the settings in which they learn and develop is essential to better understand contextual influences on a teacher’s practice.

Similarly, Thompson et al.'s (2013) study considers how communities of practice and tools that focus on ambitious practice can be major influences for early-career teachers in their development of a critical pedagogical discourse (CPD) of ambitious practice. Thompson et al.'s (2013) study calls for “a more robust theory of teacher learning that accounts for how participation in different communities- with different contextual discourses about instruction and learning— shapes the language and practices of novice teachers” (p. 609). My study addressed how contextual discourses across learning and teaching contexts of one teacher created conflicting situated meanings of good teaching, learning, data informed instruction, and collaboration.

Theoretical Framework

Introduction

In the theoretical framework section, I unpack the theoretical traditions that mutually inform my study. Because my work sought to uncover ways a teacher navigates conflicting demands on the professional knowledge landscape, I situated this study within socio-cultural theory. Within the traditions of socio-cultural theory, I began my journey to understanding the

nuances of teacher decision-making within a neo-liberal professional knowledge landscape. I started with the Vygotskian (1962) idea that individual functioning are forms of social practices that are internalized by individuals and mobilized into ways of doing. Because individual functioning is shaped by and shaped within social contexts, language choices when communicating are always purposeful to the somethings and the someones within the context. Language is the “tool of tools” (Vygotsky, 1978). Within the socio-cultural framework to understand identity formation, language moves beyond the signifier and the signified to the social, political, and personal means for shaping power, agency, and identity (Lewis et al., 2007). To account for the ways language choices are purposeful and always addressed to someone of the past, the present, or to the future, I turned to Mikhail Bakhtin’s (1981;1986) concept of the utterance, “the fundamental unit of investigation for anyone studying communication as opposed to language alone” (Holoquist, 2002, p. 59).

Because language never functions alone, it always exists within a chain of communication and is constrained by present and historical contextual factors. These chains of communication simultaneously construct meaning and enact values that shape the listener and the speaker within a specific context. Discourses, as chains of meaning, are situations, or sites, where people are constituted by and constituted within. I described Bakhtin’s (1986) authoritative discourse to better understand how the discourse of reform within the neo-liberal professional knowledge landscape has transmitted a monologic view of teaching and learning. I unpacked Foucault’s (1972) ideas of discourse as sites of power. Because discourses exist among other discourses, even authoritative ones, they are open to being contested and repurposed. Existing among other discourses and being a collection of chains of utterances, discourses are heteroglossic, they are multi-voiced and made-up of social and cultural factors. Through Bakhtin’s (1986) concept of

heteroglossia and Foucault's concept of the "discursive field," I unpack the ideas that dialogues always exist together, they overlap and are fluid, and they are available in which a person is positioned among them or in which a person can draw from to respond.

Teacher agency is at the heart of my study. Teachers are not passive conduits; they do not merely exist on the professional knowledge landscape. They constantly negotiate the professional knowledge landscape through the range of ways they address heteroglossia. Bakhtin's (1981) concept of "addressivity" is a construct that will help me understand how an early-career teacher addresses the situation that heteroglossia has placed him or her in at that moment in time.

The following sections detail pieces of the theoretical framework that draws mainly from Bakhtin's Theory of Language (1981; 1986) and Foucault's (1972) theory of discourse. After defining and explaining each conceptual piece of the whole, I will connect each one to the greater purpose of my study.

Utterance

Utterance is one of the key elements to dialogue. It can be one word, a phrase, or a series of sentences, but all utterances share one commonality: they do not originate thought; they are an answer to an already existing utterance (Holoquist, 2002). Each utterance has a purpose and can be re-purposed at any given time; an utterance never fully dies and can be picked up in future dialogic interactions. For Bakhtin (1981), no utterance is neutral. All utterances are calling to the world to respond. Through responses, we adapt the speaker's intentions; we take and we make our own. The utterances we choose to take and make our own are utterances that align with our beliefs.

When we select words in the process of constructing an utterance, we by no means always take them from the system of language in their neutral, *dictionary* form. We usually take them from *other utterances*, and

mainly from utterances that are kindred to ours in genre, that is, in theme, composition, or style. (Bakhtin, 1986, p.87)

An utterance is always addressed to someone or someones and anticipates a response. Thus, the self always simultaneously answers the response while authoring other responses.

To understand ways utterance can be picked up, we must recognize that utterances are not only forms of language, they are also socially performed responses within specific contexts. Contexts have specific rules and norms which constrain activity. For teachers, the multiple contexts of learning to teach can restrict specific ways of teaching and learning. This is especially true in the neo-liberal context of education. Utterances in the neoliberal landscape are “drenched in the social factors” (Holoquist, 2002, p. 61) of accountability, answering the “distant authority” (Mathison & Ross, 2002) of an outcome based educational system. To capture the phenomenon of utterance, we need to move our focus to the social recognition of utterances within specific contexts.

Discourse

Each utterance exists in a chain of utterances and from these chains of utterances discourses are formed. Discourses are sites of meaning. As Gee (2012) explains, meaning is the “result of social interactions, negotiations, contestations, and agreements among people. It is inherently variable and social” (p. 21). It is the interaction of utterances within a chain that has no beginning or end that meaning is continuously constructed for others to recognize as socially acceptable or unacceptable. Acceptance is always socially derived from historical spaces. The acceptance or non-acceptance of others are always in the speaker’s mind when choosing from the “chain of communication.” In fact, each utterance relies upon the others and takes them into account (Bakhtin, 1986).

When we recognize that meaning is socially constructed, we must also acknowledge that the possibilities of the meaning that could be constructed is based on the availability of discourses. It is important to note here that Foucault (1972) conceptualizes discourse as more than a representational model of language where the relationship between the signifier and signified is based on form and grounded in universal truth. Foucault de-privileges the role of the signifier and transcends the idea that language is solely a system of representation. Within discourse, there are “conflicts, triumphs, injuries, dominations and enslavements that lie behind [the] words, even when long use has chipped away their edges” (p. 216). For Foucault, discourses are sites of power where beliefs, ideas, and thoughts can be contested or affirmed.

Both Bakhtin’s (1986) and Foucault’s (1972) conceptualizations of discourse rely on people’s use of the semiotic system of meaning. Thus, Bakhtin’s and Foucault’s discourse theories focus on how people use language within specific contexts to test the truth. “One voice alone concludes nothing and decides nothing. Two voices is the minimum for life, the minimum for existence” (as cited in Shields, 2007, p. 71). Bakhtin connects existence to dialogue. Through dialogue, we exist. We come to be. For Bakhtin (1986), dialogue is ontological. It is “a way of living life in openness to others who are different from oneself, of relating to people and ideas that remain separate and distinct from our own” (p. 65). Dialogue is the experience in which a person encounters one or more others who are different from himself/herself. Through “dialogic intercourse” (p. 79) we test truth, not to find the universal truth, but to test an idea in its newness to the person or a situation, in a dialogic interaction with someone else. For Foucault (1972), the testing of the truth exists in relations of power. Power is always present.

Although both scholars depend on the systematic and rule governed ways of speaking so the listener can recognize the discourse as legitimate within the social context, each scholar

theorizes ways power works to constrain. Foucault (1972) recognizes that some discourse hold truth and power, and these discourses have been historically circulated. Foucault explained two ways discourses need to be analyzed to uncover the ways the discourse identifies, includes, and excludes as well as the ways the discourse gets invested with power across time and space, the “critical” and the “genealogical.” Critical analysis looks at the way language orders and maintains that order by positioning speakers/writers in conversations/texts within the truth that has already been established. Critical analysis seeks “to mark out and distinguish the principles of ordering, expulsion, and rarity in discourse” (p. 234). Genealogical analysis focuses on the effects of certain discourses that have been historically invested by power. It is important to note that Foucault did not see these two discourse analytical approaches working separately; he recognized that critical analysis identifies the ways discourse excludes and includes and genealogical analysis tracks the effects of those dominating discourses. Bakhtin (1986) named dominating discourse as “authoritative,” or a discourse that “strives to determine the very basis of our ideological interrelations with the world, the very basis of our behavior” (p. 342). Authoritative discourses not only relay truth, they also historically transmit truths. Because authoritative discourses are focused on transmission rather than on renegotiating meaning, they have been perpetuated throughout history, and through existing together, in the same moments in time and space, they are open to disruption and repurposing.

Heteroglossia and the Discursive Field

Heteroglossia or “multivoicedness” is an essential part of every utterance as it exists within a chain of utterance. Not only do multiple discourses exist together, but the availability of specific discourses at a moment in time cannot be replicated. Holoquist (2002) explains:

“Heteroglossia is a situation, the situation of a subject surrounded

by the myriad responses he or she might make at any particular point, but any one of which must be framed in a specific discourse selected from the teeming thousands available.” (p. 69)

Heteroglossia is a situation also accounts for the other factors, factors that extend beyond language structures, such as contextual factors that include time, space, and people present. Heteroglossia does not neglect these factors; one of the necessary tenants of heteroglossia is that it is shaped by all these factors. The situation of heteroglossia moves beyond the idea of language invading us in the world or language as something that we enter. Rather, heteroglossia accounts for the social and cultural factors of a situation which we step into and how we respond.

“[E]ach of us makes an entrance into a matrix of highly distinctive economic, political, and historical forces—a unique and unrepeatable combination of ideologies, each speaking its own language, the heteroglot conglomerate of which we will constitute the world in which we act.” (Holoquist, 2002, p. 167)

It is through this combination of multiple voices that authoritative discourses can be disrupted and contested by other discourses. As heteroglossia accounts for the ways discourses always exist together, Foucault seeks to understand how some discourses remain privileged and uncontested. Foucault’s (1972) “discursive field” accounts for the relationship among and between multiple discourses and their language, the social institutions they create, and power. Multiple discourses always exist together on the “discursive field” and are always competing and challenging. For Foucault, the questions that remains to be answered are how do authoritative discourses remain in power, who do they benefit, and in what ways are they contested and disruptive? All these questions focus on the ideas of power through disempowerment or how people are empowered through the disempowerment of the authoritative discourse.

Within my study, the neoliberal landscape is seeping in monological “truths” about the purpose of schools, how to teach, what to teach, and how students should learn. These “truths”

are further perpetuated with the publication of students' standardized test scores to illustrate that schools are failing, thus more control of teaching practices through mandates is needed. The authoritative discourse continues to circulate within and outside the professional knowledge landscape, but teachers' agentive actions repurposes the authoritative discourse. I turn to Bakhtin's concept of "addressivity" (Holoquist, 2002) to unpack ways teachers respond to the "truths" about teaching and learning that have been historically privileged in schools.

Addressivity

Addressivity conveys an urgency of a response in the now because the now can never be recreated. Thus, an utterance is always directed or always addressed to someone. We are compelled to respond to the situation, and we are responsible for authoring the response. As Holoquist (2002) explains, "Addressivity means rather that *I am* an event, the event of constantly responding to utterances from the different worlds I pass through" (p. 48). *I am* also means *I am not* and *I am in new ways*. When I stop responding, I am dead.

Returning to the concept of utterance, it is important to note that an utterance is never originary but is always dialogic. Thus, utterances are always a response, that is a "give and take between the local need of a particular speaker to communicate a specific meaning, and the global requirements of language as a generalizing system" (Holoquist, 2002, p. 60). As Bakhtin (1981) reminds us, the "word is half-ours and half-someone else's" (p. 345). Although our responses may not be originary, they are always necessary and a requirement within the space that "heteroglossia assigns us" (p. 167). Although heteroglossia assigns us a place that we occupy, we cannot be excused from that place, and our address to that place at that time is our responsibility because that space is unique to us. When we address the heteroglot, we are addressing the addresser with a

response to the question, “Who am I at this moment and space in time?” because the addresser addressed us with the question “Who are you to me?”

Teachers address the heteroglossia in different ways at different times. Each response, each *I am*, is representative of the unique position that a teacher is negotiating for him or herself at specific moments in time. However, with each address, there is an expected response. It is in the space between the address and the expected response where I seek to understand the Foucauldian (1972) questions that address the ideas of power, empowerment, and disempowerment.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Overview of Interpretive Case Study

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to understand the range of ways an English language arts (ELA) teacher navigated the tensions between his own critical pedagogical discourses (CPD) and the contextual discourses of teaching and learning (Thompson et al., 2013). In order to center on this teacher's social reality as they interact with others, I situated this study within the qualitative paradigm. As Maxwell (2013) explains, "The strengths of qualitative research derive significantly from this process orientation toward the world, and the inductive approach, focus on specific situations or people, and emphasis on descriptions rather than on numbers" (p. 30). The case study design focused on the how and why questions within the specific contextual conditions; the how and why unfolded throughout the entire research process, which led me to engage in constant reflection and analysis of the data. As I designed this case study, I continually drew on Merriam's (1998) approaches to case study research as a constructivist where social realities are constructed, and the research product is another interpretation of social realities through the researcher's own filtering belief system.

I recognize that my own ontological and epistemic beliefs informed my theoretical perspective as an interpretive researcher (Charmaz, 2006; Crotty, 2015). To begin with, I believe that humans construct their social realities across specific contexts and time through their actions and interactions within those contexts. Even though I see reality as being locally constructed, I also recognize that places are bounded by historical traditions and cultural norms. As Crotty (2015) explains, an interpretivist approach rejects the positivist ideology of universal experiences in society that can be observed "value-free" (p. 67), and these "value-free" explanations are often predictable because they reflect dominant ideology. Because I see the realities of the world being

dependent on a person's perspectives that are shaped by their experiences and ideologies, I also recognize that meaning is never objective. In fact, meaning comes from interaction. As Gee (2012) explains, "All words vary their meanings in different contexts. All words can take on new meanings in new contexts. And all words are open to negotiation and contestation" (p. 24).

My responsibility as an interpretive researcher was to construct my findings and support them through a chain of evidence. Through viewing the multiple pieces of data through the theoretical framework I outlined in Chapter 2, I approached the data with an opened mind, but not an empty one. The pairing of Foucauldian (1977) discourse theory and Bakhtin's (1981; 1986) theories of discourse aligned with my ontological view that not only is meaning socially constructed, but that language is the conductor of meaning. If language is the conductor of meaning, then actors within social situations have choices in what they say and what they do. Thus, discourse is not a deterministic structure; discourse subjects the actors to power while simultaneously providing them with the space for agency. Power and meaning are always interactional and are always in tension with constraint and agency.

As an interpretive researcher, I acknowledged my dual role as participant and interpreter in this study (Andrade, 2009). My presence altered the social situation of the classroom and the interview. Although I recognized that positivist researchers would see this as a drawback that would affect the validity of the researcher, I embraced my position as a participant because it provided me opportunities for deep insight and to build trust between the participant and myself. It was important that I utilized analytic memos to reflect on the duality of my role as researcher and participant. My analytic memos became useful data sources throughout the research because they were spaces for me to reflect on my own positionality in the research.

Member checking was also important because my interpretations needed to be representative of the participant's reality. This was essential because I was so close to the research based on positionality and my positionality informed my approach to data analysis as an interpreter. My approach was obviously iterative, but it was also dependent on me returning to the theories with an open mind (not an empty mind) to construct my argument while also returning to my subject to seek clarification and further explanations.

The first section of this chapter is a discussion of my positionality to the study and the research question, which was an essential starting point considering my close relationship to the phenomenon and the participant. I then introduce the participant, Stuart (pseudonym), an ELA teacher who was beginning his sixth year of teaching at the time of the study. From there, I describe the contexts of the study: county, school, and class. I then outline the data collection methods and describe the data analysis process.

Researcher Positionality

First, as a beginning researcher, it was important that I confronted who I was and who others saw me as when I entered the research (Bourke, 2014). Because the research was shaped by who I was, and I was shaped by this research, I considered my researcher positionality throughout the entire research process, from the formation of my question, to the data analysis process. After all, to make a claim as a researcher, I positioned myself within the research process and reflected throughout (Hall, 1990). Confronting who I was and how others recognized me was something I have become more self-aware throughout my professional experiences. As Althusser (2004) explains, through the act of interpellation, or called into being, a caller recognizes a person and calls him or her into being an identity. The power is the call, and the one doing the calling has recognized the other as a "certain kind of person." Being recognized by others as a certain type of

professional shaped my identity across time. More importantly, my “multiple hats” have informed my researcher positionality. I am more aware of how my range of experiences have shaped my researcher self and how I have repurposed my hats as ways others recognize me to lenses that I use to view the nuances of educational research.

I stepped into this research as a former middle school ELA teacher with 15 years of rich experiences. As an ELA teacher, I mentored beginning teachers in my school as well as preservice teachers who were also my students in the ELA method courses that I taught as an adjunct for 10 years at a local land grant institution. As a professional learning facilitator, I facilitated seminars for ELA teachers sponsored by the National Writing Project and for teachers from a range of disciplines who are pursuing their National Board Certification. I recognized that each one of these professional experiences have grounded my personal beliefs of teaching, learning, and teacher education in the larger context of growth through inquiry. In fact, I first met the participant in the study through multiple professional learning opportunities I helped organize and facilitate.

One constant throughout my middle school teaching experiences was the presence of multiple contextual discourses that supported the neo-liberal agenda. These contextual discourses conflicted with my CPD of dialogic teaching and my vision of learning and my students’ futures. As an ELA teacher, I was expected to attend the professional development sessions (provided by the company as part of the contractual agreement with my school district) and adopt the programs into my daily curriculum. These professional development sessions left me professionally hungry for learning opportunities that would reconnect teaching to students’ learning, so I stepped outside the boundaries of my school district to find professional learning that was rich in content and professional inquiry. This is where I found my affinity group (Gee, 2000, p. 105) and “critical friends” (Wennergren, 2016) who challenged me and supported me as a teacher and a learner.

I recognized that my positionality is one of both privilege and disadvantage. Although my range of experiences have provided me with multiple opportunities to reflect on who I am and who I want to be, they have also been disadvantageous to some extent to my area of focus as a researcher. For example, it has been difficult for me to focus my researcher self and to step into the research confidently because I see value in all my research inquiries, but I also recognize that focusing on *all* areas of interest will be a disservice to educational research and my growth as a researcher. Thus, my positionality is both/and: confident/unsure and experienced/novice. While I am an experienced teacher and teacher educator, I am a novice researcher. The space of a novice is uncomfortable and empowering, and the place of being a novice is a place I have not occupied for a while in my professional journey.

As a novice researcher, I recommitted my reflective stance to consider how these multiple hats have shaped my researcher positionality and where I stand in relation to others (Merriam, et al., 2001) and to the ELA content. Through my teacher educator lens, I recognized that ELA teachers' beliefs are multifaceted and contextual. To prioritize teacher decision-making as informed and embedded within specific contexts, I desired to understand how an ELA teacher filters contextual discourses through his own beliefs as he mobilized those beliefs into practice.

Research Contexts

As discussed in Chapter 1, the neo-liberal professional landscape can directly impact what types of teaching practices are preferred to improve students' test scores. To understand the macro and micro contexts of this case study, the following section provides a brief look to situate the study in the policies and structures at the district and school levels.

School District

Mountain County is a West Virginia school district that is unlike the majority of other school districts in the state. As other areas in the state are seeing a decline in population, the county in this study has seen continuous growth in the past three years (United States Census Bureau, 2019). Even with budget cuts and economic declines from the coal mining industry across the state, the voters in this county have continually supported excess school levies since 1994. The 2018-2023 excess levy continues to provide Advanced Placement courses in all three of the school district's high schools, summer activities, transportation upgrades, and a pay raise for all school district employees (Dominion Post, 2017).

The community's support of education has been noted as a reason for the success of high school alumni. In 2018, "America's Best High Schools" ranked two of the three high schools in the county in the top three of West Virginia's high schools (Bissett, 2018). For two consecutive years, one high school secured the number one ranking. This county has also transcended the unemployment rates across the state. In January 2019, this county's unemployment rate was 4.4% while the state was at 6% (Homefacts, 2019). The lower unemployment rate could be credited to three largest employers including the state's land grant institution, a large pharmaceutical company, and a trauma one research hospital.

