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Teachers Who Collaborate With a Professional Writing Organization:

The Importance of Critical Stance

A Dissertation

Presented to

the Faculty of the Morgridge College of Education

University of Denver

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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by

Paul A. Viskanta

November 2021

Advisor: Dr. Norma Hafenstein

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ABSTRACT

A wide body of research finds teacher preparation programs fail to address the complexity of writing instruction, especially for secondary English-language Arts teachers (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham, 2019; Wahleithner, 2018). Beliefs and knowledge about writing determine how teachers approach pedagogical practices (McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013). One of many contextualized social literacy practices, writing is always ideological (Gee, 2105; Moje & Lewis, 2007). Competing research philosophies complicate development of teachers' practices and impedes research dissemination (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). Structures informing school-based writing limit the types of writing practices (Bazerman, 2016). Using a phenomenological framework with a focus on sociocultural literacy, the researcher used a semistructured interview protocol with four ELA teachers who collaborated with an out-of-school writing organization, exploring their lived experiences teaching writing. Professionals with the organization structured on outcomes of resiliency, personal fulfillment, community, and engagement (Boston Youth Arts Evaluation Project, 2012), worked with teachers. Research questions were developed using Janks' (2009, 2010) critical literacy framework. An intercoder protocol for reliability (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020) was employed after subjective analysis units were coded (Campbell et al., 2013). Coded text was heuristically analyzed for frequency

(Saldaña, 2016) and common lived experiences (Vagle, 2014) teaching writing. Multiple cycles of emergent coding allowed development of themes which aligned with Janks and domains of critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015); all participants displayed these embedded practices. Because qualitative methodology was used, results are not generalizable (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Teachers shared beliefs about the value of writing as expression and as an important school-based skill. Participants shared attributes of culturally responsive caring (Gay, 2018) and ethics of care (Noddings, 2005); relational practices preceded curricular practices. Implications suggest teacher preparation could directly target preservice ELA teachers who articulate broad understandings of writing with information regarding writing theories and pedagogy. Interventions should involve teacher licensing, defining knowledge required of secondary ELA teachers. Implications also indicate out-of-school writing organizations should be utilized as resources for writing development. The study indicates need for more research regarding how professional writing organizations can expand collaboration with ELA teachers.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The practice of writing stands at a juncture between communication and creativity. Learning how to write well can be a lifelong task. For teachers in K–12 schools, writing instruction is regulated by "ideologies of schooling" (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17). Teaching writing, especially in secondary school settings, is a complex task, a "mental recursive process coupled with procedural strategies" (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005, p. 277). Teachers consistently report feeling unprepared to effectively teach the multiple cognitive tasks required to improve—or, more appropriately, contextualize—school-based writing (Bazerman, 2016; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Gillespie et al., 2013; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Murphy & Smith, 2020; National Writing Project and Nagin, 2006; Wahleithner, 2018).

"Naming the Moment"

As a critical educator, I come into this research with the central understanding that "critical pedagogy challenges the social, environmental, and economic structures and social relations that shape the conditions in which people live, and in which schools operate" (Kirylo et al., 2010, p. 332). Amid writing this text, the cultural moment is such that all three areas identified by Kirylo et al. (2010) are continually challenged and strained with crises not seen since the Great Depression and World War II nearly 90 years ago. This claim is no exaggeration; questions of social justice and societal

improvement that may have lacked urgency when I began my doctoral studies 4 years ago are now of such significance that how they are addressed, either by neglect or action, will result in societal realignment. Kumashiro (2018), in a symposium on engaged scholarship, discussed “naming the moment” (para. 13). This idea was presented as an extension of Freire’s (1970/2018) ideas related to how oppression is perceived and identified, which Kumashiro (2018) called “naming the problem“ (para. 15). Kumashiro (2018) explained naming the moment is critical to the work of scholarly intervention, stating:

> If we don’t try to critically understand the problems that we’re facing, then that might mean that we’re simply buying into someone else’s version, or someone else’s telling of what the problem is. . . . Our solution might not actually make things any better, it might actually make things worse. (para. 15)

As such, I situated the research in this study in this context so as to name the moment within which the particular work of literacy educators and teachers of writing was investigated.

This background is important because through this study, the researcher sought to expand the vision and possibilities of writing instruction in secondary schools. This vision of more expansive writing instruction includes questions about the types of writing that should be engaged as curricular practice, especially at the secondary level. The background in the next section also follows notions of literacy as a social construct that is expanded on later in this study. Literacy as a social practice suggests the context in which literacy learning takes place matters, and should not be offered apart from such constructs. Carter (2006) noted, “Any responsible pedagogical decisions must take into

account the layers of agents influencing any and all social, political, material, and ideological conditions for learning" (p. 98).