In Chapter One, I discussed this school district's focus on one-to-one technology with the adoption of Chromebooks for every student in grades 3-12, with a price tag of \$1.5 million (Bonnstetter, 2017). Providing students with resources for their learning is encouraged through the constant voter support of excess levies. However, within the neo-liberal political landscape, these Chromebooks are repurposed as tools that simultaneously produce, promote, and measure human capital. If the school district is spending money to purchase the Chromebooks, then teachers

are expected to use them. Professional learning opportunities for teachers narrowly focuses on the Chromebook and the available tools for teachers and students. Also, the Chromebook provides the one-to-one space for constant assessment of students; now, teachers do not have to worry about scheduling a computer lab to take a standardized end of the year assessment or a benchmark. Thus, planning, teaching, learning, and assessment are mirrored to the ideology of the business world: production and economic growth. The focus on the production of measurable human capital development becomes the norm, and the democratic vision of schools is pushed to the side.

But the “cost-benefit strait-jacket for curriculum development” (Engel, 2000, p.30) seems to work for this school district with its higher rates of student achievement and outpouring of financial support from taxpayers. However, the reduction of learning to economic aspects opens the possibilities for more neo-liberal politics. Currently, legislatures are looking to this school district as one of the sites for the state’s first charter school, a highly contested piece of legislation in the 2019 legislative special session on education. Public forums responses showed that 88% of West Virginians did not support public charter school (Bissett, 2019). Although the school district issued a statement that the district would not support a public charter school that funnels money away from public schools (Bissett, 2019), the Senate President, one of the staunch supporters of public charter schools, cited this school district as wanting a charter school. In a school district board of education meeting on Tuesday, June 25, 2019, the school district superintendent denied that the Senate President did not cite this school district as one of the places to open the state’s first charter school, and refocused the board meeting on the upcoming school year, regardless of charter schools or no charter schools, and the recycling of the three year old Chromebooks to the younger grades so that every student in the school district will have one-to-one technology (Bissett, 2019).

School

There are 791 students in sixth through eighth grade that attended Hilltop Middle School in 2019-2020, a slight increase by five students from the previous academic year (West Virginia Department of Education, 2020). The school's student racial diversity is similar to other schools in West Virginia, with an 87% white population, 4% are black, 2% Hispanic, and 6% are multiracial. Of the students who are white, 30% of them are in the low socio-economic subgroup, and 64% of the black students are in the low socio-economic subgroup. Fifteen percent of the student population qualify for special education services.

Because of the Covid-19 pandemic that moved all public and private schools in West Virginia to remote learning, the state did not administer the end of the year summative assessment: The West Virginia General Summative Assessment for the 2019-2020 school year. A look at the 2018-2019 statewide summative assessment results show a decline in reading scores over the past three years (West Virginia Department of Education, 2019), with a ten percent drop from 2016-2017 and the 2017-2018 school years. The decline in reading scores prioritized reading initiatives in the school's strategic plan. A review of the school's webpage showed multiple technological resources for teaching reading, including specific webpages students could login with their Chromebooks to address learning gaps.

Class. The focal class for this research was selected based on the school's class schedule. This second/third period 7th grade ELA block was the only block time in the teacher's schedule that was not interrupted by lunch, planning, or team planning. The 26 students stayed in the classroom for the two periods. Of these 26 students, there were nine students with Individualized Educational Plans (IEPs). A special education teacher was in the classroom during the first half of the block schedule to meet the needs of the nine students who had IEPs. The special education

teacher occasionally read aloud the stories to the class and walked around to help those students who were not focused and to redirect student behavior.

Participant Selection

Stuart, the participant in this study, was selected by purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is when the researcher purposefully selects participants who have experiences with the key concept the study aims to explore (Palys, 2008). At the start of this study, Stuart was beginning his sixth year of teaching English Language Arts in West Virginia, also the state where he spent his time learning in public K-12 schools. I first met Stuart at a local ELA teacher conference. He attended a session I facilitated on using cartoon drawings of crime scenes as visual tools to prompt students to write effective warrants that directly connect evidence to the argumentative claim. At that time, Stuart and I only knew each other through a mutual network of teachers at his school, including some of my former graduate students I taught in the ELA method courses and others who were participants in the National Board cohort I facilitated.

After my presentation, Stuart introduced himself and inquired into the National Board certification process. We chatted about the process, and he expressed interest in beginning the process and participating in the National Board Cohort I facilitate. This cohort provides support for teachers throughout their journey of NB certification. In Fall 2017, Stuart started his National Board certification journey. At that time, he was a 7th grade ELA teacher at a local middle school. He openly discussed in cohort meetings his frustrations with mandated curriculum and his vision of who he wanted to be as a teacher and how he envisioned his students learning. After one cohort meeting, I wrote in a memo: “Stuart is in an epistemic war at his school. He recognizes that his students deserve to engage in learning in richer ways than the curriculum map or textbook lends itself.” In October 2017, Stuart shared a video with the cohort that he planned to analyze and turn

into the NBPTS as a portion of one the required components. This video showed him in the back corner of his classroom taking notes as his students engaged in a Socratic Seminar on the text *The Coffin Quilt* (Rinaldi). After the showing of the video, Stuart discussed with the cohort members how he navigated the conflicting expectations that trickle down to him through county, state, and school level administration contexts. He stated, “I am supposed to engage them in the reading process, but the way they test reading is very individual. Reading is social and I want students to engage in purposeful conversations about texts, but I also do not want to be the one in the front telling them what to think cause then I am not helping them learn to think.” Because of our shared experiences with teaching ELA 7th grade, we talked a lot about our teaching and ways we engage students in thinking about multiple perspectives. As Stuart said in one conversation, “It takes a lot to get them to the point where they can engage in conversations, but it is worth getting them there. The journey is all part of it.” Stuart’s words signaled to me that he viewed learning as a process that the students were worthy of engaging, regardless of time, which directly spoke against the neo-liberal resources of learning as product driven, with quick test results and solutions to student learning needs. I wanted to know more about the ways Stuart brought his visions of himself as an ELA teacher and his students to life among the contextual discourses across his teaching contexts.

From the interviews with Stuart, I compiled brief overviews of Stuart as a student and as a teacher. The purpose of these overviews is to introduce Stuart to the reader. Further analysis of Stuart’s identity and situated meaning of teaching and learning will be discussed in the next two chapters.

Overview of Stuart as a Student

Stuart was a student in the West Virginian public school system from K-12 and as an undergraduate. As a student in K-12 schools, Stuart described himself as a “good” student, citing

multiple awards he earned, including “Kindergartener of the Year” and the coveted senior boy award bestowed upon one graduating senior boy at his rural high school, for his success as a student. One school-based accolade he received was his points he earned in completing Accelerated Reader quizzes and a writing award in 8th grade for an essay he wrote about why West Virginia matters (Interview 3). Stuart discussed how being a good student focused on both grades and behavior because he was always “ready to learn” (Interview 3) even though his teachers often commented on his messy desk and his social nature of wanting to talk to everyone that resulted in him being moved beside the teacher’s desk (Interview 3).

Stuart entered into his college freshman year as a pre-psychology major because he loved “learning about how the mind works” (Interview 3, p.11). But his days as a pre-psychology major were short lived after Stuart experienced a discussion based English literature class his freshman year which led him to reflect on other experiences he had with reading and writing. He then decided he wanted to be an English teacher: “I want to read” (Interview 3, p. 12). Stuart continued this “good student” trajectory throughout his undergraduate teacher education experience at a small, rural university in his home state. Stuart also earned the honor of being named “Outstanding English Major” during his undergraduate career. He attributed this award as the “catapult” and “confidence boost” (Interview 2) he needed to apply to graduate school to earn his Master of Arts in literature from a large out-of-state public university with a student population of 28,000+.

As a graduate student, Stuart participated in literacy events such as Socratic Seminars, analytical writing, and research that transcended the knowledge production ways of learning that he had been exposed to throughout his previous student experiences. He collected these experiences and worked to enact them as a teacher, but he found that enacting dialogic teaching practices were further complicated by contextual discourses.

Overview of Stuart as a Teacher

For his first two years of teaching, Stuart taught English at West High School (pseudonym), a West Virginia high school with a student population of 1,350 where 80% of the student were white, 18% black, and Hispanic, Latino, and Asian students made up less than 3% of the student population (West Virginia Department of Education, 2020). Stuart described his first two years of teaching as stressful and intense as he worked to navigate what administration and department leaders expected of his teaching. Stuart explained the dynamics of his first two years of teaching when he described his department chair's leadership style:

“There was a chairperson, but all she did was say to me, ‘Here is your book. This is what I usually do. Good luck.’ So, it was hands off in a way, and it was supportive if I had questions, I could go to someone and get information. I could see what they were doing versus what I had thought to do. But, as a whole, it was very much everyone does their own thing, and nobody collaborates.” (Interview 1)

Stuart's description of his first two years of teaching focused on the lack of collaboration opportunities at the school and professional learning which greatly differed from his experiences at his current school, Hilltop Middle in Mountain County. Stuart was frustrated by teachers who were stuck on conservative teaching practices (which he noted from his own experiences as a student and from his colleagues) of lecturing and feeding students information (Interviews 1, 3, and 5).

As a teacher, Stuart referred to himself as a “team player” (Interviews 1, 2, and 6). Stuart considered collaborating or “team playing” (Interview 1) as a key piece of his teaching practice. He believed that teachers should plan together and work alongside each other in attending voluntary professional learning together (Interview 2) and planning instructional units together (Interview 1).

Data Collection

I collected data for eight months, spanning over three phrases of data collection. This research design and data collection plan purposefully addressed some gaps in this body of research, mainly the need for in-depth interviews (Pillen, et al., 2013) to more accurately uncover the contextual tensions and teachers' responses to the tensions (Van der Want, et al., 2018). The first phrase took place over Summer 2019 before I began observations in Stuart's classroom in Fall 2019. In the first phrase, I used semi-structured interviews to learn more about Stuart's experiences as a student and teacher (Table 2) and beliefs in teaching ELA. I planned questions to guide our discussions based on the topic of the interview, but I allowed Stuart's comments and responses to direct the conversation with me inquiring with prompts such as "Tell me more" or "Could you expand on what you mean by...?" Listening to his ideas and allowing his comments to direct the interview were essential to my interpretive stance to stay true to Stuart's experiences through his words.

During the semi-structured interviews with Stuart, I used graphic elicitation methods. Graphic elicitation has been used to come to understand ways members of marginalized groups (e.g. students of color with multiple disciplinary infractions at a predominately white school and students and teachers in racially diverse, low-income schools) perceive their experiences across multiple contexts (Bernstein, 2011; Kolar, et al., 2015; Wood, 2006). This study used timelines to give Stuart multiple opportunities to represent his thinking (Bridger, 2013). The timelines were useful in helping Stuart sort through and organize his memories of his K-12, teacher education, and teaching experiences throughout the interview (Kolar et al., 2015).

Table 2: Interviews in Phase 1 and Phase 2		
Participant	Topic	Purpose
Stuart	Teaching Experiences	To account for the range of teaching experiences and the expectations at the department, school, and district levels for each teaching experience
Stuart	Student Experiences	To account for the range of experiences as a student in K-12 and in teacher education
Stuart	Professional Learning Experiences	To account for professional learning experiences after graduation from teacher education including learning experiences provided by the school district and learning experiences that he self-selected
Stuart	Practices and Beliefs as an ELA teacher	To account for beliefs about ELA (its purpose) and the reasoning about his practices in teaching ELA and how they connect to his beliefs about student learning
School Principal	School-level Curriculum Expectations	To account for the administrative role and expectations for teachers in the school
Academic Coach/Technology Integration Specialist (TIS)	School-level Testing and Data Informed Instruction Expectations	To account for the school level leadership for testing and data informed instruction from the testing results

Phase Two of the study took place from August 2019- January 2020. This phase included classroom observations, conversations with Stuart about his teaching, and semi-structured interviews with two members of the administrative team at Hilltop Middle School: the principal and the academic coach. All interviews had a specific purpose and were transcribed (Table 2). I entered into Stuart’s 2/3 period block class on the third day of the school year. This was a time where I introduced the study, obtained parental permission, and observed ways Stuart built the classroom community through modeling expectations and routines.

Table 3 Instructional Units with Objectives and Standards

Unit	Dates	Objectives and Standards	District and State Testing
Greek Mythology	August 26-Sept. 23 Sept. 30 – October 11	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students will read and compare myths from Greek mythology. • Students will build on their knowledge of the gods and goddesses throughout the unit. • Students will be able to explain the reasons for humanity’s reliance on mythology. • Students will write responses to writing prompts and use the writing process. • Students will engage in collaborative discussions about the myths. <p><u>Reading the myths:</u> ELA 7.1 Cite textual evidence to support analysis; ELA 7.2 determine theme; ELA 7.9 Analyze points of view; ELA 7.18 Read and comprehend literature.</p> <p><u>Quick Writes:</u> ELA 7.20 Write arguments; ELA 7.21 Write informative; ELA 7.22 Write narrative; ELA 7.23 Clear writing appropriate to task; ELA 7.24 Writing process</p> <p><u>Class Discussions:</u> ELA 7.30 Collaborative discussions</p>	Students did not have Chromebooks, so the testing schedule was changed
Banned Book Week	Sept. 23-28	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students will be able to define and explain censorship in its many forms. • Students will be able to discuss the creation of banned books week and how it has been celebrated in addition to how and why it is continually celebrated. • Students will read and discuss informational texts. • Students will create artistic projects to raise awareness. • Students will conduct short research assignments and present their findings in various group settings. • ELA 7.4, 5, 6: Textual evidence to support analysis of informational texts; determine two central ideas and their development in informational text; analyze ideas in informational texts • ELA 7.16,17, 19: Trace and evaluate argument; analyze how two or more authors write about the same topic; read and comprehend nonfiction and informational texts • ELA 7.26, 27: Conduct short research projects; gather relevant information from multiple sources • ELA 7.33: Present claims and findings 	
Spooky Stories and Haunted House	October 14-October 31	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ELA.7.23-25, 29 • Students will be able to develop and organize writing appropriate for task, purpose, and audience. • Students will be able to develop and strength writing by planning, revising, and editing with a focus on descriptive writing. • Students will be able to use technology to produce their writing, research information, and collaborate with others. • Students will use descriptive writing techniques paying special attention to imagery, sensory details, and vivid verbs and adjectives. • <u>Students will research haunted properties and use the visual and textual information to create their writing.</u> • 	Round 1: Reading Inventory (District Mandated)

Unit	Dates	Objectives and Standards	District and State Testing
Coffin Quilt	Nov. 4- Jan. 17	<p><u>Pre-Reading HyperDoc</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ELA.7.5: You will be able to determine the main idea in two or more informational texts (bottle tree and haints articles) • ELA.7.32: You will be able to determine a speaker’s main ideas and key points. • ELA.7.10: You will be able to define words and phrases in the informational articles. • ELA.7.26: You will research information on relevant topics featured in the novel. <p><u>While Reading (Discussion, Novel Docs, Short Projects)</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ELA.7.1: You will be able to use textual evidence to answer questions in discussion. • ELA.7.3: You will be able to analyze how the setting and events shape the characters or plots. • ELA.7.14: You will compare and contrast the fictional portrayal of the 1880s and the fictional account of the same period to see how the author use or alter history. • ELA.7.18: You will read and comprehend grade-appropriate literature. • ELA.7.41: You will find and use vocabulary from the book. • ELA.7.40: You will find and explain figurative language in the novel. <p><u>Socratic Seminars</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ELA.7.28: You will draw evidence from the novel to support your analysis, reflection, and research. • ELA.7.30: You will effectively engage in collaborative discussions with diverse partners on the novel creating your own ideas and building on others’ while expressing ideas clearly. • ELA.7.33: You will present claims, descriptions, facts, details, and examples while using appropriate eye contact, adequate volume, and clear pronunciation. • You will self-reflect on your performance while also evaluating a classmate 	<p>Comprehensive Interim Assessment (State Mandated 2 days)</p> <p>Second Round of Reading Inventory</p>

From August 2019-January 2020, I observed Stuart facilitate four instructional units (Table 3). For each instructional unit, Stuart shared with me the objectives and the focal standards for the unit. He also shared the objectives for each unit with the students; they were displayed on the board. All objectives listed in Table 3 are in Stuart's words.

Initially, I planned for a third phase of classroom observations, but due to Covid-19 moving all instruction to remote learning, I did not have the opportunity to observe Stuart teaching after January 2020. From February 2020- May 2020, I conducted two follow up interviews with Stuart. The purposes of these follow up interviews were for member checking and to clarify the sources of some of his assessments.

Data Sources

Interviews and classroom observations opened the possibility for a variety of data sources throughout the eight months of data collection. A variety of data sources helped me gain information about specific contextual aspects. Also, these data sources were key in triangulation, so I gained a "more secure understanding" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 102) which supported my credibility as a beginning researcher.

Field Notes

I wrote descriptive field notes during and after each classroom observation to capture the classroom "scenes" (Emerson et al., 2011, p. 47) on the page. At the end of the class, I spent time recording my thinking about the observed lesson. If time did not allow me to stay behind in the classroom after the class ended, I then recorded my thoughts in my car on an audio recorder to capture in-the -moment thinking before the moment became a distant memory.

For the field notes, I labeled moments where Stuart gave instruction to students, explained procedures for activities, asked questions during class discussions, responded to students'

comments in class discussions, and explained the purposes for assignments. I then assigned each interaction between Stuart and his students as monological or dialogic based on the purpose of the talk.

Interview Transcripts

All interviews were transcribed and coded using in vivo coding to stay true to Stuart's words (Charmaz, 2006; Saldaña, 2013). The coding process served two purposes. First, through the labeling of chunks of the interview transcript, I became familiar with Stuart through his own words. I considered this re-reading of the field notes as transactional (Rosenblatt, 1982) in that each reading was a new experience because I approached the text with new knowledge and new sets of experiences as a researcher. Another purpose of the coding process was to organize the interview chunks in categories. Beliefs about teaching, beliefs about teaching ELA, beliefs about assessments/data, beliefs about professional learning, beliefs about context, and practice. This organization allowed me to uncover ways his beliefs formed, altered, and reformed across his leaning and teaching contexts. I also coded or organized the principal and academic coach/ TIS interviews and then organized the interview chunks

The interviews transcripts supplemented the field notes and vice versa. Both data sources served complementary and expansion purposes (Greene, 2007, p.101-104). For example, using interviews and observations allowed me to see a broad range of perspectives. An interview presented the opportunity to understand the participant's perspectives; observations presented the researcher the opportunity to watch the participant's beliefs in action.

Conversation Transcripts

During phase two, Stuart and I engaged in conversations about his instructional decisions five times. These conversations were recorded and transcribed. The purpose of these

conversations was for Stuart to explain his decision-making in individual lessons and unit plans that I watched unfold during my observations.

Documents

Throughout phase one and phase two, Stuart and the Academic Coach/ Technology Integration Specialist gave me access to materials that communicated expectations to teachers and students. For example, Stuart shared rubrics, PowerPoints that detailed instructions for students, and assignment sheets. Stuart and the Academic Coach/ Technology Integration Specialist shared materials that communicated teaching and testing expectations. These materials included a welcome back email from the principal that was sent to all faculty at Hilltop Middle School the week before school started in Fall 2019, a schedule of benchmark tests throughout the school year that the academic coach/TIS compiled with direction from the Mountain School District personnel and shared with the faculty, and the school wide strategic plan. These documents outlined the expectations that Stuart communicated to his students and expectations that the administration team had for teachers. In other words, the documents were essential sources of data that were used for triangulation purposes to better understand the contextual discourses of Hilltop Middle School.

Analytic Memos

During phase one and phase two, I regularly reviewed the field notes and interview transcripts. I had a large amount of data, and I wanted to become acquainted with the data throughout the collection process. After each review of the data, I wrote analytic memos where I “dump[ed] my brain” (Saldaña, 2013, p. 41). My analytic memos focused on my positionality with the research. As an interpretive researcher, it was vital that I engaged in ongoing conversations with myself and the data to account for the ways I was interpreting the data, the whys of the interpretations, and the futuristic considerations of the study. These multiple lenses

within the context of my conceptual/theoretical framework blurred the insider/outsider binary that researchers use to explain who they are in relation to the phenomenon they are studying and the participants. In Chapter 2 I detailed the relationships between utterance, heteroglossia, and discourses (Bakhtin, 1981; 1986; Holoquist, 2002; Foucault, 1972). These constructs mutually informed the purpose for my study and the data collection, interpretation, and analysis of the data. Stuart was positioned in the heteroglossia in which he responded, drawing on the discourses that were available to him as he simultaneously responded to the questions “Who am I at this moment and space in time?” and “Who are you to me?” I was never in the place where Stuart was, nor will I ever be. The heteroglot was specific to him, and his response was his own in his own time. It was not mine. As an interpretive researcher, I remained loyal to his words, so his experiences are reflected and not my own.

Another common topic of the analytic memos was the materials and the activities that Stuart designed and used in his classroom. The data analysis process emerged from my constant review of the data and the writing and reviewing of the analytic memos.

Data Analysis

In this section, I explain my data analysis process. Data analysis was not a linear process. I revisited the data, revised the questions I posed to the data, and engaged in member checking for clarification or further explanation. Throughout the data revisitation process, I remained cognizant of the meanings that Stuart constructed from his social realities across the spaces of his learning to teach and teaching contexts (Crotty, 2005). My interpretation of these social realities is formed through a process described by Richards and Richards (1994) as a weaving of webs where the researcher “sees the links and draws the threads together” (p.170) across sources of data to construct and support his/her argument. I connect this process of the “threading” of data to

Bakhtin's (1986) chains of utterances that exist among discourses and are made up of discourses. I use the threading of data to link the experiences across his apprenticeship of observation to argue how contextual discourses (within and across contexts) and Stuart's compartmentalized critical pedagogical discourse (CPD) (Thompson et al., 2013) created such tensions between enacting his visions of himself as a teacher.

MASS (Materials, Activity, Semiotics, and Sociocultural) Analysis Process

Understanding how Stuart filtered the contextual discourses through his critical pedagogical discourses (Thompson et al., 2013) was central to my research question: What are the range of ways an early-career English language arts (ELA) teacher navigates the tensions between his own beliefs and the contextual discourses of teaching and learning?

I recognized that the contextual discourses informed his beliefs and shaped the practice he took up, modified, or ignored in his classroom (Nolen et al., 2011). Thus, I did not view each of Stuart's action within the classroom or each "utterance" (Bakhtin, 1981) as neutral or isolated; rather, every instructional decision, including what learning opportunities he created for students, how he created them, and the materials used to engage students in the meaning making process and to assess their progress was simultaneously calling and responding to his critical pedagogical discourses and the contextual discourses. As an interpretivist, I recognized that each instructional decision reflected Stuart's negotiation of the situated meanings of teaching and learning.

To remind my reader, I am an interpretivist seeking to better understand the range of ways an early career ELA teacher navigates the tensions between his own beliefs and practices of teaching ELA and varied contextual discourses. Because of the centrality of the teacher's meaning-making of the contextual discourses, and the ways in which his utterances marked ever-changing CPD, I utilized an analytical approach that looks at the intersection of materials, activities,

semiotics and sociocultural aspects of discursive interactions. Specifically, MASS (Gee & Green 1998) analysis provided me, as a researcher, with the analytical lens to attend to multiple components of situations that Stuart participated in or described. As Gee and Green (1998) explained, each component of the MASS system forefront specific aspects that are inextricably working together to create the social reality of the situation. For example, materials forefronts the people, place, time, and artifacts present or referenced; activities refer to the event or chain of events; semiotics are the situated meaning, and sociocultural aspect refers to personal, social, and cultural cognitive and affective factors.

These multiple components (materials, activities, semiotics, and sociocultural aspects) simultaneously narrowed my analysis and broadened it. By this I mean that I could attend to each component in a single social situation and look across social situations at how each component or components shifted across time and space. As Gee and Green (1998) explained, the MASS system allowed me to “foreground particular aspects while backgrounding others” (p. 135) to uncover ways “the components or aspects simultaneously give meaning to all of the others and obtain meaning from them” (p. 135).

When I first started the data analysis process, I drew on Gee and Green’s (1998) MASS framework and related questions detailed on pages 140-141. I selected questions from their detailed list that I thought would provide insight into ways Stuarts’ beliefs and practices shaped his instructional decision-making within his specific teaching context and the multiple contextual discourses he navigated across his teaching and learning to teach contexts. Once I delved into the data analysis process, I saw a need to refine the questions I posed to the data to more specifically connect the questions to the concepts of beliefs and practices that are central to my research question. In other words, the questions needed to be more specific to the data and the purpose of

Table 4: Data Analysis Questions Using the MASS System	
MASS Questions (Gee & Green, 1981, pps. 140-141)	Revised MASS Questions
<p><u>Materials:</u> When, where, with whom, and under what conditions are members interacting?</p> <p>What meanings and values seem to be attached to places, time, objects, artifacts, and institutions relevant in this situation?</p>	<p><u>Materials:</u> Beliefs: Which materials does he use, modify or reject because they are consistent with or challenge or violate his beliefs?</p> <p>When, where, with whom and under what conditions does Stuart share his beliefs and/or find his beliefs challenged?</p> <p>Practice: Which materials (from whom and under what conditions) does he take up or push against within his practice?</p>
<p><u>Activities:</u> What is the larger activity to which members are orienting in this situation?</p> <p>How is time being spent in this situation/event?</p>	<p><u>Activities:</u> Beliefs: How does Stuart use his beliefs to make sense of the larger activity?</p> <p>Practice: How does Stuart draw from or resist the larger activity within his teaching practice?</p>
<p><u>Semiotics:</u> What situated meanings of the words and phrases do members construct?</p> <p>What discourses are being re-produced in this situation and how are they being transformed in the act?</p> <p>What sorts of connections (intertextual ties) are being made within and across utterances?</p> <p>In what ways are the intertextual ties constructed within and across events?</p>	<p><u>Semiotics:</u> Beliefs: What situated meanings of words or phrases does Stuart construct?</p> <p>How does Stuart use his beliefs to make sense of the discourses being reproduced or produced in the specific situation?</p> <p>Practice: How does Stuart's practice reflect and/or challenge the contextual discourses?</p>
<p><u>Sociocultural Aspects:</u> What cultural norms are constructed and or signaled by relevant members to guide participation and activity among participants in the event?</p> <p>What personal, social, and cultural knowledge and beliefs (cognition), feelings (affect), and identities (roles and relationships, positions) seem to be relevant to the situations?</p> <p>How are these identities signaled by members and/or constructed in the interactions among members?</p>	<p><u>Sociocultural Aspects:</u> Beliefs: What roles and relationships (past, present, and futuristic) seem relevant to Stuart's beliefs about teaching?</p> <p>Practice: What roles and relationships seem relevant to Stuart's practice?</p>

How are identities transformed and associated with actions and responses to activities?	
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the study (see Table 4). To illustrate how the questions listed in Table 4 helped provide a nuanced look into the data, I provide a brief description of one specific instance in the data analysis process where the questions posed to the data deepened and complicated my interpretation of the data.

Throughout the interviews and conversations, Stuart focused on “collaboration” or being a “team player” (Interviews 1, 2, and 6), citing specific examples of what he has done in regard to collaborating with colleagues and future visions of himself as a collaborator with his colleague to detail his conceptualization of collaboration. When I posed the following question “What situated meanings of the words and phrases do the members construct?” I traced how members across Stuart’s teaching context informed this contextual discourse of collaboration through their descriptions of what counts as collaboration, such as sharing and teaching from each other’s units (Interview 2, 5, 6), or when unplanned opportunities for collaboration are suspect (Principal Interview) because collaborative time for teachers was built into the school day schedule. “[Teachers] get together at the team time, you don’t see them just sitting around, talking, hanging out in the hallways. They are always with kids and always doing something (p. 10). Collaboration at Hilltop Middle involved specific activities of talking about data, and sharing ideas at specific times during the workday.

I used questions that highlighted how the teacher’s beliefs interacted with these situated meaning: “How does the context support or push against his (Stuart’s) beliefs? How do his beliefs work for or against the contextual discourses? What does each activity mean in the context of the school and for Stuart?” I could trace how Stuart’s conceptualization of collaboration was formed across the different learning to teach contexts, and how each collaborative activity between him and his colleagues within the specific context shaped his vision of himself as a “team player.” In

Chapter 4, I will provide a detailed look at the contextual discourse of collaboration that informed Stuart's understanding and practice of collaboration.

My analysis process illustrated Richards and Richards' (1994) conceptualization of qualitative data analysis as a weaving of webs; the weaving process included looking at each individual thread before deciding how I would weave them together in a way that honored the individual beauty of each thread while also recognizing that the threading process made new designs possible. To see the patterns in the data, I began by arranging my conceptual memos chronologically by the context of his teaching and learning activities: K-12, teacher education, graduate school, West High School, and his current teaching context, Hilltop Middle School. Within each context, I organized the writing around the internal themes that I interpreted about the situated meanings of what it means to be a teacher, a reader, a writer, and a teacher of reading and writing. I then noted the following themes across the context: searching for membership, compartmentalization of dialogic and monologic teaching practices, and creating spaces for teacher reflection and inquiry into practice. I reorganized my conceptual memos around these themes that stretched across contexts.

Ethical Considerations

Limitations of Time

Time played an important factor in my research study. First, Stuart and I had to select a focal class based on the Hilltop Middle School schedule and my teaching responsibilities. The course schedule was challenging because two of the three ELA blocks that Stuart taught were separated by lunch or his planning period. The second/third periods were uninterrupted. Secondly, we had to consider breaks in the sequence of instruction including holiday breaks and semester breaks.

Covid-19 interrupted my data collection process. I originally planned to observe Stuart in Spring 2020, but my last observation was in January 2020. In March 2020, all public schools in West Virginia moved to remote instruction due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Even though my classroom data collection stopped, I used this time to conduct follow up interviews with Stuart to clarify the sources of some of his assessments and activities in teacher education. I also began extensive data review, which led me to organize the data into categories of Stuart's beliefs (beliefs about teaching, learning, assessment, professional development, and the purpose of education). Once the data was organized, I began the analysis process. Throughout the robust analysis, I engaged in peer checking with my advisor to maintain credibility as a novice researcher.

Limitations of My Positionality

Because of my 15 years of experience teaching ELA, I entered this research study with my own experiences of navigating the conflicting heteroglossia while authoring my own teacher identity. I hold firm beliefs about teaching ELA that are grounded in a constructivist (Vygotsky, 1978) view of learning. In fact, selecting Stuart as the participant for the study was greatly influenced by our previous discussions on student engagement in inquiry in the ELA classroom. I also recognized that my beliefs can limit or privilege data collection and data analysis. Therefore, my data collection plan was robust with multiple forms of data and my analysis plan included member checking and triangulation.

Critical Friends

In my researcher positionality statement, I discussed the role of "critical friends" (Wennergren, 2016) throughout my experiences as a teacher, teacher educator, doctoral student, and professional learning facilitator. More so now than ever as I stepped into the education research community as a beginning researcher, I relied on my group of critical friends to serve as

an “outside pair of eyes or ears” (Saldaña, 2013, p. 258) to the working progress of my data collection and analysis. This group of critical friends were members of my doctoral committee: Drs. Audra Slocum, Malayna Bernstein, Sharon Hayes, and Sarah Morris. Their ideas and experiences as educational researchers helped me “see” what my positionality hid.

Chapter 4: Findings

Introduction

In this chapter, I share the findings I constructed through the analysis process in response to the research question: What are the range of ways an early-career English language arts (ELA) teacher navigates the tensions between his own beliefs and the contextual discourses of teaching and learning?

There are three major themes that emerged through analysis of my findings: the search for membership, compartmentalization of dialogic and monologic teaching practices, and making available the space for teacher reflection. Stuart searched for membership across the conflicting contextual discourses; the contextual discourse of data informed instruction and collaboration conflicted with his CPD of student-centered learning and his team player identity of participating in the socially accepted ways of using data to inform practice and to collaborate. Across the learning sequences he taught in his current teaching context, Stuart compartmentalized his CPD, but when he filtered the Socratic Seminar through the CPD of student-centered learning, Stuart's teaching practice shifted and altered the learning sequence to foster a dialogic space for "collaborative talk" (Newman, 2016).

Searching for Membership/Team Player Identity

Throughout Stuart's experiences in his undergraduate teacher education program and across his teaching contexts, Stuart was apprenticed into diverse communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) that took up tools and practices that were imbued with socially accepted ways of engaging in collaboration and teaching. Specifically, his experiences collaborating with other English education majors to teach a remedial English 90 course, the lack of collaborative opportunities within his first two years of teaching, and the collaboration of sharing teaching ideas

and instructional units in Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) at his current teaching context, all informed his team player identity and the type of teacher he wanted to be. Each one of these collaborative opportunities privileged different conceptual tools and practices and discourses that would inform Stuart's beliefs.

Teaching as Collaborative Practice: "...I felt that I could try something to see how it would work. I would share my results and get feedback"

Although Stuart had a range of traditional clinical experiences in the K-12 classrooms, as an undergraduate English education student, he was also required to teach an undergraduate remedial English course, English 90. Students enrolled in English 90 did not meet high school GPA or other admission requirements.

Stuart discussed how he and the other secondary English education majors worked alongside their English professor to plan for the course and inquire into their teaching practice. During weekly planning sessions, Stuart and 5 other English education majors planned for ways to "facilitate learning through reading, discussing, and writing" (Conversation 5, p. 1). These planning sessions were times for the English education majors to reflect on their teaching with each other and their course instructor. Stuart explained that these planning sessions were key in working through the challenges of teaching English 90. Stuart and his peers planned similar activities so they could talk about them in their planning sessions. As Stuart explained, "It was more experimental for me where I felt that I could try something to see how it would work. I would share my results and get feedback" (Interview 1, p. 11).

Stuart was a member of a "community of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991) that focused on teacher inquiry into practice and analysis of how instructional decisions impacted student

learning. This community of practice apprenticed Stuart into acceptable ways of collaborating and ways to use tools for collaboration. As a member, Stuart interacted in socially acceptable ways of collaborating. First, he shared his successes with others in the English 90 instructor community of practice. From his successes and areas that he saw were not working how he envisioned, he inquired into his practice. After each English 90 instructor meeting, he and his peer colleagues, alongside the course professor, made plans to implement new strategies, collect student work, and return to the next meeting with a deeper understanding of how their practice connects to their students' learning.

Stuart's Coming to Learn What it Means to Learn as a Teacher: "Getting us here because of contract and time"

Stuart's first two years as a teacher at West High School were frustrating and lonely due to the contextual discourses of teacher learning as non-collaborative, isolating experiences. Thus, within this sociocultural context of West High, Stuart began to construct a meaning of professional learning situated in the managerial neo-liberal agenda to control teachers, "to get you in here because of your contract and time" (Interview 2, p. 13) and not as a means for teachers to grow together to improve their practice. Stuart did not branch out to find other professional learning opportunities to quench his professional thirst because he did not know where to look.

His first recollection of professional learning provided by the school district was a two-day workshop on how to use the literature textbook (Interview 2). This professional learning was managerial, focusing on the textbook organization and supplemental materials. When the school district moved to 1:1 instruction with iPads, professional learning focused on the multi-modalities of text. "Show your kids what a text can be" (Interview 1, p. 3). The professional learning focused on teachers as technicians who used apps and digital resources to teach. Even when selecting texts

for students to read, teachers were taught how to find digital texts to incorporate into their curriculum. Thus, the professional learning focused on texts at a surface level and not on ways for students to analyze individual texts or to synthesize themes across texts. Using multiple types of texts was also an observable teaching activity that was reflected on the teacher evaluation form and lesson plan check sheet. Stuart also was not afforded the opportunity to share ideas with other English language arts teachers in the district. He reflected that the learning experience involved a lecture and demonstration of the materials and pedagogical resources the textbook company offered and a list of apps that could be used that included multi-genres and reading resources.

With a deep desire to improve his practice because he recognized that his teaching in his first two years did not align with his conceptualization of student-centered learning, Stuart sought out his colleagues as resources, but his desire to learn from them was met with resistance.

“At [my first teaching job], I was thrown to the wolves alone, by myself, like, ‘here’s the book, figure it out.’ And I remember that feeling of just being like, ‘no one here is going to help me.’ Which, they did end up helping me some, but it’s like that first - like, they don’t know you, you don’t know them. And...I saw it as like teachers guarding what they do in their classrooms so you don’t copy them. And some teachers are very much like that. One time I went in and asked someone if I could borrow a lesson, not because I’m lazy and don’t want to make my own lesson plans, but I heard the kids talking about it and I wanted to try it. And it was very much a, ‘Oh no, we do that in B4 only.’ And I remember thinking, ‘Oh, so it is kind of like you have to come up with it and guard it with your life’ kind of thing. (Interview 6, p. 11)

The ownership of ideas and materials worked against his “team player” identity (Interviews 1, 5, and 6). For Stuart, a team player works with other colleagues to plan and create so students are doing the “same things” in different classrooms.

Stuart’s first two years of teaching pushed against who he wanted to be as a teacher and how he envisioned learning in his classroom. As a first-year teacher, Stuart was assigned a mentor, a person who he thought would be a supportive resource for him and help him grow as a teacher,

but the mentoring relationship focused on completing paperwork to prove to the school district and administrative personnel that Stuart had ongoing meetings with the mentor. Stuart began to formulate a sociocultural meaning of mentoring as a task that he was forced to do as a new teacher and not as an opportunity to improve his practice and to grow.

Stuart reflected that his desire for membership on a collaborative team his first two years of teaching and the tension between his CPD of student-centered learning and the contextual discourses of “getting through” the textbook so students can graduate that his teaching experience was something that he got through (Interview 5) and he got through by “doing the motions” (Interview 5). Over his first two years, the conflict between the contextual discourses and his CPD intensified in other areas of his teaching including his teaching schedule and administrative expectations, forcing Stuart to search for a new job.

Collaborative Practice in the Current School District- “Here’s my lesson plan. We can collaborate. We should do it at the same time.”

The contextual discourse of collaboration and “data-informed instruction” within Stuart’s current school district, Mountain County, structured a range of professional learning opportunities for teachers across the school district and structured the daily schedule at Hilltop Middle School. The contextual discourse of collaboration was an “authoritative” (Bakhtin, 1986) discourse because it shaped the behavior of teachers as collaborators across the school district and within Hilltop Middle School. Specific behaviors were expected from teachers as collaborators including their appropriation of tools of collaboration such as “data talks,” PLC meetings, and sharing instructional units. Similarly, the contextual discourse of data informed instruction also communicated a historical truth that data that was relevant to teaching and teachers was produced

by outside sources and represented as numbers. This authoritative discourse of data informed instruction supported the neo-liberal agenda that testing data is a sole indicator of what students know and can do, and that teachers are not researchers in their own classrooms; data is to come from outside sources (Apple, 2006; Bean & Apple, 2007).

At Hilltop Middle School, Stuart participated in collaborative opportunities with other 7th grade English teachers that focused on co-planning units and creating multiple choice tests. These experiences simultaneously shaped Stuart's conceptualization of the contextual discourse of collaboration and data informed instruction as he aligned his practice with the sociocultural ways of working with teachers and other school professionals.

District Wide Collaboration in Mountain County

As a teacher in Mountain County, Stuart was required to participate in district-wide PLCs that took up the meaning of collaboration in specific ways. Bringing together content area teachers into PLCs across the school district was a common practice. All middle school English teachers met twice a semester to share practice and look at standardized test data. Stuart associated this type of collaborative activities that the school district carved out for teachers as something that separated this school district from the previous school district he worked (Interview 1). He described Mountain County as having a sense of pride for being at the "top of the state" (Interview 1, p. 5) and having additional resources for students and teachers, but he could not pinpoint the source of this pride, but rather the pride circulated throughout the county and even the state, noting that other school districts are always interested in what this school district was doing (Interview 1).

The activity of districtwide collaboration involved the English language arts teachers working and learning together in content specific sessions. Some of the smaller activities Stuart

described in these sessions included a type of “show and tell” (Interview 2, p. 14) among the middle school English language arts teachers. Through this show and tell, teachers would bring in student work samples to show what they were doing in their classroom. These “show and tell” sessions provided a general overview of the activities and what students produced. But the main focus of these collaborative sessions was to create a community across schools through a shared Google document to record which schools and grades were reading which texts and which activities with these texts (Interview 1).