A foundational argument underscoring the necessity of pedagogical expansion of the teaching of writing is a historical crisis exacerbated by current events; namely, there is a necessity to have educational conversations to prepare a generation of K–12 students for the societal and global challenges their professional lives will face. To put this another way, current crises pose questions about how each of our lives are lived, and there are views that argue writing can be a "[vehicle] for exploring and understanding our experiences in the world" (Yagelski, 2012, p. 200). It is imperative to name the moment so as to better understand the potential value of writing to serve current student populations in public schools.

Social, Environmental, Economic Structures

On March 11, 2020, World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 a pandemic. Over the course of 2020 and through the first half of 2021, unprecedented actions have been taken across the United States and other countries to counter the spread of COVID-19. By the middle of May 2020, just 2 months after that declaration, metrics describing the pandemic's impact were extraordinary, as reported by *The New York Times*:

> More than 36 million Americans are suddenly unemployed. Congress has allocated $2.2 trillion in aid, with more likely to be on the way as a fight looms over government debt. Millions more people are losing their health insurance and struggling to take care of their children and aging relatives. And nearly 90,000 are dead in a continuing public health catastrophe. (Burns, 2020, para. 1)

By June 2021, over 600,000 in the United States would be dead due to the COVID-19 global pandemic (The COVID Tracking Project, 2021). Due to the contagious and uncertain nature of the new disease, this health crisis significantly strained the social sphere, and education was especially impacted. Students and teachers took to video conferencing to conduct classes without in-person contact, or developed hybrid schedules to minimize occupancy to promote safety (Bailey, 2021). Places of social interaction were closed, including restaurants and bars. Gatherings of more than a few people were limited by law. In many major cities, including Los Angeles and New York City, masks were to be worn in public. The social world and how it was organized went through a monumental shift, with continued questions regarding the way education should be conducted when students returned in the fall for the 2021–2022 school year—the 2nd full school year of the continuing pandemic. During the school year that this research was conducted (i.e., 2020–2021) a significant amount of instruction at various points during the year was held with some feature of distance learning (Bailey et al., 2021).

Research regarding the effects of the COVID-19 global pandemic on student learning has continued to emerge in Summer 2021. The available studies and research are concerning, as special attention has been paid to students from lower socioeconomic status groups. A survey of education-related researchers suggested a rise in the achievement gap, "a change that amounts to more than half of the amount of math learning that typically occurs across the entire third grade year" (Bailey et al., 2021, p. 270). Bailey et al. (2021) only found a slightly smaller rise in the achievement gap in reading. Research from an 8-week school closure in the Netherlands reported that

"primary school students lost 8% of a standard deviation (SD) of achievement in school subjects such as math and reading . . . equivalent to losing the academic progress . . . during one fifth of a year of schooling" (Bailey et al., 2021, p. 268), with losses more serious for students of parents with lower educational achievement. Initial studies of pandemic-related social–emotional impact have reported negative trajectories for students attending school remotely, as compared to students attending school in person (Duckworth et al., 2021).

In addition to social structures, the second area of influence Kirylo et al. (2010) discussed involved environmental factors continuing to impact the beginning of this new decade. The link between the importance of using critical pedagogical frameworks for teaching, especially in educational discussions about the environment, have become existential. The climatologist McKibben (2018) wrote, "We are on a path to self destruction" (para. 40). In their book examining the future of the planet under climate change, Wallace-Wells (2019) studied how climate benchmarks once considered perilous are projected to be the most hopeful outcome, stating:

> As recently as the 1997 signing of the landmark Kyoto Protocol, two degrees Celsius of global warming was considered the threshold of catastrophe: flooded cities, crippling droughts and heat waves, a planet battered daily by hurricanes and monsoons we used to call "natural disasters" but will soon normalize as simply "bad weather." More recently, the foreign minister of the Marshall Islands offered another name for that level of warming: "genocide."
>
> There is almost no chance we will avoid that scenario. . . . In 2016, the Paris accords established two degrees as a global goal . . . just a few years later, with no single industrial nation on track to meet its Paris commitments, two degrees looks more like a best-case outcome . . . with an entire bell curve of more horrific possibilities extending beyond it and yet shrouded, delicately, from public view. (p. 9)

Critical pedagogical practice seems to mandate that questions regarding this future be deliberated in every subject in education. Students are aware of the pressing questions related to environmental crises, and are leaving classes to strike for the climate (Witt, 2020). This moment—when students across the world are participating in a movement called "Fridays for Future," boycotting their education to highlight their concerns about the planet (Witt, 2020)—is integral to the critical scholarship the researcher sought to address through this research, which was to address how writing is taught and practiced in school-based settings. The student leaders of this movement have not only identified a social justice-related concern, but are taking action by framing their concerns in direct opposition to their formal schooling.