Another activity in these district wide collaborative sessions was “data talks.” For Stuart, these data talks involved vague references to benchmark or West Virginia Summative Assessment data to support the claim that students scored low on a specific standard. These talks did not focus on teaching practice and how to purposefully use the data to inform what the teacher does in the classroom; the talks were centered on the numbers and “improving the numbers.” Stuart connected these talks to the expectation in the school district that teachers were to “know the data because the TIS (Technology Instruction Specialist) gives you the data and you do something with it” (Interview 1, p. 8). Stuart vaguely referenced data to support his argument that his school was more data driven than the other middle schools in the school district:

“I know that some middle schools in the county are not as data driven as we are, but I think that there are some that are trying to be more. I don’t know... because of course anytime we have a county PLC people mention test scores in a broad term ‘Our test scores showed this.’ But I do not know what data they have been given.” (Interview 1, p. 10)

Throughout the district, data was something that was given to teachers - a set of numbers- that they were to use to inform their practice. But how to use the data to inform their practice was never approached and a professional practice that Stuart worked to navigate alongside his beliefs that instruction should be student centered.

Collaboration at Hilltop Middle School

What it means to be a teacher at Hilltop Middle School is situated in the school's and Mountain County's specific ways of collaborating and using data to inform instruction. Stuart moved from individualist contexts at West High School to the congenial context at Hilltop Middle School where the sociocultural meaning of collaboration was based on notions of congeniality. Stuart also engaged in specific activities that situated collaboration as working as a team to make data informed instructional decisions. and to collaboratively plan instructional units. As the principal at Hilltop Middle School explained, the West Virginia General Summative Assessment is at the heart of all decision-making in the school because "you want [students] to be able to perform on the General Summative Assessment" (Principal Interview, p. 1). Test scores were products of learning (Apple, 2006; Beane & Apple, 2007). This desire to improve or maintain the product repurposed the school's master schedule to include intervention periods for those students who are not achieving on the test and focused professional learning and collaboration time. These focused times gave teachers the space to collaborate and work in the sociocultural acceptable ways of collaborating. As the principal notes, teachers were never "talking or hanging out in the hallways" (p. 10); they were always busy in their classrooms.

Hilltop Middle School also focused on data driven instruction through "commitment, focus and collaboration" (Welcome Back to School Letter to Teachers from Principal). As noted in the school wide strategic plan, English language arts teachers were to increase students' West Virginia Summative scores by five percent or maintain their scores from 2018-2019 to 2019-2020 through data disaggregation, use of web-based programs, and horizontal and vertical content area team planning time.

As discussed above, these times were purposefully built into the workday for teachers. The school schedule was structured around student test scores. Intervention time gave teachers the

opportunity to pull students two to three times a week to work on areas of deficiencies based on benchmarking tests, the West Virginia Summative test, or grade reports (Principal Interview) to meet the school wide goal of improving test scores and increasing student engagement in areas of concern, based on student data (Strategic Plan). The PLC time took place after students were dismissed at the end of the day. Each day of the week indicated a specific learning community teacher were to work with: grade level, content level, grade level content specific, or school wide.

To have data informed instruction, teachers need data, and the increase in the number of times students took a benchmarking test throughout the school year provided more data. For Rebecca, the Academic Coach/Technology Integration Specialist, even though the school district never provided her with clear direction on her role, she dedicated much of her time to data management, dissemination, and analysis tasks. She described the activity of data analysis as pulling the data, organizing it by student and by grade levels into “data walls” and highlighting key pieces of the data to focus the teachers’ attention. The data walls were a key material in Rebecca’s data analysis process. For each student, she added to their “data wall” the score for every benchmark test. She then distributed these data walls to teachers; the data walls then were a focus of PLC meetings where she met with teachers to “offer researched-based learning activities to facilitate student growth and enhance student engagement bell to bell” (School Wide Strategic Plan 2019-2020).

The activities of data talks informed by the data walls supported the neo-liberal political agenda that the only data that mattered was data produced by outside testing companies. For Rebecca, data informed instruction was most beneficial when the data was comparable to the General Summative Assessment so there is “quantifiable hope” (Academic Coach Interview, p. 13) in the form of scores because “Numbers make sense to me, because I can graph it; I can watch

it. You can't monitor words. I can't graph 'I feel good, great,' unless you turn them into numbers" (p. 15).

Stuart as a Collaborator at Hilltop Middle. The situated meaning of collaboration at Hilltop Middle School focused on sameness that was more than using the same data to compare groups of students to assign them to intervention times. Sameness within the PLC of the 7th grade English language arts teachers included teaching the same unit of instruction at the same time each year. The English language arts team collaborated to redesign a Greek Mythology unit that was originally purchased online from a site where teachers "publish" teaching units to sell to other teachers. Stuart explained the process of revising the unit with his colleagues:

"In the unit we bought it is step by step... on day one, do this. There is an order. Uranus is the creation, Prometheus is... well it is kind of going in order... but then it gets to the point where there is no order, but for me it makes sense how they structured it. It all connects to the test." (Conversation 1, p. 3)

The co-planning focused on the structure of the test and the test questions. As Stuart reflected, the questions on the end of the unit test drove the teaching of the unit- not the content of the question or the skill that students had to demonstrate, but the mode of the question (Interview 6).

As a team player at Hilltop Middle School, Stuart also co-designed another instructional unit with a colleague, *The Coffin Quilt* (Rinaldi) unit. This collaboration also focused on the format of the assessments that were all created as hyper-documents and uploaded to the learning management system for students to access. The assessments also included choices for students which "covered almost every single standard in some way" (Interview 5, p. 18).

The situated meaning of collaborating across the school and the district was driven by data, covering standards, and managerial tasks that were distributed across the group. Stuart participated in the PLCs in ways that were recognizable by others as being a team player; he contributed ideas at times, shared resources in an acceptable way of uploading to shared folders or made tests and

shared them with other teachers through the learning management system, and offered and took advice from other teachers. Stuart was a member of the PLC community of practice, a membership he longed for after the isolating experiences of his first two years of teaching.

Compartmentalization of Student-Centered Learning and Traditional Pedagogical Practice Across and Within Teaching Units: Holding Dialogic Beliefs, While using Monologic Practices

Because the CPD is constantly forming, and in a state of becoming, CPDs not only organize prior experiences, they are influential in how one plans for future practice (Thompson et al., 2013). To describe the theme of Stuart's compartmentalizing practices that have contrasting orientations towards learning, I begin by describing his early experiences as a learner. Across his early learning experiences as a student, Stuart participated in monologically-driven literacy practices such as reading quizzes and answering text-based/known-answer questions at the end of text that formed his ideas about what it means to be a reader and a writer. These practices were filed into his “I don’t want to be this type of teacher” folder, which served as a resource for him as he began forming his CPD of student-centered learning. Stuart also participated in literacy events where he was a meaning maker who shared and unpacked his understanding with others. His experiences as a learner shaped and was shaped by his CPD. Stuart adapted the contextual discourses of his teacher education program, graduate school, early teaching experiences, and Hilltop Middle School to fit into his vision for his teaching and CPD; at other times, the CPD filtered and repurposed the contextual discourses to align in more mature and precise ways with his CPD.

Stuart’s Coming to Learn What is Reading in K-12: “...and then I would take my quiz”

During Stuart's elementary years, reading was compartmentalized into specific times of the school day where he would read and then take a quiz. The books he read were not connected to the curriculum; reading was a task regulated to reading time and not as a process for learning. When asked to describe himself as a reader in elementary school, Stuart described how Accelerated Reader (AR) tests were privileged as the reading curriculum. AR was a reading comprehension program that provided tests for books that students can choose from, based on their Lexile levels. Students earn points for passing the test, and the points possible for each test are calculated based on the Lexile score of each book. He explained this reading comprehension through test checks:

“You have to really concentrate, and then you are tested at the end. You are reading it, but you are reading it with purpose because you know you are going to be quizzed on it. I would pick my book, read it, and do my best to retain everything because you never know what is on the AR quiz, and then I would take my quiz.” (Interview 3, p.1)

Stuart saw his role as a reader as a “retainer of knowledge” where he was to determine the details that he thought he would be tested on and remember those details. Reading as a task was situated in a greater guessing game for Stuart: guessing what would be on the quiz and guessing what details to focus on and remember. If he guessed the right details to remember, he had a better chance of scoring high on the AR quizzes, which served as a symbolic representation for his reading ability and his status as a good reader. This awards-based curriculum helped to shape Stuart's good student identity of pleasing the teacher. Stuart considered how the point system encouraged him to read more, thus earning him more points and further confirming his position as a good reader and good student.

As Stuart learned how to predict AR test questions so he could perform well on the tests, he also learned how to respond to questions at the end of a story in his reading anthology. Stuart recalled learning to expect the classroom routine of listening, reading, and answering questions

that was driven by the teacher talking and students being silent. However, he recognized, even at a younger age, that there was more purpose to reading than responding to textbook questions.

“In my mind I just think back to some of my teachers who were very much like ‘Today I am going to talk for 30 minutes. You will then read from the textbook for 30 minutes. Then you will answer the questions in the back of the book for 30 minutes.’ I remember thinking to myself, ‘What if they let us read and let us talk? What if we worked on these questions in pairs or groups instead of just sitting in silence and one person doing all the talking?’... I just think old school the teacher talks... the teacher talks... the teacher talks. You either get it or you don’t.” (Interview 1, p. 15)

For Stuart, the teacher talking was not about what the teacher said, but it was about the few opportunities for students to talk and share ideas. Stuart began forming these early dialogic impulses among a sea of monologic teaching practices including listening to teacher lectures and answering textbook generated questions with predetermined answers.

Stuart Coming to Learn What is Writing in K-12: “So, writing can be a thing...”

Within the sociocultural context of his elementary school experiences, writing was decontextualized from the production of ideas (Smagorinsky, et al., 2011). Stuart recalled multiple grammar worksheets and rewriting sentences to correct for punctuation. Writing was situated in worksheets that focused on correctness, learned through imitation and repetition. It was not until his eighth-grade year where Stuart began to consider writing as “something people did in the real world” (Interview 3, p. 4) when he wrote an essay for a contest about why West Virginia mattered to him. This essay eventually earned Stuart an award, which is what he privileged in the recollections of this event. “I don’t remember what [the contest] was called. I just remember that I won. I don’t even remember if it was a school thing or at the county level. I just remember that I won” (Interview 3, p. 4).

This memory of winning a writing contest marked the shift from experiencing school-sponsored writing as sentence-level corrections to a matter of composing an argument for an

audience. Importantly, some aspects of the activity continued to have a similar function as the worksheets. Stuart referred to conferencing with the teacher to "fix it up" signaling that he was still drawing from his other experiences with writing as correctness. One area of shift was in his use of reading to support the argument he was making in his writing.... Before he began this essay, he recalled reading two short books and chapters in the 8th grade West Virginia history textbook to help him gather evidence to support his claim. The essay was a personal account of why West Virginia mattered to him, but Stuart recalled that he was expected to use sources. Reading as a process to learn information and writing as a means to synthesize and communicate ideas to others was new and hard work for Stuart. His success, as symbolized by the award he earned, made him proud and was foundational for him to begin formulating the sociocultural meaning of writing as a process for specific purposes of communicating and sharing ideas with others.

The process of writing the essay, including the one-on-one teacher support, the conferencing and feedback, all occurred outside of regular instructional time. The standard practice of using worksheets and textbooks to teach grammar remained the dominant use of time in the classroom. In this way, the opportunity to write essays, receive feedback and direct teacher guidance was considered an exception, given only to particular students.

Stuart's experiences with writing in high school classes primarily consisted of him answering short answer questions about the characters and events in the classical literature he was assigned to read in class or writing book reports. Stuart reflected that these short answer questions already had a predetermined answer based on the ways his English teachers interpreted the text which he learned to listen to their talk to determine what they thought (Interview 3). It was not until a high school communication class where Stuart was afforded the opportunity to be reintroduced to writing as a process to formulate ideas and share those ideas with others.

“In high school we had a communication class, so it was research and writing and then speech. So, this was the first time that I really had all three- I had to research, I had to write, I had to present my ideas. I also had to listen to other people and their ideas. Question and answer type thing. That to me was the first time where everything from literacy and language arts came together into one. Like it wasn’t a book report type thing, which I had done. Read a book and write a report and say, ‘I read this book.’ It was more in depth. It was like you are the expert, and if they have questions, you are answering. It was not like, ‘Here is what I read’ It was ‘Here is what I read. Here is what I figured out. And here is what I think about it.’ And then you answered questions. This was the moment where research, writing, and speech- everything came together.” (Interview 3, p, 5)

From this writing opportunity, Stuart began to create a nuanced understanding of himself as a writer. As a writer, he was also a thinker and producer of ideas- his own ideas- that he had formulated through the writing process. And Stuart recognized that his ideas were something worth sharing; he was an “expert” of his own ideas, but he needed the space to share those ideas and for others to question him about his ideas.

In Stuart's experiences as a learner, a process that shaped his apprenticeship of observation, reading and writing for authentic purposes, in dialogic meaning-making collaborative contexts, was extremely rare. When they did occur, they were outside of the curriculum or were isolated events. Even though Stuart assigned powerful meaning to these memories, meaning that informed his appreciation for integrated, authentic literacy engagements, indicating that these isolated moments were at work within his CPD, he also did not have a robust internal model for a curriculum that was consistently built on dialogic practices.

Facilitating Literacy Events: “Modifying” and “I realized kids can write and publish”

Throughout his undergraduate teacher education course work and clinical experience, Stuart learned different ways to engage students in literacy practices. During one of his clinical placements, he reflected on ways he “differentiated” (Interview 3, p. 17) for students in a special education resource room so they could engage in a similar learning experience as the students in a general education classroom. After he observed the general education English teacher facilitate a

game where students recited lines from Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*, Stuart designed a game for the students in the English resource room to help them learn the characters and organize them under the labels of protagonist and antagonist. He reflected that students in the resource classroom could not memorize and recite lines, but identifying the characters in the play as protagonist and antagonist was something they could do and they "lit up- they knew the kids were playing games over there, and they were not doing that. They were like we can play this too." (p. 18).

Stuart drew on the discourses of his teacher education program to explain this ambiguous activity he designed for students in a resource English class. First, he described this activity as differentiation, which was a key component of his teacher education sequence. Stuart recalled that differentiation was "to modify" (Interview 3, p. 17) an activity. Here he considered this game as a modification because the students in the resource class were not memorizing lines from *Julius Caesar*. Stuart also discussed that this was his first time he ever had to modify anything. In his current teaching context, he discussed modification of test questions, which meant that he limited the answer choices or changed the type of question from fill in the blank to multiple choice.

Stuart also began to recognize that students need opportunities to engage in writing opportunities where they share and publish their work for authentic audiences and purposes. During student teaching, Stuart and his cooperating teacher designed materials to support a writing workshop approach to teaching writing such as model paragraphs and sentences and peer revision guides. These materials were modeled after some of Kelly Gallagher's (2006) resources. Even though writing and reading were separated into specific times in the day, Stuart observed ways that writing can be empowering for students, especially when their work is published and shared. His cooperating teacher used a classroom website that was not just a place for students to publish their work but also a space student designed.

“We would read the first period. Every day. It was always reading something, and then the second it was strictly writing like you did nothing but writing so he had a class website that they put together. So that was the first time where I realized kids can write and publish-like this is how you publish now. The kids were always excited about it.” (Interview 3, p. 19)

Stuart recognized how the technology for publication helped overcome the structural divisions to support authentic work. To remind the reader, Stuart’s experiences as a writer in K-12 were driven by decontextualized grammar worksheets or private writing sessions where the process and mentoring was reserved for him in an outside of class time work session.

Facilitating a Discussion: “It was a thrown to the wolves type thing”

Stuart recalled participating in different discussion type classes as a student in K-12 and in undergraduate teacher education. Even though he participated in discussions, the discussions were monologically driven because the purpose was to listen to the teacher and reproduce knowledge. In other words, the teacher had a specific response in mind when he or she posed a question to the students (Nystrand, 1997). Stuart described all of his K-12 experiences “participating” in a class discussion as the teacher talking while students listened.

Stuart did not participate in a DOC discussion (Nystrand, 1997) until his freshman year in college in a literature class. As a participant, Stuart collaboratively made meaning of the text, alongside his peers, through a sharing of ideas. He recalled coming to class prepared to participate. “[The instructor] let us know what story, and we read it on our own. We came in with a notecard full of notes, and we talked. It was discussion” (Interview 3, p. 11). Within the sociocultural context of this literature class in college, Stuart learned that to be an active, engaged participant meant that he had to develop his own questions and thoughts about the text in order to negotiate ideas with peers (Newman, 1996; Nystrand, 1997). For Stuart, the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) of discussions just “happened.” Stuart was not privileged to the teacher thinking

and planning of scaffolding or sequencing of learning activities to prepare him for the thinking and synthesis of his peer's ideas.

In one of his English method courses, Stuart recalled an embedded clinical experience where he and three of his English education peers facilitated a book club for 14 high school students. This book club met during lunch time to discuss *The Hunger Games* (Collins). Stuart reflected that he wanted to learn how to facilitate a discussion, but this clinical experience or the accompanying methods course did not provide him this opportunity. “[The instructor] did not prepare us to facilitate the discussion. It was a thrown to the wolves type thing. We had some limited time to bounce questions off of each other, but that was it” (Conversation 5, p.2). Stuart never learned how to facilitate a class discussion or even how to prompt students to further their thinking besides asking them “Why?” (Interview 1, p. 16). Although the discussion had the potential to mediate dialogically organized instruction (Caughlan et al., 2013), the asking of “Why” questions alone did not provide students the space or the conceptual and practical tools to engage in collaborative peer dialogue (Newman, 2017).

In graduate school, Stuart learned in new ways that made him vulnerable to sharing his thoughts and ideas in discussions where there were no right or wrong answers. As a participant in Socratic Seminars throughout his graduate course work, Stuart recognized the heavy intellectual lifting that was expected of him. His previous experiences as a student did not adequately prepare him for these expectations. Stuart recalled that he was always eager to participate in discussions in college and in K-12 when he felt his answers were “right” (Interview 3, p. 10), but the purpose of the Socratic Seminars was not to move towards or uncover the teacher's interpretation of the text or to earn praise from the teacher for expressing the correct idea (Nystrand, 1997). Stuart

recognized that the purpose of the discussions in graduate school was to work together to “unpack the text and make meaning as a group” (Interview 3, p 22).

Even though he did not expect to learn about teaching in his graduate degree course work in literature, he began to consider the ways he could implement the strategies his professors used to engage him in learning in his future classroom. In fact, he reflected that he wished he had paid more attention to how his graduate course professors taught because the type of intellectual work he engaged in graduate school “can still work in a public school setting with Socratic Seminars and with deeper discussions...” (Interview 3, p. 22). He began to see Socratic Seminars as a pedagogical strategy within his CPD that aligned with his conceptualization of student-centered learning where the students engaged in the intellectual work and he facilitated the opportunities to make their thinking visible (Interview 1).

Teaching as Writing Lesson Plans and Writing Objectives: “It was hard for me to find a spot to put discussions”

Lesson planning is a key activity that teacher candidates (TCs) engage in throughout their teacher education program. Even though Stuart recognized that learning to write lesson plans was an essential part of the teaching profession, he reflected on ways the activity of lesson planning was reduced to focusing on the individual procedural steps (John, 2006) instead of student learning and the intended learning goals for the lesson (Interview 3) and length over content (Conversation 6).

In his teacher education coursework, teaching and planning were divorced activities. Stuart described one course where he was assigned an instructional delivery mode and a topic; he had to prepare a fifteen-minute lesson plan using the assigned instructional delivery mode to teach the assigned topic to his peers in ways that were “nothing like teaching” (Interview 3, p. 14). In this

course, the lesson plan had to include detailed steps, but then the steps had to be performed exactly as written in the lesson plan and the lesson had to stay within a 15-minute time constraint. If he strayed from the lesson plan, his professor deducted points from his grade on the teaching demonstration. Stuart reflected, “It is good to have a plan, I see that, but now that I have been teaching for this many year, I realize this plan is going to go off the beaten path many times” (Conversation 5, p. 2).

Stuart then recalled that learning to write lesson plan objectives were the main focus of his teacher education course work.

“I remember [professors] talking extensively about how important it was to think about and include objectives on lesson plans. They framed it like the objectives were the guideposts and sometimes they were your measuring stick, too. Like use them to guide instruction, but also use them to judge if the lesson worked. Like if you didn't reach an objective, make sure you make note of that and go back to it in the future. I also remember them talking about writing objectives in the form of "Students will..." or "Students will be able to...", so they had an emphasis on student-centered learning.” (Conversation 5, p. 1)

For Stuart, lesson objectives were for judging a lesson’s effectiveness, which meant that lesson objectives needed to be measurable and the measuring was done at the completion of the learning activity. This type of thinking about student learning froze learning in time for the teacher to judge its success at the end of the lesson and to determine when to revisit the goals. Stuart also considered how the objectives were written. Starting the objective statement with “Student will...” centered the learning on what the student will do in the lesson, which, for Stuart, fostered student-centered learning. However, this superficial representation of student-centered learning through the writing of objective statements did not always reflect the meaning of student-centered learning that Stuart had created for himself. Stuart learned to write procedures based on a formula that broke down learning into a predetermined sequence that was generalized across contents.

“I learned that there should be an anticipatory set, objective or purpose, input, modeling, check for understanding, guided practice, independent practice, and closure. I remember it

being hard for me to find a spot to put the classroom discussions that I liked most in the classroom because it was not really guided practice and it wasn't independent, but it wasn't strictly for check for understanding. Looking back now, I think that model is fine for a skill, like how to do something, but it is so restrictive in a classroom like I try to operate where there is a story, discussion, higher order thinking. I just could never use that now, really it fits more for things like math and science, in my opinion, or elementary lessons. “ (Conversation 5, p. 3-4)

Stuart recognized that this formulaic way of planning for student learning could not be adapted into the type of learning he envisioned for his students. Discussions were a major activity in his vision for teaching, and this approach to planning limited his thinking in how he could “fit” discussions. However, Stuart only considered discussions as something to “fit “into a learning sequence instead of considering discussions as a connecting thread that ties together the learning sequence. I return to this idea in an analysis of *The Coffin Quilt* unit.

The rigidity of the lesson plan format and the sequential thinking about lesson plan design that dominated his teacher education program, forced Stuart to think about “fitting in” time for class discussion instead of considering how the thinking process in the discussion should connect to the learning goals and assessments. The dialogic relationship between planning, teaching, and assessing was limited by a compartmentalized view of his teaching practice and the tools he planned for students to use to facilitate their learning. Stuart was not afforded the opportunity to consider the function of each pedagogical tool he took up or designed, and how the function of the tool lends itself to students’ role in the classroom (Alexander, 2008).

Stuart Coming to Learn What is Teaching: “Getting students through the book...”

Stuart's CPD of student-centered learning that was formed from his experiences in teacher education and as a graduate student were tested in his first professional teaching context at West High School. In this context, he and his beliefs were confronted by a discourse of "getting through the book" and "getting kids through their last year” (Interview 1, p. 16). The department expected

the textbook to serve as the sole source of the curriculum. These contextual discourses created tension between Stuart's beliefs in a student-centered curriculum and the textbook focused teaching that he thought the principal and department chair expected. Although the department chair or principal never directly told him to move through the literature anthology, Stuart explained that this was the common practice throughout the school in all departments. Some materials privileged in the English department included the chronological organization of the English anthology and the accompanying online components. After reading each story, Stuart would “move” (Interview 1, p. 3) students to the questions at the end and then to the online activities. This moving through textbook materials and the moving through the curriculum to get students through to graduation challenged his belief that learning should be student-centered.

All learning activities and assessments were compartmentalized across the teaching units. For Stuart, the “trap of getting students through the book” (Interview 1, p. 16) worked against his CPD of student-centered learning. Students engaged in reading and writing in isolation ways such as completing a worksheet, or an online activity designed by the textbook company. To push against the contextual discourses of textbook driven instruction and monologic activities designed by the textbook, Stuart attempted to use Socratic Seminars during those first two years of teaching as a summative assessment (Interview 1) after reading some stories before moving on to the online components; however, this was not an embedded part of his practice, but an addition to what he felt he was required to do as a teacher. Thus, the Socratic Seminar did not function dialogically within the classroom space because it was also “fit into” a learning sequence and students were not scaffold into the thinking process of preparing for or participating in the discussion.

Compartmentalization of Student-Centered Learning in Teaching Reading, Writing, and Facilitating a Discussion at Hilltop Middle

As discussed in Chapter 3, I observed Stuart's teaching for six months of his sixth year of teaching. Stuart's sixth year of teaching was his fourth year at Hilltop Middle School. During these three months, I observed him teach his 50-minute second period seventh grade English class 44 times across four different instructional units, as outlined in Table 3 in Chapter 3. Table 3 lists the learning objectives and standards for each of the four instructional units observed during the data collection period. Each unit was packed with standards, forcing a focus on coverage and not on deep understanding (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Stuart's planning illustrated how he aligned each standard to learning activities. However, his alignment of standards to activities were ambiguous. For example, in the Greek Mythology unit, he aligned the standard ELA 7.2: Write arguments, to the quick write activities where students made text-to-self connections. In the Banned Book Week (BBW) five-day unit, he aligned ELA 7.4: Cite textual evidence to support analysis of informational texts. However, the reading activities in the learning sequence in the BBW did not provide students the space to analyze; students copied information from the informational texts to answer surface level questions.

The superficial alignment of standards to learning activities created the space for Stuart's learning sequences to be heavy with activities. Across the different learning activities for each of the four instructional units (Table 5), students practiced skills in a step by step or linear fashion. For example, students copied and labeled in the Greek Mythology and BBW units; they then transitioned towards identifying literary elements to lead to analysis in *The Coffin Quilt* unit. This linear approach to teaching skills in decontextualized ways supported a developmental approach to student learning, which led Stuart to mislabel the activities as student-centered when the focus

Table 5 MASS Analysis for Each Instructional Unit				
	Unit 1: Greek Mythology	Unit 2: Banned Book Week (BBW)	Unit 3: Spooky Stories	Unit 4: <i>Coffin Quilt</i>
Materials: Teacher Assigned	Quick Write Prompts Quick Write Rubric Study Guide End of Unit Test	Informational Readings on BBW Guided Reading Questions	Venn Diagram Literary Elements Pre-Assessment Figurative Language Notes Pre-writing	Pre-Reading Document Unknown Words, Figurative Language, and Character Descriptions Learning Menu Choice for the Summative Assessment
Materials: Students Produced	Quick Writes Notes Greek Character Cards	Letter to the Author Banned Book Display	Haunted House Real Estate Project	Questions for the Socratic Seminars A Pamphlet of Appalachian Remedies
Activities	Responding to Questions Note taking Test Taking	Reading Comprehension Labeling Creating a text for an audience	Literary Elements/Figurative Language Identification Writing Process	Labeling Figurative Language Socratic Seminars/ Analysis of Text Self- Assessments
Semiotics	Following Directions Meeting Expectations	Making Connections to the World	“Deep Dive” Into Descriptive Writing	Development of ideas, presenting ideas, and supporting ideas Student Agency
Sociocultural	Being a Good Student	What it Means to be a Writer	What it Means to Engage in the Writing Process	What it Means Assess Students

of the learning activities was on the correctness of students' answers (Thompson et al., 2013). Stuart referred to himself as a “builder” (Interview 4, p. 14) of learning opportunities. Just as a builder works with individual blocks to create a structure, Stuart worked with separate activities compartmentalized within and across learning sequences. His vision for himself as a student-centered teacher and his vision for his students engaging in heavy intellectual lifting did not fully mature because the individual activities did not align with his CPD.

Reading Opportunities for Students

Across the observed instructional units at his current teaching context, the situated meaning of the activity of reading in this context was finding and copying answers for guided reading questions in the text or labeling figurative language or literary elements within a text as a linear approach to analysis.

Banned Book Week. For example, within the BBW five-day unit, the guided reading questions after each text focused on the superfluous details of the reading, which created barriers in students' understanding of censorship, the First Amendment, and even the purpose of BBW. But these details became centralized in the learning sequence, even word for word sentences taken from the reading for students to copy. Stuart introduced the first set of guided reading questions students answered after reading aloud the “About Banned Book Week” text:

Stuart: What you are doing in your groups is to go over the article we just read and answered the questions in the guided reading sheet. The sentences are word for word as they are in the article... Work as a group and come to a consensus on what you think is the answer. So, work with your groups to complete this activity (Fieldnotes, September 23, Banned Book Week)

Through Stuart's directions, he assigned meaning to the process of consensus; here consensus is everyone finding what the answer is “word for word” in the text and recording it. The question format of fill-in-the blank or short answer that was taken word for word from the text did not

provide students the opportunity to come to an agreement over ideas- they were to come to an agreement over the words being the best fit in the blanks. Some example questions from this guided reading included “A _____ is the removal of those materials.” “A _____ is an attempt to remove or restrict materials, based upon the objections of a person or group.” and “Who challenges materials more often than any other group?”

The second set of guided reading questions that students answered after reading “The Article of the Week,” also focused on surface level understanding with a sprinkling of opinion-based questions. For example, students had to define “observance” as used in “The Article of the Week.” Question five asked students to determine, on average, how books were banned per year based on the reported number of books banned, according to the American Library Association records. Students were confused if they were allowed to copy answers from the text, especially when the first set of guided reading questions were verbatim, fill-in-the-blank questions. The following response to a student’s question indicated that students were supposed to cite evidence, even though previous instructions from the first set of guiding reading questions asked them to copy from the text.

Stuart: Remember group work is when you are working together- not someone copying.

Student: Can we copy word for word from the text?

Stuart: [Name of student] asked a good question. Can we copy word for word what the article said? You can If you give it credit. So, what do we do?

Student: Put it in quotes.

Stuart: Yes and say “According to the article...” (uses air quotes) (Fieldnotes, September 25, Banned Book Weeks)

Stuart situated group work and reading comprehension within the context of students copying words from the text as long as they cited the text as a source of the words. The materials of the guided reading questions for “The Article of the Week” were privileged because “they need to know this so they can make connections” (Conversation 2, p. 8), but the materials limited

students' opportunities to consider the role of censorship and the First Amendment, the objectives for the BBW unit.

Copying answers word for word from the text limited students' opportunities to make connections between BBW and the First Amendment. For example, when students were asked to respond to the following question, "So what do you think? Is Banned Books Week a worthy cause for celebration? Is it important that we have this week of awareness? Why or why not? (Must be in 3-5 sentences)." Students struggled with using the information to make connections or to even formulate their own opinions. In a conversation after the BBW unit, Stuart reflected on his word choice as a barrier to students formulating their ideas:

"I hoped to get more information about what they thought about censorship, but I think my question was too broad...A lot of them took that I was asking them if it should be a holiday. If I could go back, I would switch it to 'Is banned books weeks effective in shining a light on censorship or is censorship an important topic we should talk about?' I need to switch that because that word 'celebrated' shifted their thinking to 'should it be a holiday.'" (Conversation 2, p. 3)

Stuart's reflection of students' misunderstanding of the question focused on his choice of words as misleading students, but students continued to show confusion on the key concepts of censorship as Stuart provided them with the opportunities to create texts to share information and their ideas about BBW with a real audience.

Spooky Stories. Reading analysis as labeling was evident in the beginning of the Spooky Story unit when Stuart dedicated the beginning of the three class periods of the unit to a review of figurative language. However, the review of figurative language never led to analysis. He used this unit to introduce students to figurative language so they could be prepared for an upcoming poetry unit in the spring semester. Stuart explained his decision to include a review of figurative language:

"Well... we will hit figurative language a little more when we hit poetry

towards the spring. I wanted to dip our toes into it because it was connected to the escape room activity, we are going to do on Friday... but we will do a deeper dive of it when we do poetry.” (Conversation 3, p. 2)

Figurative language review was for the purpose of preparation for an upcoming activity and instructional unit on poetry. Students were instructed to type their notes in a document on their Chromebooks and save. Stuart used clear examples for each figurative language, but these examples were decontextualized from the stories they were reading.

On Board: Simile- When an author compares two unlike things using like or as
Example: I listened, as if I was in a dream, to the song she sang.
Stuart: Quiet as a mouse; hungry as a horse; loud as Dakota’s sneeze.
Student: Will all of this be in the escape room?
Stuart: Maybe. (Fieldnotes, October 28, Spooky Stories)

The decontextualized example is a barrier to deeper analysis; the general examples and the activities of defining and labeling did not provide students with the opportunity to engage in analysis, but Stuart expected students to produce a descriptive text that incorporated figurative language.

The Coffin Quilt Unit. Within the sequence of *The Coffin Quilt* (Rinaldi) unit, students engaged in multiple assignments that required them to name and label. Parts of the Pre-reading Hyperdoc, the Novel Docs, and the Summative Assessment included naming and labeling activities. For example, after students viewed two videos to “build their knowledge” (Interview 6, p. 10) they had to label two events that caused the Hatfield/McCoy feud on each side, define slander, and name the significance of the Jan. 1, 1888 date in regard to the feud. Near the end of each class session, students updated their novel doc by identifying characters as Hatfields, McCoys, or Neutral, labeling figurative language they found in the text, listing and defining unknown words, and naming each chapter. Stuart explained that the chapters did not have names, and he thought having them give each chapter a name would “check reading comprehension”

(Interview 6, p. 5) and keeping a record of unknown words and labeling figurative language were both activities students were familiar with from sixth grade (Interview 6).

However, the summative assessment he co-designed with another colleague (Appendix A) also included questions that “covered almost every single standard in some way” (Interview 5, p. 18). The choices were arranged in a hierarchical order where each color on the choice board reflected a different skill level.

“They have to pick one blue colored choice...the first choices are easy, especially if they've been keeping up with their unknown words. They basically just have to copy/paste it and put an example sentence. So if they've been keeping up with their stuff, they are kind of rewarded with that if they want to skip that to, or do that and then move on to one of the bigger ones. The green is kind of like middle ground, and then the blue is the biggest one. Which is symbolism, personal connection, and theme, and those are all the big things that we wanted to focus on with the novel. “(Interview 5, p. 18)

Some of the green choices, or the “middle ground,” asked students to plot an event from the book on the plot pyramid or to identify and define four types of figurative language, citing eight specific examples used in the text with a brief analysis of why the author would use that specific figurative language within that scene from the text.

Across the reading activities in his classroom, Stuart regularly constructed situated meanings of reading analysis as copying and labeling. While these activities often occurred in groups, the activities did not include authentic deliberation of interpretations of the text. Rather, the reading activities focused on determining the right answer to questions and then copying the answer. Stuart’s references to building and himself as a “builder” (Interview 4, p. 14) demonstrated his view of teaching as starting at one level to move students up through different levels. Stuart’s focus on building knowledge from the bottom up fostered the compartmentalization of his CPD of student-centered learning throughout this disjointedness of the learning sequence. When Stuart

did not align the learning sequence to the intended learning goals and the assessment, students worked through learning activities where they labeled and named, and these activities were also compartmentalized within the disjointed learning sequence.

Writing Opportunities for Students

Throughout the instructional sequences, Stuart used writing as a means for students to record knowledge, reproduce knowledge, and write to authentic audiences for inauthentic purposes. He saw writing as a tool that students could use to restate ideas and for him to assess how well they followed directions.

Greek Mythology. Writing was an activity Stuart used for students to record information. For example, in the Greek Mythology unit, students responded to “quick write” questions before reading a myth. To achieve the highest performance level, each quick write should answer all questions, be turned in on time, neatly done, “completely” edited and revised, and “clearly tied to the myth.” Stuart never clarified how students were to connect their ideas to the myth before they read the myth. Even though each criterion was equally weighed, Stuart valued how well students followed directions.

“The biggest thing for me is like making sure that they answer all the questions, because I think sometimes students hear questions, they answer the first one and they think they've answered them all. And then, also since this is our first assignment, turning it in on time is important to me, because it shows which ones, I'm going to have to look after about time and things like that.” (Interview 5, p. 5)

For Stuart, being a good student is meeting a teacher's expectations. The rubric for the quick writes communicated these behavioral expectations to students. If the expectations are clear and concise, then students do not have any excuse to not meet them and Stuart can more accurately determine “what kind of writer” (p 11) the student is at this moment in the school year.

The eight quick write questions were also connected to the specific test questions. For example, Stuart explained how Quick write 5, the prompt that students responded to prior to reading the Narcissus and Echo myth, directly connected to one of the test questions. Stuart explained how this prompt: “Think of someone you have met (can be a real or fictional person) who was completely stuck on himself/herself. Describe this person and your opinions about his/her behaviors. **DO NOT NAME THE PERSON**, just describe them and their actions” prepared students for the following question on the end of the unit test: “What is the difference between a narcissus and a narcissist?” (underlines and bolding on the test). He explained, “In my mind, hopefully, they've written about Narcissus and they know that he's stuck on himself, and they can explain that in the test and in the quick-write” (Interview 5, p. 6). However, the prompt does not specifically use the word narcissist, so Stuart expected the students to make this connection on their own.

Stuart also reflected that the quick write prompts were students’ first opportunity to demonstrate how they use textual evidence to support their ideas, a standard that Stuart recognized was an important skill for students to master (Conversation 4, Interview 5, Interview 6).

“[F]or me, this is the first time that I see that they can provide textual evidence or not, when they have tied what they said to the myth. So this one is kind of like a writing assessment that goes - it's not summative, it's as we go along. And sometimes you'll see the biggest growth from quick-write number 1 to quick-write number 8. And part of that is, you know, they're writing every single day. Another part of it is they're learning what I'm expecting of them as they go.” (Interview 5, p. 6)

Stuart could not provide a clear explanation of how the quick writes were an opportunity for students to provide textual evidence when the quick write prompts were given to students prior to them reading the myth. Students did not return to the quick writes to revise or to make connections to the myths. The quick writes were moments in time before students read each myth. The material

of students' responses to the prompt focused on answering all questions (following directions), being descriptive, and making clear connections to the myths, and free from major grammatical errors. The lack of clarity of his instructional decision-making in including the quick writes was also evident in ways he rationalized students taking notes.

After reading aloud each myth (a total of 12 myths) students copied notes from a PowerPoint. Students then used the notes to help them answer study guide questions for the traditional end of the unit test. The notes were a key material that students copied after reading each myth. Even though the notes were not their own ideas, Stuart tried to encourage them to take the notes he projected on the board and to put them in their own words. The first-time students copied notes from the board, Stuart explained to them how to make what was on the board "their own":

On the board: In the beginning we know: Emptiness was known as Chaos
From Chaos emerged Gaea (earth), Tartarus (underworld) and Eros (love)

Stuart: "What I would do is shorthand- use bullets. Draw an arrow from Chaos and then list the three that emerged and what they are. So we start with emptiness and we end up with the earth, underworld, and love."

On the board: Gaea was the mother of Uranus (starry evening sky), Ourea, and Pontus
Gaea + Uranus= love
Hundred handed giant, cyclopes
All sent to the underworld, 12 =Titans

Stuart: "You don't have to write every single word-I will tell you what to write. I would write (demonstrate on the whiteboard) Gaea= mom/wife of Uranus.
(Fieldnotes, August 28, Greek Mythology Unit)

Throughout the unit, Stuart reminded his students on the importance of taking notes for future learning experiences, especially when the instructor provides "wordy notes and you have to pick out the info you need" (Fieldnotes, September 16, Greek Mythology Unit) or taking notes as a skill that students should have perfected by 7th grade, "You have all taken notes before. I am telling

you what is going to be on the test.” (Fieldnotes, August 28, Greek Mythology Unit). The material of the notes also informed the ways Stuart delivered his instruction. It was in this unit where Stuart stood in the front of the room, telling students what to write and even how to write it in their notes, something that he had loathed as a student.

Students also used the notes to complete their Greek Character cards, or flashcards, as Stuart described them to students. These cards were organized into a numerical system based on each of the 12 myths the students read. Although these cards were introduced before students read the first myth and revisited after the reading of the other 11 myths, they were a disconnected and repetitive material. Stuart never rationalized how the Greek Character Cards fit into the scope and sequence of the Greek Mythology Unit. He introduced the character cards and the notes at the same time, but gave precedence to the notes when he connected the notes to the end of the unit test.