The third area of influence within critical pedagogy is economics (Kirylo et al., 2010). Even before the substantial economic turmoil beset by the COVID-19 global pandemic, inequality has been an issue of national concern. According to the Pew Research Center, the wealth gap has "more than doubled" (Schaeffer, 2020, para. 12) since 1989 between the richest and poorest 5% in the United States. According to Sawhill and Pulliam (2019) of the Brookings Institution, "The top 20 percent held 77 percent of total household wealth in 2016, more than triple what the middle class held, defined as the middle 60 percent of the usual income distribution" (para. 8).

Literature on critical scholarship has continued to make these connections. In his speech, Kumashiro (2018) listed declining empire, totalitarianism, attacks on institutions, and attacks on public education as conflicts their scholarship has sought to address. In another example of naming the moment, Shields (2018), in their introductory chapter on

transformative education, listed human societal issues (e.g., the wealth gap and child homelessness) before addressing ecological destruction. They said:

> Add to these human issues considerations of the degradation of our oceans, the destruction of rainforests, the rapid decline of the world's glaciers, and the impending extinction of many plant and animal species . . . Something is seriously wrong. Indeed, our planet is in crisis. (Shields, 2018, p. 3)

Yagelski (2009) related environmental degradation directly to writing instruction and noted how it can potentially reconstruct dominant culture, declaring, "Writing cannot be defined exclusively by the widely accepted but limited goals of producing effective communicators and academically successful learners for the existing consumer-oriented culture" (p. 8). The connection between these subjects on Kirylo et al.'s (2010) identified social, environmental, and economic structures have been further developed by epidemiologists who explain changes in biodiversity can be linked to the COVID-19 global pandemic; for instance, Witt (2020) noted, "The emergence of the new virus is not a crisis separate from climate destruction but a symptom of it" (para. 21).

The aim in presenting these particular circumstances and naming the moment (Kumashiro, 2018), is to further the process of the thick description (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Kim, 2016; Kincheloe & Mclaren, 2011) as a central data analysis and writing technique used throughout this study. The purpose of such depth is to accurately situate the context of the study. These named contexts are important for the interpretations and analysis of study data because, as Kincheloe and Maclaren (2011) explained, "A critical hermeneutics beings [*sic*] the concrete, the parts, the particular into focus, but in a manner that grounds them contextually in a larger understanding of the social forces, the whole, the abstract (the general)" (p. 295). Such background is also in service of the

“self-conscious criticism” (Kincheloe & Mclaren, 2011, p. 301) suggested in their work, so the full influence of the social constructions within this study will be transparent and open to critique; in doing so, it is less likely oppressive discourse is repeated. The outlined societal events call for reporting of greater background and context within which this study was completed.

Both critical theory and the idea of a “Dissertation in Practice” (Buss & Zambo, n.d., p. i) warn of the dangers of practice too separated from research. Buss and Zambo (n.d.) said of research, “It is not helpful unless it is accessible to, and informs the work of, those who need it; it is aimed at the common good; and based on collaboration” (p. 6). Kincheloe and Mclaren (2011) similarly wrote, “Many rationalistic scholars become so obsessed with issues of technique, procedure, and correct method that they forget the humanistic purpose of the research act” (p. 289). In this regard, the detailed, contextual information is presented to facilitate not only the worldview of the researcher, but in support of the humanistic value of the questions posed in the study of practices of teachers of writing in public schools.

It is also in the tradition of critical scholarship to include the personal. Shor (1999) devoted a number of pages to growing up Jewish in the Bronx and what it meant to be working class. Shor (1999) discussed starting a “little school newspaper” (p. 4), which was censored by the principal and recalled a memory of an antisweatshop play not allowed to be performed at their school. Kincheloe’s (2011) text included reminiscences of how various scholars in their text met and began their discussions, even including pets in the stories. Duncan-Andrade (2009) included a moving correspondence from a

colleague who was reflecting on supporting students through trauma and how it affected them as their teacher. Yagelski (2012) incorporated several examples of personal writing into their work in support of the argument for the teaching of writing to be seen as praxis; thus, the inclusion of some of the researcher's story is not to imitate, but to better inform readers about social constructions that make up the author's identity within the context of this study.