Stuart: First I want to talk to you about flashcards. On every flashcard you will divide it like this (divides card into three sections). First you will draw something to remind you of the character. Then you will have one fact on the top and one fact on the bottom. I would also put the name at the bottom, so you know who it is. At the end of the unit you should have 30 flashcards- 1 point each. At the end of the unit if you lose one you lose the point. While I pass out baggies to keep your note cards, get out a sheet of paper for the notes from the slides. Remember, I can't say it enough. Keep track of this. All of the answers on the test will be from your notes.” (Fieldnotes, August. 28, Greek Mythology Unit)

As Stuart introduced the cards, he never explained the purpose of them-rather, the explanation focused on how to organize the info on each card and the importance of keeping the cards together, so as not to lose one, which would result in a point reduction. The information that students were to record on each flashcard was information that was also recorded in their notes. Thus, information was repeated, and students copied details about characters in their notes and on the flashcards.

Students also used the notes to complete their study guide. He explained that the study guide was to prepare students for the test, but they could only use their notes on the test (Conversation 1). In class, students moved from completing a writing prompt to introduce them to the myth, to listening to Stuart read aloud the myths and responding to his questions, to writing notes, to making note cards of the characters, and then to completing sections of the study guide that correlated with the myth they just read. One of the interactions between a student and Stuart illustrated how the study guide was used to reinforce what was important in each myth, what was on the test, and what they should know.

Stuart: For the test and study guide, you need to know that Sciron had a flesh-eating turtle and that he had to also fight a guy with a club. For the test, all the challenges you need to know. Theseus wins by tricking them.... Also, violence. You need to know how or why Theseus becomes king... it will be on the test Theseus is next in line. The rest of class work on study guides and flashcards. Get out your study guide and fill in Theseus questions. So, filling the blanks from the notes. Don't forget your flashcards. You should keep the study guide and then study for the test on Thursday. Today was our last myth.

Student: Now what?

Stuart: Good question, you will see. Tomorrow we will play a Jeopardy review game. Review your study guide to prepare for the review game. (Fieldnotes, October 8, Greek Mythology Unit)

Stuart considered note taking to be an important skill for students. Within the context of this unit, the centralization of the notes as the primary activity in the unit was evidence of their sociocultural importance within the unit, but also what Stuart constructed as their importance in students' future lives.

“I think notetaking skills are the most important but boring type of things. We don't do it all the time, but I do want them to know how to look at information and say okay that is important, I need to write that down. If you noticed, when I do the PowerPoint, I tell them ‘don't write every word down.’” (Conversation 1, p. 2)

The greater activities of note taking were situated within the Greek Mythology Unit as a means to the end of the unit test where students matched characters with their roles in the myths, sequenced plot points from myths in chronological order, described key plot points, and matched gods and goddesses with their jobs. The note taking activities were designed to reinforce students' retainment of surface level information for each myth. Although Stuart reflected that the purpose of the Greek Mythology unit was for students to "connect something from way back when to now" (Interview 5, p. 1), the situated surface level activities of taking notes, completing a study guide, and making flashcards hindered students from connecting to the myths.

Banned Book Week. Within the BBW instructional sequence, Stuart had a desire for students to engage in writing opportunities to make meaning, but the writing opportunities were spaces for them to reiterate what he had told them about censorship and banned books. Students were to write a postcard to a Banned Book author, but the writing process was interrupted by students' confusion about the assignment or even the purpose of writing the letter. Writing was not used as a meaning making process for them to come to understand censorship, advocacy, and ways both can affect their lives. After he introduced the letter writing assignment, he reminded students to write something "meaningful" As students began to draft their letters, their concerns moved from the spatial constraints to the purpose of writing a postcard to a banned book author.

Student 1: I still don't get banned book week.

Stuart: What do you mean?

Student 1: So, we celebrate it because it happened?

Stuart: What did the article say that we read?

Student 1: I don't know. I never read any of these books.

Stuart: Okay.

Student 2: So why would I write to an author.

Stuart: Cause it is banned book week.

Student 2: But what do I say?

Stuart: Tell him or her that you don't think his book should be banned.

Student 2: But.... I don't know what to say.

Stuart: (Sits down with students and starts writing on a paper- he is writing his own letter). Students start writing too.

Student 3: Can you read what I have so far.

Stuart: No- keep working on it.

Students lacked the conceptual understanding of BBW, which made them question the purpose of the writing assignment. Student 1 also did not understand why he would write to an author he had never read. When Stuart recognized that there were gaps in their conceptual understanding of BBW, Stuart began drafting his own letter, but he never shared this letter with the students because the next day's class was interrupted by a band performance, and only 10 students were in attendance that day. Stuart reflected that the majority of the students understood the purpose of the assignment, but he needed to have more opportunities throughout the unit for them to explain BBW in their own words before the letter to the author assignment.

“The majority probably did- yes. If I again... I hate to go back to Chromebook, but I would have had a survey or a Google form that they could have responded to prior to writing the letter, but I would have them imagine if I am a stranger... I could have had them respond to this with paper and pencil, and I don't really know why I didn't do that. But if I was a stranger, and one of your friends, if someone asked you about the display outside, how would you explain banned book week. What I did ask on the reflection was would you be comfortable explaining banned books week, and a majority said yes. But in hindsight, I probably should have asked for more detail like how they would have gone about it.” (Conversation 2, p. 6)

Stuart reflected that asking students to explain BBW to a stranger would have provided him the opportunity to assess their understanding of the unit objective “Be able to explain banned book week, and the letter to the author was a “step further of them reaching out past the school” (Conversation 2, p. 5). Stuart also did not guide them through the writing process, other than requiring them to have a first draft before he would give them access to the postcards to write their final draft. The process of synthesizing their thoughts was neglected. Stuart wanted them to write something meaningful, but he did not guide them through this process. The copying words from

the article and filling in the blanks for the reading comprehension questions, and the surface level questions Stuart asked during the reading, did not prepare students for the letter to the author. Students were trapped beneath the surface of the reading materials with no opportunities to break the surface and formulate their own ideas.

Spooky Stories. Within the context of the Spooky Stories instructional sequence, Stuart planned for students to engage in the writing process of researching, drafting, and revising, but the process was decontextualized from the purpose of the assignment: writing an real estate advertisement to sell a haunted house.

The activity of engaging students through the writing process provided them with the space to research, draft, and revise, but the process was privileged for the sake of the process and not for the students to develop an authentic text. Stuart assigned each student a real haunted house that they researched, viewed photographs, and took notes. From their notes, they were to create a real estate listing. Stuart provided them an example he created, but the purpose of a real estate listing was unfamiliar to them.

Stuart These [haunted houses] are famous and they have info about them. So, type in google the name of your house and inside features, and it may give you pictures – and from those pictures you can describe it.

Student 1: But no one wants to buy this.

Stuart: The point is to sell it.

Student 1: Why?

Stuart: Realty companies sell houses - your words are meant to sell it. Each one of these places has a lot of information- people go there and want to visit it. The place may not look haunted on the outside, but it is what happened inside that makes it haunted. Don't copy and paste- this is your own writing and research... (Fieldnotes, October 24, Spooky Stories Unit)

Before students could create an authentic text, they needed to understand the purpose of the text.

Stuart explained that the writing students create in school is formulaic. “[Writing] doesn't have to be cut-and-dry; this is going to be a newspaper, and this is going to a journal. But, argue and have

strong points, but don't make it so formulaic” (Interview 5, p. 9). Even though Stuart wanted students to create an argument that sold the haunted house to a buyer; he never introduced argumentative writing through examples of real estate listings. Instead, the students took notes on figurative language, researched their haunted house, took notes from their research, completed the Haunted House template, and wrote their house description.

The process of students writing was compartmentalized from the purpose of the assignment. Thus, students were engaged in the process of writing, but the heavy intellectual lifting of composing an argument for a specific audience did not fully develop because there was a disconnect between the purpose of the assignment, students’ knowledge of real estate advertisements, and students' lack of experiences in constructing an argument.

Opportunities for Collaborative Peer Talk

Within *The Coffin Quilt* instructional sequence, Stuart's vision of himself as a student-centered teacher and his students engaging in heavy intellectual lifting came to life. Prior to this instructional sequence, all the activities in the Greek Mythology, BBW, and Spooky Stories units were functionally and structurally monologic (Nystrand, 1997) and misaligned with his CPD of student-centered learning. For example, students worked together in groups to read texts, label figurative language within the text, and find and copy answers to guided reading questions. Even though they were working together, they were not engaged in student-centered learning. The function of the group activities was monologic, and students were moving from block to block that Stuart had laid out for them, building monological activities on each other to prepare them to engage in a dialogically organized activity: Socratic Seminars.

The monological activities and Stuart's enactment of literacy as a linear process did not align with Sturt's CPD. However, his CPD filtered his own experiences as a student participating in a discussion. He remembers one person, the teacher, dominating class discussions. As a student in K-12, Stuart began to envision a classroom where students worked together to make meaning. "What if we worked on these questions in pairs or groups instead of just sitting in silence and one person doing all the talking?" (Interview 1, p. 15). However, this "collaborative talk" (Newman, 2016) that Stuart desired was compartmentalized within one instructional sequence and within the Socratic Seminars. Other class discussions were functionally and structurally monologic (Alexander, 2008).

Discussions. Stuart's talk in class discussions took up the initiate a question, response, and feedback (IRF) (Myhill, 2006) conservative model for class discussions. In the excerpt below, Stuart used this model to guide students through the plot regurgitation of the myth "The Story of Icarus."

Stuart: So, Daedalus's punishment is what?

Student 1: Locked in a tower.

Stuart: With whom?

Student 2: His son.

Stuart: Yes, but he is smart and knows he can invent something to get out.

Student 1: Yes.

Stuart: So, why can't he go by sea?

Student 3: Cause the sailors will see him.

Stuart: He knows that because Crete is a sailing place.

Student 4: He could get a submarine

Student 3: Or a boat?

Stuart: Maybe?

Student 5: How about the sky?

Stuart: How?

Student 5: I don't know

Stuart: All good ideas. Let's see what happens. (Fieldnotes, September 16, Greek Mythology Unit)

Stuart's questions checked students' recall of factual events or names of characters. When student 4 suggested that Daedalus and Icarus get a submarine to escape from the tower, other students began to suggest escape methods. Stuart then ended this portion of the discussion where students were predicting means of escape with "All good ideas" so they could move on to reading the next paragraph. Each question he posed to students had a specific answer he was looking for to check to see if they were following along and if they could identify/label characters and major plot points.

In another discussion episode during the reading of the myth "Orpheus," Stuart's surface level questioning guided students through the sequencing of events that led to Orpheus's decision to enter the Underworld.

Stuart: So, he meets Eurydice and they get married and all is going great until what happens?

Student 1: Gets bit by snake.

Stuart: What leads her into the field?

Student 1: The gods led her.

Stuart: Yes- she is being stalked and she runs. In a hurry, she steps on snakes and it bites her. Where does she go?

Student 2: Underworld.

Stuart: Who finds her body?

Student 3: Orpheus.

Stuart: Yes and what happens?

Student 4: He is shocked.

Stuart: The text says inconsolable. What does that mean?

Student 5: Speechless.

Stuart: No—well could be.

Student 5: Sad.

Stuart: Yes... but how?

Student 6: Can't be comforted.

Stuart: Yes. Let's continue. (Fieldnotes, September 30, Greek Mythology Unit)

Stuart's question "Yes, and what happens?" was ambiguous. He was fishing for a specific response that Orpheus was inconsolable, which was the specific word used in the text. In this exchange, Stuart evaluated each response with a new question to push students through the process of

restating the plot. Once again, he ends the overall exchange with an evaluative “yes... and let’s continue reading.”

Similarly, in the Spooky Stories unit, Stuart initiated questions to guide students through identifying and defining literary elements. Students began the instructional unit with a focus on the literary element characterization, an area they needed to “work on” based on the quiz he gave at the start of the unit. Stuart taught students the acronym “STEAL” to help them remember elements to focus on to determine characterization. Stuart reviewed this acronym with students.

Stuart: So now characterization. What does STEAL stand for?

Student 1: Speech.

Student 2: Thoughts.

Student 3: Emotions.

Stuart: Or affects.

Student 4: Actions.

Student 5: Looks.

Stuart: So, what helps you the most when determining characterization.

Student 6: I put actions because what they do is important.

Stuart: What else.

Stuart 7: Speech- I think what they say is important- let’s you know what they are thinking sometimes.

Stuart: Who put looks?

Student 8: I did- you can look and see how they present themselves if they are homeless in ripped clothes....

Stuart: So you can tell if they are dressed nicely they care about themselves or not. Remember characterization is the one we scored the lowest one so we are working on this. Open up your characterization activity from yesterday. Your job is to pull a quote from the text and tell me what you think this means about the character.

(5 minutes of work time)

Stuart: Who wants to share.

Student 3: I do. I wrote this quote down for feelings. ‘If that is too much,’ she added, “then perhaps I can reduce it just a tiny bit. Do you desire an egg for breakfast? Eggs are expensive at the moment.’

Stuart: Ok. Explain.

Student 3: The landlady is nice because she offered to reduce the price. She is feeling nice.

Student 9: Isn’t it speech because of what she says?

Stuart. It’s speech.

Student 3: Oh.

Stuart: Would anyone else like to share? (Fieldnotes, October 23, Spooky Stories Unit)

Although this activity could have led to a “deep dive” (Conversation 3, p. 3) of the Landlady character, Stuart focused on the labeling of the sentence from the text as an example of characterization using the character’s speech, thoughts, emotions/affect, actions, looks. Stuart had dialogic desires; he invited students to share, but the sharing had monologic purposes: to share the correct answer (Nystrand, 1997). This monologically driven form of discussion did not provide students the space to engage in heavy intellectually lifting that Stuart desired for them. Stuart further compartmentalized his CPD of student-centered learning in a specific type of discussion: Socratic Seminars. But even for the Socratic Seminars, Stuart’s disjointed planning did not scaffold the collaborative talk (Newman, 2017) that Stuart envisioned his students engaging in.

Socratic Seminars. Stuart’s disjointed planning did not provide students the space to prepare for the first Socratic Seminar. This was problematic because of the heavy intellectual lifting Stuart desired for his students; they needed space to learn how to engage in the dialogic interplay of three language forms: participating, understanding, and managing (Newman, 2016), but Stuart did not create this space for them. For the first seminar, Stuart did provide students with a set of questions (Appendix B) for them to use when the conversation slowed or when they did not know what to ask.

Stuart conceptualized Socratic Seminars as a pedagogical tool that was “student-centered” because students were “doing all the thinking.” He explained:

“I just hate to read a book out loud and one or two kids answer some questions or ask some questions that get answered, and then that's the end of it. So, the Socratic seminar kind of shows me where they're at in their thinking and what we need to either go over again, or what they have a good grasp of. I notice how they act with each other in discussion and things like that.” Interview 6, p.6)

Stuart considered ways the Socratic Seminars provided students the space to demonstrate their thinking and to collectively work through their thinking. The Seminars were also a formative assessment for Stuart to determine their learning needs. In his first two years of teaching at West High School, Stuart implemented Socratic Seminars as a summative assessment, which, according to him, failed (Interview 1). Even though he reformed his conceptualization of Socratic Seminars as a formative assessment so he could check student's thinking to learn what he needed to review, he did not consider the utility of the Socratic Seminar to the students as meaning-makers and the opportunity to listen to multiple perspectives and opposing ideas. Similarly, Caughlan et al. (2013) describes how a tool has the potential to be dialogic, but the lack of opportunities to scaffold students' dialogic interplay between the three language forms: participating, understanding, and managing (Newman, 2016) limited the dialogic potential.

Within the first Socratic Seminar in this instructional sequence (Fieldnotes, *The Coffin Quilt*, November 20, 2019), Stuart's dialogic desires for students to engage in "collaborative talk" (Newman, 2016) did not automatically transpire during the first Socratic Seminar. The field notes below illustrated how students depended on the provided questions in the first Socratic Seminar, but did not add their own interpretations and thoughts.

Student 1: (Consults list of provided questions) Why do you think it is called The Coffin Quilt?

Student 2: Because it mentions one in the story.

Student 3: I think it is because all the family members die.

Student 1: Do you think some of the family members have a better connection than others? (Student reads from the list of questions)

Student 4: Yes. Tolbert and Fanny.

Student 5: Elaborate.

Student 4: Think of how they went together to get Ro.

Student 2: Oh, I found it... page 62... that is where they mention the coffin quilt.

Student 1 selected a question for the list of questions Stuart provided. When Student 2 and Student 3 offer a quick response to the question, Student 4 interjects a new question into the conversation

that is disconnected from the initial question. The conversation quickly switched to talk about family relationships, but students did not consider how the quilt was also a representation of these relationships. Student 2 returned to the conversation and offered up evidence that the phrase coffin quilt is used in the book, hence why the book is titled *The Coffin Quilt*. Students interjected random questions from the list of questions without considering how the questions could build on each other. Also, once the questions were posed, students could not offer answers that were nuanced and detailed. Thus, the conversation halted, and students were pressured to use the list of questions to attempt to keep the conversation moving along in a superficial way.

The following section will detail how Stuart used his observations of students' talk to create a dialogic space for students.

Making Available the Space for Teacher Reflection

After the first Socratic Seminar, Stuart used his observation notes and students' self-assessments that reflected that they relied too much on the list of questions he gave them to inform his instructional decision-making. He noticed the limitations of the list of questions and the barriers students' dependency on it created for their own thinking. He then created a purposeful space for students to develop potential discussion questions that reflected the chapter's theme and provide answers for those potential questions. Students developed questions and potential responses to the questions on a Socratic Seminar document after each chapter, so they had questions and their thoughts organized to enter into the conversation (Conversation 4). Stuart recognized that preparing questions and being prepared to answer the posed questions with support from the text were two different skills. He viewed the Socratic Seminar preparation document as a space for

students to simultaneously engage in question writing and using textual evidence to support their claims.

This Socratic seminar preparation document was a central material used in every Socratic Seminars after the initial round. From my field notes taken during the second Socratic Seminar (the first one where students had purposefully prepared for the discussion by completing the Socratic Seminar preparation document after each chapter), students used the preparation document during the discussion to pose thoughtful questions and to propel the conversation forward:

S1: Do you think if Alafair tells that Fanny lied, will they believe her?

S2: I do not think so... there is a lot of distrust for Alafair.

(conversation halts and students “wake up” their Chromebooks to view the Socratic Seminar document)

S3: What does the gate at the McCoy house symbolize? (Student reads question off his Chromebook screen)

S4: Evil and good side- one side has to be the good side and one side the evil side...

S3: I see that. I wrote here that the gate has two purposes. The gate gives you the chance to leave, but it is different because you cannot get back in. It keeps you out once you leave. You don't come back... it stays shut for you. Once you leave, that is it.

S6: I agree with that. It is more than a gate for the McCoy house. It is how they keep family in and those who go against the family out. I think it represents a form of honor... honor for the family....

S7: What do you mean?

S6: Like when Ro shows up they don't let her back... even though she begged, they tell her that she cannot come in. (S6 read off her Chromebook screen). (Fieldnotes, December 10, 2019)

The above fieldnotes demonstrated how the Socratic Seminar document provided students the space to prepare for the seminar and a reference point throughout the seminar. The Socratic Seminar document was dialogically functional (Caughlan et al., 2013) and situated within the purpose and the structure of the Socratic Seminar. The document was a tool for students that provided them the space to simultaneously prepare them for the Socratic Seminar and that

scaffolded their use of language to participate thoughtfully in the Socratic Seminar. Before students' language forms can engage in dialogic interplay (Newman, 2016), students must first participate in the conversation in ways that engage them in meaning making to move the conversation forward. Through participating in the Socratic Seminar by asking thought-provoking questions, students also had the potential to build on each other's ideas and invite other perspectives. For example, when the conversation slowed, Student 3 stepped into the Socratic Seminar, posing a new question for the students to consider. After Student 4 responded to the question, Student 3 pushed the conversation forward by offering the idea that the gate had two purposes, an idea she worked through in her Socratic Seminar document. Student 3's addition to the conversation built off of Student's 4 idea that the gate represented good and evil- a dichotomy. The Socratic Seminar document was also a reference point during the exchange between Student 6 and Student 7 where Student 6 consulted the document to give a specific explanation of how Ro's rejection at the gate was the McCoy's preserving the family's honors. From this exchange we see how students' participation shifted toward building on each other's ideas and prompting explanation of ideas. Students were members of a democratic education experience where all perspectives were considered and valued for their role in the meaning making process (Bean & Apple, 2007).