Problem of Practice

The problem of practice this study sought to address is the limited range of teachers' writing pedagogy in secondary public schools (Yagelski, 2012). This study is situated at the intersection of how school-based writing is taught and an expanded notion of school-based writing curriculum and pedagogy, which includes nonschool participants; therefore, it is first important to home in on how school-based writing is constructed and enacted at particular school sites. School-based writing is a particular academic activity structured within a particular system (Bazerman, 2016), and needs to be understood as a distinct entity. According to Bazerman (2016), "Multiple studies have shown that writing situations, goals for writing, criteria of evaluation, and trajectories of learning outside the classroom in the professional, research, commercial, and civic worlds are substantially different from those within the classroom" (p. 18).

The particular academic activity of school-based writing is "orthogonal to other views of writing and may restrict writing education" (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17). It is not only a question of the restriction of writing education, but "as those who have studied writing assigned in school have noted, the range of writing activities is regularly narrower

than need be even for curricular purposes" (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17). Restricted range of how writing is taught by teachers is the problem of practice the researcher sought to address, and this limitation has been shown to have particular consequences for school-based learning (Bazerman, 2016; Hillocks, 2008; Yagelski, 2012) . The next section discusses educational consequences related to the problem of practice and how school teachers are associated with the issue.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of practice this study addressed is the prevalence of dehumanized writing practices in public schools, with a focus on the teaching of writing in secondary grades. Secondary grades are defined as Grades 7–12. A section with definitions follows later in this chapter.

The work of Freire (1970/2018), particularly *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, is foundational in conceptualizing the idea of dehumanizing education. One way in which Freire (1970/2018) conceptualized dehumanization is with representations inside and outside of consciousness, or "*in* the world, not *with* the world" (p. 75). This split can be explained further as an extension of the "banking concept" (Freire, 1970/2018, p. 72) of education, where "students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor" (Freire, 1970/2018, p. 72). Freire (1970/2018) further wrote:

> Implicit in the banking concept is the assumption of a dichotomy between human beings and the world: a person is merely in the world, not with the world or with others; the individual is spectator, not re-creator. In this view, the person is not a conscious being (*corpo consciente)*: he or she is rather the possessor of a consciousness: an empty "mind" passively open to the reception of deposits of reality from the world outside . . . This view makes no distinction between being accessible to consciousness and entering consciousness. The distinction, however, is essential: the objects which surround me are simply accessible to my

> consciousness, not located within it. I am aware of them but they are not inside me. (pp. 75–76)

Such is the problem with secondary English language arts (ELA) teachers strictly focused on prescribed school-based writing activities. When limited to this scope, the process of writing does not become internalized within student consciousness. Two particular aspects of this dehumanization of writing practice are particularly helpful in the context of the study: decontextualization (Larson, 1996; B. Street, 2003) and a consumer-based learning model (Lewison et al., 2015).

Decontextualizing literacy learning results is the mechanization of language processes (Larson, 1996; B. Street, 2003). Arguing that power structures are always present in literacy learning, B. Street (2003) introduced models of autonomous and ideological literacy. The consequence of institutionalizing (i.e., what will be referred to as school-based literacy in this study) autonomous literacy practices are explained as practices which:

> [Disguise] the cultural and ideological assumptions that underpin it [autonomous literacy practices] so that it can then be presented as though they are neutral and universal and that literacy as such will have these benign effects. (B. Street, 2003, p. 77)

Similar to Freire's (1970/2018) idea of being outside of consciousness, the student in this conception is not internally adapting a skill to a particular authentic context, but being regulated to respond to activities disassociated from their internal consciousness.

As decontextualization disassociates curriculum, consumer-based learning models bring a capitalistic economic model to the learning sphere. Lewison et al. (2015) described the consequences of a consumerist education model, where curriculum is

developed by teachers "from mandated curricular frameworks, standards, and textbooks" (p. 17). The authors wrote, in such a model, student understanding becomes:

> Disciplinary knowledge as a set of facts to be learned rather than an arena in which their voice might be heard and their contribution might provide a much-needed perspective on understanding the very issues that affect their daily lives. (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17)

School-based writing practices are disciplinary and focus on strategies necessary for a particular type of writing success closely aligned with the ideology of schooling (Bazerman, 2016). This success is then measured according to disciplinary objectives and outcomes. The students' understanding of writing is "*in* the world, not *with* the world" (Freire, 1970/2018, p. 75).

Both teachers and students are treated as mere objects as part of their dehumanization while working in urban schools (Gillen, 2014; Giroux, 2014). Teachers' curricular practices have been greatly limited, and curriculum narrowed, due to strict standards and testing accountability structures (Bazerman, 2016; Carmona & Luschen, 2014; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Eidman-Aadahl, 2005; Yagelski, 2012). For students, the result of this separation—the inside and outside of consciousness (Freire, 1970/2018)—is their stories are not present in the narrative of the classroom, "despite its [writing's] extraordinary capacity to empower students, foster engaged pedagogies, and bring schools, teachers, parents, and cultural communities in common purpose" (Benmayor, 2014, p. viii). Teachers, due to current testing and standards-based policies, have little agency in creating their own teaching narratives, although that has changed to some degree with recent Red for Ed teacher movements in Arizona, West Virginia, and Oklahoma (Blanc, 2020). The purpose for advocating for greater teacher agency is so

there is greater possibility for cocreation of authentic relevance of instruction for both teacher and student.

Secondary school teachers, specifically in the methodologies of how tasks of teaching writing are presented, can contribute to preparing students to address distinct 21st-century challenges by providing spaces “for a different way of being in the world, one based on a sense of connectedness that would replace the radical individualism and its associated binaries” (Yagelski, 2009, p. 9). The work of “writing as a way of being” (Yagelski, 2009, p. 7) can be a tool to repair disconnectedness (Yagelski 2009, 2012). Meant for a primary audience of secondary school ELA teachers, this research study also sought to inform those who substantially influence secondary teachers of writing in the classroom; namely, professors in teacher education programs and school administrators responsible for the focus of ELA departments in public schools.

Data Related to School-Based Writing Instruction

The purpose of this section is to present a summary of data showing how school-based writing achievement is reported to educational institutions and, often, the public. Certain writing researchers have responded to such data with critiques of “ideologies of schooling” (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17) that produce such reports (Hillocks, 2008; Scherff & Piazza, 2005; Yagelski, 2012). Yagelski (2012), for example, argued, “Writing instruction at all levels of education continues to be informed by a narrow conception of writing as procedure and persistent misconceptions about writing” (p. 189). Critiques of testing and schooling ideologies are discussed later in this and future chapters of the study; however, because school-based writing functions within the particular system of

schooling, it is important to understand how “ideologies that shape education influence how we teach writing, what we assign, and what we value in writing” (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17). The testing data reported in this section is a reflection of what is systemically valued in current schooling structures in the United States, and informed this study as a result.

After a discussion of testing data, the following section addresses what role teachers play in the system of school-based writing. Although teachers function within the “ideology of schooling” (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17), the teachers’ role is not without some agency, however prescribed it might be. The second part of this section introduces data specifically about teachers’ roles in the teaching of writing.

Testing Data on Writing

Writing is a critical skill in fostering the success of secondary students (Graham, 2019). The teaching of writing has been found to be a persistent problem of practice for teachers in secondary education across different subjects (Bazerman, 2016; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Gillespie et al., 2013; Wahleithner, 2018). Gillespie et al. (2013) identified five ways by which writing contributes to learning: (a) promotes explicitness, (b) allows for integration, (c) supports reflection, (d) supports personal involvement with information, and (e) supports the thinking process. Empirically based surveys of writing instruction have acknowledged “more research is sorely needed to test new instructional approaches” (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 242) and specifically suggested “a synthesis of studies that position writing as collaborative and constructive” (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 242).

According to the 2003 National Commission on Writing (as cited in Graham & Perin, 2007), "two thirds or more of students' writing in 4th, 8th, and 12th grade, was below grade-level proficiency" (p. 445). Relatedly, according to an Achieve, Inc. study (as cited in Graham & Perin, 2007), "College instructors estimated that 50% of high school graduates are not prepared for college-level writing demands" (p. 445). Statistics for students from low socioeconomic communities have suggested these students "are not acquiring the writing skills needed to succeed in today's competitive and technologically advanced society" (Ball, 2006, as cited in Early & DeCosta-Smith, 2011, p. 301). Acquiring successful writing skills in secondary grades is also important due to writing's gatekeeping function, as writing skills are required for college essays and college composition placement exams (Early & DeCosta-Smith, 2011). The need for improved writing instruction in public schools is a nationwide barrier for student achievement that has persisted for at least the last 2 decades.

Issues with accessing more recent data also can be interpreted as evidence of how challenging a subject K–12 student writing is to track, and subsequently, improve. National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), the testing program created by National Center for Education Statistics, was unable to release data from the most recent 2017 exams due to "potentially confounding factors in measuring performance" (NAEP, 2019, "Explore the Nation's Report Card" section) related to use of digital devices. Previous scores from the 2007 NAEP test found only 24% of 12th-grade students were at or above a proficient level in writing (NAEP, 2019). This score is virtually stagnant from the 22% and 24% measured in 1998 and 2002 respectively (NAEP, 2019). When

aggregated by race or ethnic groups, the scores are more discouraging—only 9% of Black, 11% of Hispanic, and 12% of American Indian students scored at or above proficient on the 2007 assessment (NAEP, 2019).