Stuart reflected how providing students with the Socratic Seminar document that they built and created throughout the reading of the text altered his teaching practice. First, Stuart recognized that nine chapters was a lot for students to remember (Conversation 4), and the Socratic Seminar document was a purposeful space for them to prepare for the Seminar after each chapter. Secondly, their preparation in responding to the potential questions with textual support, allowed Stuart the

opportunity to serve as a facilitator who could listen as they collaboratively unpacked the text in thoughtful ways so that “they were running it themselves”

(Interview 6, p. 7). In the first Socratic Seminar, students’ unpreparedness was a catalyst for misconceptions about the characters and plot, and Stuart interrupted their conversations (three times in 20 minutes) to correct their misunderstandings.

As a facilitator, Stuart also recognized that his purpose and his physical placement in the class shifted. Even though he welcomed this shift, he also felt uncomfortable.

“I think sometimes I feel - at first, I know what Socratic seminars do and how they do ‘em, but I think at first, I felt really guilty because it's a whole day of me sitting and listening, and so the teacher in me wants to be up, and - I mean, I do facilitate, but I don't - like, when that day comes, they know I'm sitting in the back. I'm listening, watching, writing down things, and that's all I'm doing that day. So I think if they weren't successful, it could look like I'm just letting the kids take over and run wild, but they've been successful so far.” (Interview 6, p. 7)

Stuart disrupted the sociocultural practice of teaching as informational delivery from the front of the room to teaching as facilitating opportunities for students to engage in heavy intellectual lifting. Stuart’s apprehension with this model of teaching and how his administrators and other teachers would perceive this as “just letting the kids take over” spoke to the contextual discourse that to improve instruction, teachers need to teach so students are on task. The sociocultural meaning of teaching was reproduced in the principal’s expectations for teachers to teach.

“I love seeing students on task. I like [instruction] to be student driven. I do not like to see students off task..... I love seeing goals on the board for students to see the expectations set. I love seeing students having to critically think... a lot of critical thinking opportunities. I love seeing them read. I love seeing student choice in reading.” (Principal Interview, p. 2)

Students being on task indicates that a teacher is doing his or her job. The observable teacher tasks of keeping students on task, having goals on the board, having set expectations, and having

students read were situated within the contextual discourse of data informed instruction, which I will discuss later.

Data Informed Instruction: Testing Data vs. Student Self-Assessments

As previously discussed, the situated meaning of the contextual discourse of data informed instruction across Mountain County and Hilltop Middle School was data as numbers that reflected what students knew and could do; the data collection and analysis process was isolated from the learning sequence. The standardized tests were given throughout the school year, the numbers analyzed by the academic coach, and then the teachers engaged in data talks within district wide and school-based PLCs.

Stuart repurposed the situated meaning of data informed instruction within the context of *The Coffin Quilt* unit. The self-assessment students completed after the first Socratic Seminar transitioned from an assignment that students had to complete to an assessment tool that promoted students' self-advocacy and that informed and altered Stuart's teaching and the learning sequence. Stuart assigned each student a partner for each Socratic Seminar. Partners provide feedback to each other. Students also engage in self-assessment of their performance during the seminar in regard to their participation, clarification of ideas, and citation of textual evidence. Prior to each Socratic Seminar, students set a performance goal; they reflected on this goal and noted what they needed to focus on for the next seminar.

As part of the self-assessment activity, students provided feedback to their partners. Stuart reflected that this was a time for them to focus on their role as a participant in the Socratic Seminar.

“[W]alking around, I could even hear them having conversations with their partner like, ‘I did cite evidence. Remember when I picked up the book and I turned to page 87 and I said...’ and they're like, ‘Oh yeah.’ So they're assessing, they're helping their partner, they're advocating for themselves.” (Interview 5, p. 14)

As students advocated for themselves, they also cited evidence of their performance and ways they explained, clarified, and presented their ideas. Stuart reflected that the Socratic Seminars and the peer feedback served as spaces for them to give clearer answers because the questions or the purpose of the Socratic Seminar was not to be “A one-and-done, right or wrong, it's a, ‘yeah, that could be right, but you need a little more to make it make more sense’ (Interview 5, p. 15). The self- assessments also supported Stuart’s idea that the Socratic Seminars should not be graded because then the focus becomes the grade, and a grade cannot show the full picture of growth. For Stuart, this idea pushed against his good student status in school. He explained that “[T]he system worked for me, but now that I'm a teacher, I realize it's not working for a lot of kids... that A means nothing. But if you show them how they’ve grown or give them a second chance, that means something” (Interview 5, p. 16). For Stuart, this pushing against the duality of grades/assessment was important work for him because he readily admitted that he can “get trapped up in ‘is this answer right or is it wrong?’” (p. 14).

Stuart also re-envisioned how to more purposefully use students’ self-assessments in future instructional sequences so that each student could focus on his/her growth and the class’s growth and improvements.

“Letting students see their individual growth over time is something that I've made a note of that I need to do, like the individual conference would be like, ‘look where you were here at the first one, and then look where you are now at the end.’ I did take a group approach this time, but I want to make it a group and individual focus next.” (Interview 5, p. 16)

Enacting this vision of his teaching practice could reposition the Socratic Seminars and reflections from being assignments that recurred throughout the learning sequence to being a purposeful thread of student-centered learning that shaped the entire learning sequence including the pre-reading, during reading, and summative assessments. If Socratic Seminars were more purposefully

planned throughout the learning sequence instead of Stuart fitting them in, there would be less disjointedness between the naming and labeling assignments to the heavy intellectual lifting of the Socratic Seminars.

Summary

Stuart's CPD of student-centered learning functioned in multiple ways for him across his learning to teach and teaching contexts, demonstrating that learning to teach is not a linear process (Feiman-Nemser & Buckmann, 1985). A teacher's learning to teach process is shaped by contextual discourses, experiences, and membership within "communities of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and his/her CPD. As Furtak et al. (2012) described, teachers in their first years of teaching can experience multiple distractions, including contextual discourses that conflict with their CPDs, which can impact their "full implementation of the most ambitious versions" (p. 411) of teaching practices. Stuart did not fully implement his CPD of student-centered learning because of his assumptions about literacy development as linear and what that meant for himself as a "builder" of students' learning experiences. This assumption informed his curricular decisions, including how he compartmentalized the first Socratic Seminar within the instructional sequence. He assumed students were ready to participate in the Socratic Seminar because they had engaged in note taking, labeling and identifying, and class discussions; these skills were decontextualized from authentic purposes and also mislabeled by Stuart as "student-centered" because they were completed in groups. However, from his observations and inquiry into students' self-assessments, Stuart recognized that in order to engage in the intellectually heavy lifting of meaning making that he envisioned for his students, they needed opportunities to plan and write thought provoking questions so they can participate in the Socratic Seminar by posing questions, listening to others' ideas, and further exploring ideas (Newman, 2016). Peer collaborative talk moved beyond the

IRF (Myhill, 2006) monological format of questioning and responding towards dialogic discussions that illustrate the democratic values of multiple perspectives (Bean & Apple, 2007) and students as meaning makers (Ayers, 2010).

Not only did this study reflect the interactional relationship between a teacher's CPD and contextual discourses, it also demonstrated the need for more research for deeper understanding of how CPDs filter past experiences, current experiences, and informs future pedagogic visions of teaching.

Chapter 5

Introduction

Across Chapter 4, I used the CPD construct as a lens to explain Stuart's experiences. In this chapter, I discuss the three findings and how they suggest a revision to the understandings of critical pedagogical discourse (Thompson et al., 2013) and further support the possibilities of dialogic tools in sponsoring teacher reflective practice. Following the discussion of the findings, I outline three implications for teacher education, teacher professional development, and future research. As Thompson et al. (2013) explained, CPDs are beliefs that are "threads of internalized dialogue" (p. 579) that teachers draw upon to write who they are and want to be. These threads of dialogue are not stagnant in time; they are in flux, shifting across contexts, organizing experiences that align with visions of teaching, which also means that those experiences that do not align with visions of teaching are also organized and used to rationalize instructional decisions. The CPD acts as a filter, and a filter is also a forming structure. As the CPD filters experiences, the filter is shaped and reformed. CPDs are always in a state of becoming; they are taken up to explain what should have happened in a teaching experience and to rationalize instructional decisions even when the discourse of the CPD cannot be enacted in practice.

I attend to the authoritative discourses of collaboration and data informed instruction, which supported the neo-liberal political agenda (Bean & Apple, 2007) of his teaching contexts and the ways he responded to and addressed these discourses (Bakhtin, 1981). Even though Stuart held tightly to his CPD of student-centered instruction, the contextual discourses of collaboration and data informed instruction created tensions between his beliefs and practice. Stuart's reflections of his teaching practice across contexts demonstrated the complexity of the CPD as a filtering system, composed of the "threads of dialogue" that organized his experiences. From his reflections, we see how Stuart's CPD helped him make sense of the contextual discourses across

his learning to teach and teaching contexts. Stuart's CPD was multi-functional. For Stuart, the CPD of student-centered learning was a label for all of his teaching practice; he consistently used the student-centered label to rationalize his instructional decision-making. Because his CPD is composed of innumerable threads of discourses, some of which are conflicting, when he used it as a filter to guide his practice, the result is that his practice was compartmentalized between monologically-organized and dialogically-organized instructional practices.

Through the three findings, I discuss ways that Stuart used the concepts of being a team player and student-centered learning as filters that both limited and made available opportunities for dialogic instruction. More specifically, the three findings include how his CPDs shaped his search for membership, fostered compartmentalization (Figure 1) of monologic and dialogic teaching practices across and within learning sequences (Thompson et al., 2013), and encouraged his use of dialogic tools that prompted him to reflect on his practice. After the discussion, I then detail the implications of this study's findings on teacher education and professional learning experiences for practicing teachers.

Searching for Membership

Similar to the findings in the Thompson et al.'s (2013) study, Stuart searched for membership across teaching and learning to teach contexts. The contextual discourses across the learning to teach and teaching contexts all had competing norms, tools, and practices. During his undergraduate teacher education program, Stuart was a member of a "community of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991) during the semester he taught a remedial English class. For example, the first two years of teaching for Stuart was an isolating experience. As a member, he was apprenticed into the practice of inquiry into his teaching alongside his professor and the other English education majors. However, his first two years of teaching at West High School, Stuart searched for a

community of practice to learn with and from but was met with the contextual discourses of monological practices of following the textbook and curricular innovations as sacred and secretive. At West High School, teachers owned their ideas and there was no designated time in the school day for sharing or working as a team. Stuart identified as a team player, and worked to seek out collaborating opportunities, but was turned away.

The collaborative discourse of his current teaching context appealed to his “team player” identity. Stuart was a member of the collaborative community of practices that materialized in the PLCs at his current teaching context. Teachers coming together to co-plan and work together was an observable act that was valued in the school, but the purpose for the collaborating focused on sharing and mirroring, and not on inquiring. Stuart drew upon the “threads of dialogue” of his CPD, when situated within the contextual discourses of the PLC, to label his co-planning with teachers as collaborative. Alongside his identity of being a team player, the co-planning aspect added value to the monological activities of the Greek Mythology unit. He described the planning of the 9-week unit as “real fun, collaborative... it was just like a team plan type thing” (Interview 6, p. 2). But, the tools in the unit did not align with his CPD of student-centered learning. Through the labeling of the monologic activities as student-centered, Stuart aligned himself as a member of the PLC community; he was a team player, working alongside his colleagues to co-plan instructional units.

Here we see a disconnect between the tools that were collaboratively designed and shared among teachers and Stuart’s CPD of student-centered learning. As Thompson et al. (2013) explained instructional decision-making involves developing affiliations with people and ideas that are socially accepted within the community of practice. Similar to Wong’s (2004) research on teacher’s communities of practice within a teacher’s first years of teaching, teachers must have

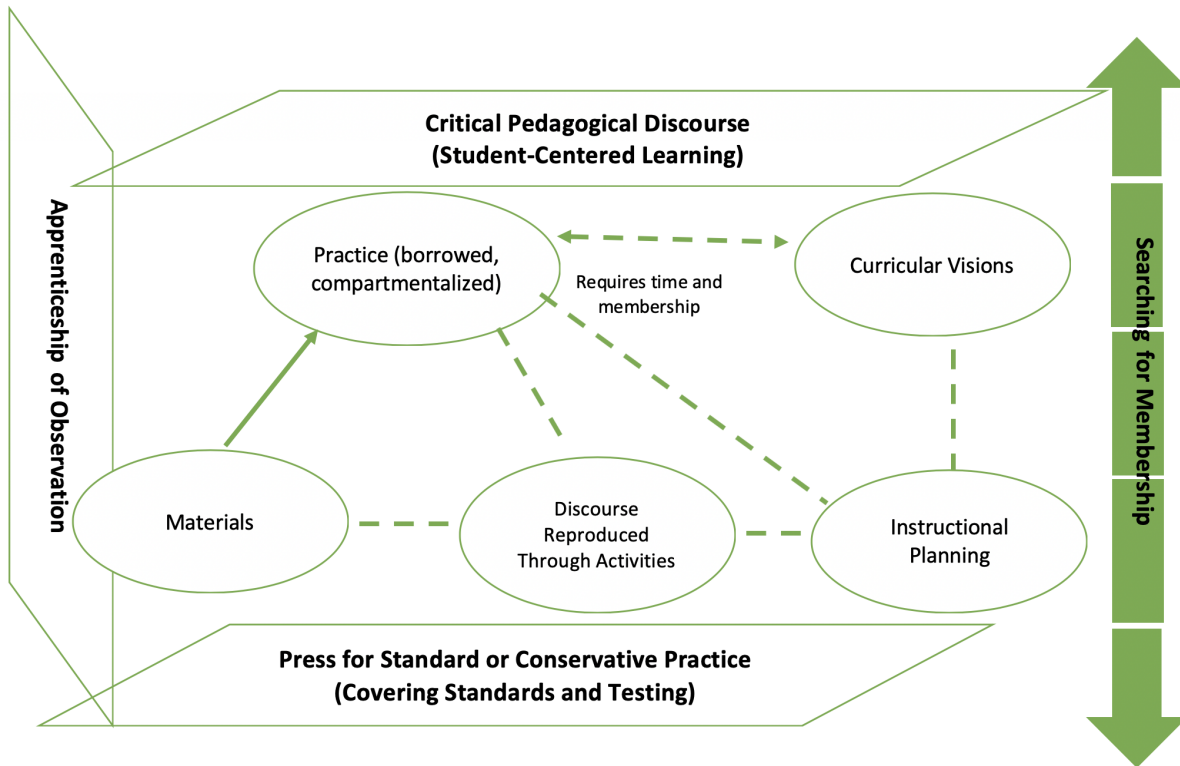
positive interpersonal relationships with other teachers that are founded on “collegial interchange, not isolation” (p. 50). Stuart found positive relationships at Hilltop Middle School, and the activity of collaboration built these relationships and fostered their growth. The contextual discourse of collaboration also included his colleagues, friends, and the socially accepted ways of co-planning and teaching units at the same time and same ways. Teachers spent time together during team planning and after school PLC meetings, and Stuart worked to engage in the sociocultural ways of collaborating and sharing. Stuart was a team player- and he finally had a collegial team.

Stuart labeled the monologic tools in the Greek Mythology unit as “student-centered”; this points to the possibility that the discourse of “student-centered teaching” circulated throughout the school including department and grade level team planning. Stuart reproduced the discourse of “student-centered” learning by using it to mislabel his teaching. Similar to the Thompson et al.’s (2013) study, Stuart borrowed tools from different pedagogical affiliations and misappropriated language to discuss and label his practice. Viewing learning as student-centered based on students’ behaviors was a discourse that circulated in the school. The principal described optimal student learning as all students being engaged and “on task ” with reading and writing (Principal Interview, p. 2). The focus on student behaviors as indicators of student learning and not on the thinking students were engaging in as they read and wrote illustrated a surface level, product driven view of learning. Time on task to create products of learning and the behaviorist expectation that all students were to be on task and focused also illustrated assumptions about learning and students’ roles as meaning makers that supported the neo-liberal political agenda (Ayers, 2020; Bean & Apple, 2007).

Compartmentalization of Student-Centered Learning and Traditional Pedagogical Practice Across and Within Teaching Units

Throughout the data collection period, Stuart's CPD of student-centered learning did not serve as a mature filtering system for his practice among the contextual discourses of collaboration and data informed instruction. Similar to Thompson et al.'s (2013) study, Stuart "held ideas and practices emerging from different communities in separate compartments and worked slowly to reconcile those boundaries" (p. 595). However, Stuart needed more than time to "reconcile" the boundaries. Time provided Stuart with more opportunities to engage in professional development that focused on technology tools and other resources and not on teacher thinking and inquiry into practice. The professional development opportunities offered by Mountain County focused on third-hand knowledge or quick fix strategies for students' learning (Gee, 2012) in the form of technology applications. Stuart was able to fit these technology applications into his curriculum to make hyper-documents. The fitting in of technology tools further compartmentalized his CPD of student-centered learning because of his disjointed instructional planning that focused on covering standards and alignment of individual activities to standards. The boundaries between the compartments of student-centered learning and the monological practices thickened because Stuart needed opportunities to align his instructional planning to his curricular visions.

Figure 2: Revision of Thompson et al.'s (2013) Compartmentalization of Practice



Stuart needed opportunities to align his instructional planning to his curricular visions of who he wanted to be as a teacher and what he thought was possible for his students (Figure 2). Figure 2 is a revision of Thompson et al.'s (2013) compartmentalization of ambitious teaching (Figure 1). Figure 2 accounts for the role of instructional planning in facilitating learning. When instructional planning is driven by format and procedures (John, 2006), the dialogic process of lesson planning is limited to the structure of the Tylerian (Tyler, 2013) approach that separates and compartmentalizes teaching practice and student learning.

The tension between Stuart's CPD of "student-centered" learning, which focused on students doing the talking and heavy intellectual lifting, was compartmentalized within the Socratic Seminars, which were also compartmentalized within one instructional sequence. Stuart

held dialogic desires for his curricular visions but used monologic practices. His curricular visions of students engaging in “collaborative talk” (Newman, 2016) did not align with his planning and the function of the questions he used during class discussions. Discussions across units did not exemplify dialogic principles of meaning making. For collaborative talk to evolve, the teacher and students must foster spaces that support collaboration of ideas. Alexander (2008) argued that the “dialogic principle is more effectively promoted if it is also exemplified” (p. 53).

Similar to Newman’s (2017) study, in order for teachers to model the type of talk they want their students to engage in, they also need professional learning opportunities in ways to foster collaborative talk and create opportunities for students to engage in the active role in developing their understanding. These professional learning experiences should focus on the form *and* function of the talk, making explicit connection between how questions and responses mediate different kinds of talk in the classroom. These learning experiences should also provide teachers the space to inquire into ways for students to make interpretations of their peers’ comments and not just respond with a question. Providing students this space can potentially move students toward collaborative peer talk (Newman, 2016). In the Greek Mythology, Banned Book Week, and, Spooky Stories units, the function of talk was monologic (Table 6). Stuart used his questions as stopping points within the read-aloud to check for students’ surface level understanding of the text. These stopping points had no connection to the end goals of students making text-to-world or text-to-self connections; these stopping points provided Stuart with the opportunity to manage time on task and for students to progress through the moves of a discussion, wait for a question, respond, teacher evaluates, and move on to the next question (Myhill, 2006; Nystrand, 1997).