National college entrance exams can also be seen to implicitly value writing differently, as the writing portions of both the ACT and SAT, the two standardized college entrance exams, are optional (College Board, n.d.). Statistics have indicated the need for college remediation classes (Amos, 2006; Butrymowicz, 2017), which further supports the need for writing skills improvement. This failure of preparation to achieve required proficiency levels for college comes at substantial financial cost. Even without more granular information about testing variances among states and districts, statistics have confirmed an ongoing and costly problem of educational practice for secondary teachers of writing, with "data from 911 two- and four-year colleges reveal[ing] 96 percent of schools enrolled students who required remediation in the 2014-15 academic year" (Butrymowicz, 2017, para. 4). Amos (2006) cited the president of Prince George's County Community College in Maryland, who stated 70% of their students needed remediation. The cost of these resources is substantial, reaching $7 billion, according to Butrymowicz's (2017) article; this amount equates to funding the Trump Administration wanted to cut from the education budget proposed in March 2019 (Myers, 2019). These costs are both personal and financial. Data have indicated college graduation is less likely when students are required to complete remedial classes (Butrymowicz, 2017).

Teacher Challenges of Teaching Writing

Testing data are used to report student outcomes and are measured by assessments that researchers (e.g., Hillocks, 2008) have considered problematic when assessing writing. Kirkland (2020), in a seminar on equitable writing pedagogies during the COVID-19 global pandemic, identified issues related to the convergence of writing and testing outcomes as the "politics of text production." (35:32). Writing is not neutral, and yet its instruction is mostly focused on testing; thus, Kirkland (2020) questioned which populations of students get left behind with such a construction of school-based writing. Because teachers are mediators of curriculum (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009), teachers are the school-based actors who must implement at least four levels of policy (Wahleithner, 2018) regarding how student progress is measured. In addition, teachers' performance is increasingly tied to test scores, which account for a portion of teacher evaluations in some states (National Council on Teacher Quality, 2019). This section discusses areas of research that report gaps related to teacher knowledge of complex writing processes.

One area related to teachers is research indicating that teacher training programs do not adequately address writing pedagogy (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Wahleithner, 2018). Another indication of teacher obstacles is teachers' self-reporting of unpreparedness (Gillespie et al., 2013; Troia & Graham, 2016). Feeling unprepared is further complicated by the complexity of writing itself (Bazerman, 2016; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007a). Finally, competing philosophies about writing complicate teachers' continued development of the practice.

Teacher Training

The National Writing Project and Nagin (2006) pointed to lack of teacher training to teach writing. The authors distinguished between improved research and knowledge of how to teach writing, and how "composition pedagogy remains a neglected area of study at most of the nation's thirteen hundred schools of education" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 5). One particular area of policy is few state-run teacher certification programs require specific training in writing (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Wahleithner, 2018). Barnes and Smagorinsky (2016), in a study of three teacher education programs, concluded:

> TCs [teacher candidates], regardless of program, were situated quite similarly amid competing notions of effective teaching, and thus were subject to a common set of tensions that mitigated against the possibility of arriving at a unified understanding of how to teach English in secondary schools. (p. 344)

Their findings indicated many competing influences on preservice teachers and identified teacher training programs as only one of many factors of what the researchers called the "knotty nature of teacher preparation" (Barnes & Smagorinsky, 2016, p. 353). Wahleithner (2018) concluded teachers who receive little training in preservice programs, only to then teach at schools that do not provide training in the particular subject area, "may have little more knowledge of writing beyond what they developed from their own writing as students" (p. 6). Such research addresses findings related to teacher beliefs and identified studies linked to what teachers believe, experiences they have had with writing, and how they approach the subject in the classroom (Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin 2008a, 2008b; C. Street, 2003; Wahleithner, 2018; Yagelski, 2012).

Teachers' Self-Reported Lack of Training

In addition to test scores, evidence that the teaching of writing in secondary schools is an ongoing problem of practice has been confirmed by the teachers themselves, who have self-reported a lack of training. Gillespie et al. (2013) surveyed high school teachers in all disciplines across the United States (*n* = 177) and found that "most teachers reported they received minimal (47%) or no formal preparation (23%) during college on how to use writing to support learning" (p. 1051). Coker and Lewis (2008) also questioned incoming teacher preparation, writing, "When teachers complete their training and enter the classroom, they may begin teaching without the breadth and depth of understanding needed to carry out effective writing instruction" (p. 243). Across disciplines, secondary students lacked experienced writing instruction, which is not an undertaking that subject-specific English teachers are solely responsible for, according to Common Core State Standards principles (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010).

Complex Multifaceted Process of Writing

Another reason teaching of writing in secondary schools is so complicated is there is no one writing; for example, as part of their meta-analysis, Graham and Perin (2007c, as cited by Coker & Lewis, 2008) listed what they called "11 key elements of adolescent writing instruction" (pp. 237–238). The meta-analysis listed a total of 16 individual "instructional treatments that contained four or more effect sizes" (Graham & Perin, 2007a, p. 449) variously grouped together. With numerous strategies, teaching of writing is a labor intensive and time-consuming pedagogy for teachers to execute, making

measurable gains difficult (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c). According to Graham and Perin (2007a, 2007b, 2007c), there are numerous ways in which writing is taught, dispersing measurement and complicating the task of studying effective teaching practices. In their book of curricular strategies supporting the 11 key elements, Dean (2010) highlighted what Graham and Perin (2007c) conceded about these strategies. Graham and Perin (2007c, as cited by Dean, 2010) said, "All of the elements are supported by rigorous research, but that even when used together, they do not constitute a full writing curriculum" (p. x). This notion means teachers familiar with the 11 key elements can use any one of a number of combinations of these strategies. Dean (2010) suggested teachers should do so, "finding a path that fits her or his needs" (p. xii). These elements are presented in the adapted Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

11 Key Elements of Adolescent Writing Instruction

Elements	Writing instructions
Writing strategies	"Explicit instruction in strategies for planning, revising, and editing . . . the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) intervention (Harris & Graham, 1996) has received the most empirical support" (Coker & Lewis, 2018, p. 237). "To be effective, strategy instruction should occur in authentic contexts that are responsive to students' needs" (Dean, 2010, p. 8).
Summarization	"The steps for summarizing . . . essentially come down to four processes that Casazza credits to Brown and Day: 'delete minor and redundant details, combine similar details into categories and provide a label, then select main idea sentences . . . or invent main idea sentences"' (Casazza, 1993, p. 203; as cited by Dean, 2010, p. 22).

Elements	Writing instructions
Collaborative writing	"Group work focusing on the writing process" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 237).
Specific product goals	"Specification of concrete, achievable goals for student writing" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 237).
Word processing	"Word processing . . . encourages collaboration among writers, and helps them see writing as a social activity" (Dean, 2010, p. 73).
Sentence combining	Sentence combining is made up of open and cued practices that result in sentences with greater complexity (Dean, 2010).
Prewriting	"Writing grows out of some need or some place. We write because we are asked to do so, or because writing will help us do something that we want done. So prewriting begins in a situation" (Dean, 2010, p. 101).
Inquiry activities	"[Helping] writers develop two kinds of procedural knowledge: inquiry strategies for developing the content of writing, and strategies for producing various kinds of written discourse" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 23). Primarily a focus in composition modalities (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006).
Process-writing approach	Both a theory with a general understanding that writing is a recursive and nonlinear process that does not always include visible elements (Dean, 2010); and a methodology with various disparate and not always agreed on components (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b).
Study of models	"Exposure to models of good writing" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 238).
Writing for content learning	Also called "Writing across the curriculum. Using writing in many content areas introduces students to the conventions and literacies of various discourse communities, including rules of evidence, terminology, and writing forms" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 27).

Note. Adapted from "A Meta-Analysis of Writing Instruction for Adolescent Students," by S. Graham & D. Perin, 20017a, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *99*(3), 445–476 (https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.99.3.445).

In fact, Graham and Perin (2007a, 2007b, 2007c, as cited by Dean, 2010) did not "recognize other practices that might benefit instruction, either because sufficient research isn't available, or because the studies that are currently available don't fit into a report" (p. xi), such as the *Writing Next* series. Though Graham and Perin (2007a) indicated some process writing studies were included in their analysis, Coker and Lewis (2008) suggested, "Some practices that are central to many depictions of process writing, particularly the writing workshop framework, do not receive attention in the report" (p. 239). Not having one cohesive and epistemologically consistent (Barnes & Smagorinsky, 2016) writing curriculum has historical roots, stemming from 18th-century university structures (Hillocks, 2008). In a contemporary context, those structures are best exemplified by the differing approaches between education psychology and composition departments (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008).