Table 6
Analysis of Functions of Discussion Questions (Boyd & Markarian, 2015): Snippets of Discussions Across Instructional Units

Greek Mythology	Banned Books	Spooky Stories
<p>Stuart: So he meets Eurydice and they get married and all is going great until what happens?</p> <p>Student 1: Gets bit by snake.</p> <p>Stuart: What leads her into the field?</p> <p>Student 1: The gods led her.</p> <p>Stuart: Yes- she is being stalked and she runs. In a hurry, she steps on snakes and it bites her. Where does she go?</p> <p>Student 2: Underworld.</p> <p>Stuart: Who finds her body? Student 3: Orpheus.</p> <p>(Fieldnotes, September 30, Greek Mythology Unit)</p>	<p>Stuart: What is the difference between challenge and banning?</p> <p>Student: Challenge is to just question it... like the first step in getting it banned.</p> <p>Stuart: Yes. Let's move on.</p> <p>(Fieldnotes, September 23, Banned Book Week)</p>	<p>Stuart: So, we found our narrator unable to sleep and he is pacing and what is happening outside.</p> <p>Student 1: It is a stormy night and the winds are fierce.</p> <p>Stuart: Yes, and the narrator reads to Roderick. What does he read?</p> <p>Student 2: The story has parts that mimic what is happening in their lives.</p> <p>Stuart: So art imitates art---copies each other. So that is happening. Then what does Roderick confess?</p> <p>Student 3: He put his sister in the vault too early.</p> <p>Stuart: For how long...</p> <p>Student 4: A few days....</p> <p>Stuart: And then there is a knock and the door opens....</p> <p>Student 1: And she is standing there in her grave clothes....</p> <p>Stuart: Yes- and what does she look like</p> <p>Student 5: Blood on her dress.</p> <p>Stuart: Does the story end?</p> <p>Student 6: No, she falls on her brother and then they both die.</p> <p>Stuart: How does Roderick die?</p> <p>Student 2: Fear.</p> <p>Stuart: Yes! Just what Roderick feared was to die of fear. So now there is no one in the House of Usher and</p>

		then what... Student 6: The actual house falls.
The function of questions focused on checking for surface level understanding and recognition of literary elements.	The function of questions focused on surface level vocabulary.	The function of questions is to work through the sequence of events in the story to arrive at an opportunity for analysis, but the questions did not delve students into analysis.

Making Available the Space for Teacher Reflection

The implementation of Socratic Seminars in *The Coffin Quilt* (Rindali) unit demonstrated ways Stuart made space available for teacher reflection. Stuart did not consider his own practice of his planning and aligning of assessments to practice and intended learning goals. This was a significant event for Stuart because it demonstrated how influential CPDs are in instructional decision-making across teaching contexts. Stuart’s CPD filtered his past experiences while simultaneously informing his visions for himself as a teacher (Thompson et al., 2013). He viewed the implementation of the Socratic Seminars as a summative assessment as ineffective, but he did not abandon Socratic Seminars as a student-centered strategy in fact, he worked to create opportunities for his current middle school students to engage in Socratic Seminars throughout an instructional sequence.

Stuart held onto his dialogic beliefs about student-centered learning and worked to rationalize his monologic practices as dialogic. Even though Stuart labeled Socratic Seminars as student-centered, the function of the student talk during the first Socratic Seminar did not promote dialogic interplay between the exchange of ideas to foster “collaborative talk” (Newman, 2016). He saw the purpose of the Socratic Seminar as spaces where students do all the work and their

“thinking is visible” (Interview 5, p .30). Stuart conceptualized Socratic Seminars as a formative assessment for him to check students’ understanding so he knew if he had to review or they could move forward. Returning to Bakhtin (1981;1986) and Nystrand (1997), this conceptualization of the purpose of Socratic Seminar to check for students’ understanding, led to the Socratic Seminar functioning as a monological tool. As students used the list of questions Stuart provided them for the first Socratic Seminar (Appendix B), they participated in the moves of a Socratic Seminar. Their moves mirrored the IRF (Myhill, 2006) discussion format that Stuart primarily used to “engage” students in answering surface level questions about the text.

At Hilltop Middle School, Stuart began to use the dialogic tool of Socratic Seminars to realign his beliefs to his practice. This possibility for this realignment was informed by the structure of the Socratic Seminars. As described in Chapter 4, students participated in a Socratic Seminar every nine chapters. At first, he shared with them a list of questions he generated that they could refer to during the discussion. From his note taking and observation of students’ participation in the first Socratic Seminar, he recognized that they were superficially using the questions he generated. Stuart also collected and analyzed students’ self-reflections of their participation in the Socratic Seminars. He compiled the data from their responses, created pie charts to present the data to the students, and then facilitated a discussion where students made meaning of their self-assessments. From these collective discussions about their self-assessments, Stuart then created and embedded the Socratic Seminar documents into the learning sequence so students could prepare questions and their own ideas. This specific example illustrated how Stuart repurposed the “discursive field” (Foucault, 1972) or the authoritative discourse (Bahktin, 1986) of the contextual discourse of data informed instruction.

Across his current teaching context, data was something that was given to Stuart and he was to do “something” (Interview 1, p. 8) with the data. When he repurposed the authoritative discourse of data driven instruction to include data that was situated in the learning sequence of an instructional sequence, instead of being given data from a standardized test divorced from learning, Stuart also included the students in the analysis and goal setting produced from the data. Filtering the contextual discourse of data informed instructions through the CPD is significant because it demonstrated how the contextual discourses can be adapted (Thompson et al. 2013). In this situation, data was part of the process of learning and not a product. Through the data, students formulated goals about their participation in the Socratic Seminar. They were active, reflective participants who used self-assessment as a form of “advocacy” (Interview 5, p. 14).

When Stuart repurposed data driven instruction in his classroom space, he also repositioned his body in the classroom; he moved from being up front or moving around the room as he taught. Stuart reflected that he was uncomfortable, even felt guilty, that he spent a whole day sitting, observing, and taking notes as students participated in the Socratic Seminar. His guilt also spoke to how others would perceive him as a teacher. To move from a peripheral participant of his teaching practice, Stuart needed the space and opportunity to listen and observe his students. Within the dialogic space that he created by listening, observing, and taking notes on his students’ meaning making process, Stuart began to connect the student learning to teaching and the function of the pathological tool. Stuart was active and responsive to his students’ conceptual and practical needs which informed his teaching: he created the Socratic Seminar document, a tool he had never used before. He then scaffold their meaning making process of the book through the use of the Socratic Seminar document, modeling how to write effective discussion questions and to use the text to support claims.

The structure of the Socratic Seminar provided Stuart with the opportunity to reflect on his teaching practice and to step into a role of teacher inquiry. Even though the opportunity was there because the structure of the Socratic Seminar made it possible, Stuart did not have to take up the opportunity to inquire into his practice. As evident from his reflection of student engagement with the text and the types of questions they were posing to each other, his CPD and practices began to align. The Socratic Seminar opened up the opportunity to move him from language appropriation of student-centered learning to the CPD filtering his teaching practice, the materials he used, and the instructional sequence. As the CPD filtered the student engagement in the Socratic Seminar, his filter was also becoming more refined; he drew on this experience of providing students a space to reflect on their own learning and how this space can alter his teaching in specific ways. Stuart moved from generalized descriptions of his teaching as “student-centered” to more specific visions he had for himself and for his students. Visions of his future practice indicated that Stuart was beginning to see how his teaching impacted student learning, and how student learning should inform his teaching. The structure of the self-assessment activity made it possible for students to see their growth over time, but as Stuart refined his CPD, he began to envision ways that he could involve students in assessment overtime of their own learning.

Implications for Teacher Education and Professional Learning

Teacher education and professional learning opportunities that recognize that teacher development is nonlinear should provide teachers with the space to inquire into their practice, their beliefs about students and learning, and how their beliefs inform their practice, and note that their practice may or may not reflect their beliefs. These aspects all converge to create a focus on opportunities for teachers to analyze the interactional relationship between beliefs and practices that position teaching as a sociocultural process and not as a product driven, isolated practice

promoted by the neo-liberal context (Bean & Apple, 2007). Thompson et al.'s (2013) and this research demonstrated that teacher development is situated among contextual discourses that conflict with teachers' visions of themselves and their students. In order to prepare teachers to enact their visions of themselves as teachers, teacher education and professional learning facilitators need to "orient learning experiences around student thinking" (p. 610). Using student thinking as a lens to inquire into practice provides teachers with the opportunity to move towards making opportunities for student-thinking to be the focus of their teaching. Although teachers need the opportunity to reflect on their beliefs, they also need another level of "consciousness and critical action" (Alsup, 2006, p. 125) that situates beliefs within the often-confiding contextual discourses where practices are enacted.

Inquiry into Dialogic Spaces and Student Thinking

Before TCs and practicing teachers can inquire into their epistemic beliefs about teaching and learning and how their beliefs inform their practice, teachers need opportunities to reflect on their beliefs to develop "consciousness and critical action" (Alsup, 2006, p.125). One strategy that provides teachers and teacher candidates the opportunity to view their practice and reflect is the use of video clubs. Video clubs provide teachers with the intellectual and participatory space to learn how to notice and use their knowledge base in new ways to recognize students' thinking (van Es & Sherin, 2008). Teachers will then use these moments to inform instructional choices that reflect their deep understanding of their students' thinking. One of the key components of video clubs is providing space for discussions about what the teachers notice in the videos. Lave and Wenger (1991) reminded us that "Learning is a process that takes place in a participation framework, not in an individual mind. This means, among other things, that it is mediated by the

differences of perspectives among the co-participants... Learning is, as it were, distributed among co-participants, not a one-person act” (p. 14).

Viewing learning as distributed across video club participants informs how the facilitator structures the video club sessions to move participants to roles of “expert performance” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 17). One critique of the structure of video clubs is ways the facilitator elicits noticing through a series of questions about the videos. Rish and Slocum’s (2015) study of English teacher candidates demonstrated ways video clubs can mediate the use of dialogic tools in classroom discussions. Through writing conceptual memos and transcribing the student and teacher’s dialogue during the discussions, teacher candidates engaged in inquiry of practice and alignment of their beliefs and their practice.

Lesson Planning as a Practice

Teacher candidates also need opportunities to engage in the practice of lesson planning. As John (2006) explained, lesson planning is a dialogic process where the teacher considers the contextual factors and their own beliefs about teaching and learning. Thus, the dialogic process of lesson planning privileges the interactional relationship between the practice of teaching and planning. However, it is common for teacher education programs to teach lesson planning as a linear set of steps that is driven by an outcome- based objective statement. The Tylerian (Tyler, 2013) systematic approach to design further separates the ends from the means, and teacher candidates do not recognize the interactional relationship between the means and the ends. Lesson plan templates also reflect this linear way of thinking about planning and the disjointed view of the learning objective, teaching practice, and assessment.

As lesson planning is commonly taught with the lesson plan template privileged over the interactional model of teaching and student learning, TCs view lesson planning as a preparation for teaching and not as a practice. Similar to Stuart’s experiences in his teacher education program,

straying away from the lesson plan can be viewed as failure instead of evidence of reflective practice (John, 2006). Teacher's beliefs about students and learning are also disconnected from the conservative teaching of lesson planning in teacher education courses. Focusing on the ontological and epistemological function and purpose of lesson planning can transcend the product view of a lesson plan and lesson planning to more purposefully connect lesson planning with teacher candidates' beliefs about students and learning. Teacher candidates need opportunities to articulate the relationship between their beliefs and their practices. Returning to Alsup's (2006) idea of "consciousness and critical action" (p. 125), teacher candidates can begin to view how their instructional decision-making, including how they privilege student thinking, connects to their own beliefs about teaching and learning and the possibilities for students.

Inquiry into Practice: Dialogic Spaces in PLCs

Similarly, practicing teachers also need opportunities to revisit their beliefs and analyze how their beliefs are or are not reflected in their practice. In order for teachers to reflect on their practice, they must engage in inquiry of their practice. One key, overarching focus for their inquiry should center on the structure of the learning activities and ways these activities provide spaces for students to demonstrate their thinking and their understanding. Situating inquiry of practice within the PLC framework (DuFour et al., 2006) transcends the idea that student data is something that is produced outside of the learning sequence and towards situating data as process driven. Using data from classroom instruction to make informed decisions can bridge the gap that the neoliberal teaching context has created: product-based teaching and student thinking.

The need for PLCs to function as a dialogic space for teacher inquiry into practice is especially important in the neo-liberal political landscape. As the neo-liberal political agenda works to de-skill teachers as instructional decision makers and facilitators of learning, engaging teachers in inquiry of their practice can be empowering (Falk & Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Through the documentation of student learning through the gathering of a range of evidence about what students know and can do, teachers address the neo-liberal agenda in two ways: repurposing data as something that teachers can facilitate and positioning teachers as researchers of their own practice. Using evidence that is authentic to their instruction to make informed instructional decisions about students, the curriculum, and their teaching, “symbolizes a move away from treating students as passive recipients of educational dictates towards valuing them as professionals who are active and respected participants in framing judgements and questions about teaching and learning” (p. 76).

PLCs that are modeled after the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2002) inquiry into practice and the National Writing Project model of teacher inquiry workshops (Stock, 2007), can provide teachers the space to purposefully inquire into their practice and draw connections between their practice and student learning. As Stock et al. (2011) explained, teacher learning should be empowering and renewing for teachers, especially when they have been forced to rely on “versions of teaching and learning” (p. 7) that have been created for them.

Dialogic spaces for teacher inquiry also create potential for the sharing of the process of learning with those outside the school community. As DiPardo (2006) explained, education needs to provide ELA teachers the space and opportunity to share their inquiry into their practice in vignettes, case studies, or narratives. Through sharing, it is possible for others to recognize what constitutes effective learning and the dialogical relationship between the process of learning and the product (Falk & Darling-Hammond, 2010). Informed citizens can become informed advocates for education. When citizens are advocates for education, they are simultaneously participating in and reproducing the values of democracy. The values of democracy transcends the neo-liberal agenda of outside interest groups making decisions about our students, their place in the world, and the vision for the future of our society (Bean & Apple, 2007).

Teachers also need opportunities to delve into inquiry of their context and the underlying contextual discourses that circulate. This is not to say that teachers are unaware that the contextual discourses of their teaching context inform their practice, but teachers also need opportunities to examine how the ideologies of “authoritative” discourses are revoiced in contextual discourses (Bakhtin, 1981). Recognizing and naming these ideologies and their roots in political agendas can inform teachers’ disruptions and repurposing of the contextual discourses.

Future Studies

Future studies will address how experiences with pedagogical tools influence teachers’ curricular visions of their teaching (Thompson et al. 2013). When tools influence curricular visions, then in what ways does the tool influence pedagogical reasoning of past, current, and future teaching? This is especially helpful to better understand teachers’ decision-making to incorporate both dialogic and monologic tools across learning sequences, especially when the tools do not align with their curricular visions. In the neoliberal context where learning is a product, understanding the relationship between curricular visions and pedagogical tools can move teachers to more mature enactments of the visions they have of themselves as teachers and their practice.

Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) are sites of power for teachers to inquire into their practice and how their practice and beliefs are mutually shaped. Darling-Hammond et al. (2009) described PLCs as the most effective form of professional development because they “support ongoing improvements in teachers’ practice” (p. 7). DuFour et al.’s (2006) definition of PLCs centers on the activity of collaboration where teachers are “committed to working collaboratively in ongoing processes of collective inquiry and action research to achieve better results for the students they serve” (p. 217). From this study and Pittman’s (2015) dissertation study, PLCs situated the meaning of effective teaching practice as mirroring. Pittman’s (2015)

study focused on a middle school English language arts PLC where the teachers taught the same learning sequences, collected the same data, and used the data to group students into remediation groups. The absence of inquiry separates teaching from student learning; teaching is reduced to the behaviors of giving tasks, collecting data, and replicating lessons. For inquiry to be the focus, teachers must be apprenticed into the thinking and reflective practices- thus, transcending their role as “peripheral participants” (Lave & Wenger, 1991) of their own teaching practice that the neo-liberal political agenda privileges. Using discourse analysis, the MASS system (Gee & Green, 1998), for future studies of the situated meanings of the work of PLCs in the greater school context can provide a more nuanced understanding of ways teachers navigate the materials, activities, and semantics used in the PLCs to discuss teaching and student learning. This can also provide teacher researchers with a lens to view the CPD simultaneously working as a filter for current practice that also shapes the filter for future practice.

Conclusion

This research study is one example of an early career teacher’s development of a critical pedagogical discourse (CPD) and the range of ways the CPD functioned within the contextual discourses across teaching and learning to teach contexts. The contextual discourses of collaboration and data informed instruction were authoritative, seeping in the political ideologies of neo-liberalism. Similar to the Thompson et al. (2013) study, Stuart’s development of CPD was nonlinear; the CPD development simultaneously served as a filter to alter his practice to meet students’ needs and as a labeling system to describe both monologic and dialogic learning activities. But time alone does not provide spaces of inquiry into practice; teachers need to be apprenticed into communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) that focus on teacher inquiry

throughout their learning to teach trajectories so they can reflect on the interactional role of their beliefs and practices. This is important, ongoing work that I aim to continue stepping into, following paths from trailblazer teacher researchers and making new paths to account for ways teachers develop their CPD within the constraints of a product driven neo-liberal context.

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Appendix A

Coffin Quilt Final Project

Directions: Choose the following activities and relate them to the novel we just read. You must respond to ONE purple, TWO green, and ONE blue activity. Responses must be written up in a new Google Doc. After writing, you will create a Book Quad.

<p><u>Alternative Ending</u> Create an alternative ending to the story. The ending must be at least 10-15 sentences long.</p>	<p><u>Vocabulary</u> Write about 8 new words you learned from the novel. Give the word, page number, definition, and create an example sentence using the word.</p>	<p><u>Favorite Chapter/Passage</u> Write about your favorite passage and/or chapter. Share the passage or specific chapter and explain why it was your favorite part of the novel. Response must be at least 10-15 sentences long.</p>	<p><u>Opinion and Recommendation</u> What did or didn't you like about the book? Who do you think would enjoy this book? Why? Respond in 10-15 sentences.</p>
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<p><u>Character Analysis</u> Choose ONE character from the novel. Describe both their personality traits AND physical traits. You also need to discuss if and how this character changed from the beginning of the novel to the end. Response must be 10-20 sentences and include a visual..</p>	<p><u>Conflict</u> Identify TWO different types of conflict found in this novel. Choose from the following: man vs. man, man vs. himself, man vs. nature, man vs. technology, man vs. society, and/or man vs. supernatural. Discuss the conflict between a character and force and how it identifies with the specific type of conflict you chose. Also, discuss how this conflict influenced the plot and the outcome of the story. Response must be 10-20 sentences.</p>	<p><u>Bio Poem</u> Write a bio poem from the point of view of the narrator of the novel. Click the link to learn about how to create a bio poem. <u>How to write a Bio Poem</u></p>
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<p style="text-align: center;">Figurative Language</p> <p>Identify and define at least four types of figurative language used in the novel. Give 8 specific examples of figurative language found in the text. Describe what is going on in that scene, quote the figurative language, and then write about what you think it means and why the author would use it.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Response must be 10-20 sentences.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Plot</p> <p>Choose a part of the plot. Explain the event, where it falls on the plot pyramid, and why it fits that part of the plot. Response must be 10-20 sentences.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Song lyrics –</p> <p>Choose a song that you think would make a good fit for a song on a soundtrack to a movie based on this book. Include the lyrics of the song and explain why you would choose it to be featured as a soundtrack for this novel. How did you relate some of the lyrics to the events of the novel?</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Response must be one page long, including lyrics.</p>
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<p style="text-align: center;">Symbolism</p> <p>Find an example of symbolism used in the novel. You must identify the object, explain what abstract idea it symbolizes, and give specific textual evidence of how it is used in the novel. In total, this symbolism essay must be one, double spaced page long.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Personal Connection</p> <p>Make personal connections to a character, event, or other idea of the story.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">In total, this personal connection essay must be one, double spaced page long.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Theme</p> <p>Create a theme statement that can be connected to this text. Discuss specific textual evidence that supports this theme statement. You must make at least 3 connections between the theme statement you created to the events in the text.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">In total, this theme essay must be one, double spaced page long.</p>
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Appendix B

Question Sheet for the First Socratic Seminar (Generated by Stuart)

Opening

Why do you think the author begins with the hanging of Ellison Mounts?

How do you feel about our narrator Fanny?

Is it ever okay to keep a secret?

Midway

What would have happened if Fanny told on Ro for running off?

What are some ways you can relate to (Pick a Character)...

What conclusions can you make about Belle Beaver?

Closing

What changes would you have made to...?

Who are you most like in the story?

Why do you think the novel is called *The Coffin Quilt*?

What do you think would be another fitting name for the novel?

GOALS :

Speak at least twice

Ask for clarification / evidence

Be respectful

Clarify and explain your points

Speak loudly and clearly

Provide evidence and page numbers

***Clarifying*: Ask these RESPECTFULLY when responding to someone's answer.**

Can you elaborate/expand on that?

Can you cite evidence to prove your point?

Where did you find that in the story?

Why do you think that?