Competing Epistemologies Regarding Writing

As mentioned earlier in this section regarding critiques of testing scores related to writing, secondary writing instruction in particular is also contested territory, with two contrasting philosophical views of how writing instruction should be organized and measured (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Yagelski, 2009). These differing philosophies about the goals and purpose of writing instruction also serve to complicate the scope and dissemination of research regarding writing instruction (Coker & Lewis 2008; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). Both No Child Left Behind legislation and implementation of Common Core State Standards in a majority of states

has had an impact regarding identifying and mandating desired writing outcomes for adolescent students (Hillocks, 2008; Wahlleithner, 2018). Yagelski (2009) summarized the features of dominant writing instruction, noting:

> Writing, as it is usually understood and taught in mainstream education, is neither a vehicle for change nor a truth-seeking practice; rather, it is most often a rule-governed procedure for communication informed by the same dualistic Cartesian worldview that is implicated in the looming social, economic, environmental, and spiritual crises facing humanity in the twenty-first century. (p. 8)

Although writing instruction spans a continuum from direct instruction on one end to process-based methodology on the other, Yagelski (2012) questioned if the limited types of writing done in schools is not a more of a teacher-related issue, further supporting the contention that writing instruction is a problem of practice. Yagelski (2012) made the connection between teacher knowledge and the instruction of writing, stating:

> Most educators don't understand writing. Most teachers of writing, especially in secondary schools, are not themselves writers. Most secondary English teachers do not think of themselves as writers, nor do most school administrators. And in teacher certification programs, writing is often subordinated to literature and reading. (p. 189)

Purpose of Study

Teachers who work with an outside professional writing organization have particularly constructed perceptions of the processes of writing instruction. These perceptions differ due to distinctive lived experiences formulated from collaboration that takes place with out-of-school writing professionals. Identifying these lived experiences, which was the goal of the study, supported existing research calling to strengthen humanizing practices of secondary writing teachers, while also supporting student agency

and expression—both important elements of critical teaching and critical literacy (Janks, 2009, 2010; Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016; Lewison et al., 2015; Murphy & Smith, 2020).

The second area of influence this study sought to inform was to strengthen research-based information regarding humanizing school-based writing practices. Studying the particular experiences of these teachers served to identify practices that could support and inform expanding the possibilities of school-based writing pedagogies. Gillen (2014) described dehumanizing school practices as one of two central failures of mainstream educational beliefs, saying, "Schooling tends to treat persons as things, subjects as objects" (p. 19). Gillen's analysis identified these failures as an "ethical error" (p. 19), pointing to capitalism and Whiteness as central worldviews that create ideas of "them" and "us," a split discussed earlier in this chapter. An additional conception Gillen (2014) critiqued was how the natural world is seen as separate, with "distinction[s] between parts of the world toward which we hold ethical obligations and parts of the world toward which we don't" (p. 20); this conception was similar to the analysis Yagelski (2009) presented from Orr (1992). Although not always reflected by policy or action, students should be a principal ethical obligation in public schooling, and this study identified an experience of working toward that goal through the writing process.

Supporting improvement to the teaching of writing is critically relevant for contemporary teaching practices in secondary public education, especially when considering a goal of promoting a socially just future. Citing what Orr (1992, as cited in Yagelski, 2009) called a "crisis of sustainability" (p. 8), Yagelski (2012) positioned the need for an "Ontology of Writing" (pp. 191–192) within the context of the current global

climate crisis, which was addressed earlier in this chapter. Yagelski (2012) envisioned that "writing as praxis" (p. 188) could "be a process of transformation. In this sense, writing is fundamentally an act of living more deeply, more intensely; it is a process by which we become more 'fully human,' as Freire puts it" (p. 190). Writing as praxis is writing by "entering consciousness" (Freire, 1970/2018, p. 75).

Research Questions

The purpose of this research was to examine how teachers' experiences of participation with an out-of-school writing Discourse community critically influenced their pedagogical practices. The research questions for this study were as follows:

- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's perception of role regarding their role as the teacher in school-based writing?
- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's beliefs of value about the writing that is valued in school-based writing?
- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teachers' ideas about language in school-based writing practices?
- How do these experiences of an out of school writing Discourse community integrate to influence pedagogical practices?

These questions were explored through semistructured interviews, with a focus on critical writing practices. The practices informing the questions are outlined by Janks's (2009) "interdependent model of critical literacy" (p. 129) and include the areas of power,

access, diversity, and design. These elements are expanded on further in the literature review in Chapter 2, which also addresses the idea of "capital 'D'" Discourses (Gee, 2015).

The goal of the research was to gather data on the lived experiences of teachers who collaborate with an out-of-school professional writing organization. Gathering data about these teachers' lived experiences related to the notion that teaching of writing can lead to research-based knowledge that informs the expansion of pedagogical frameworks for school-based writing. Findings from teacher interviews allowed for detailed, experience-based understandings of how the participant teachers' varied experiences with the teaching of writing, including working with assignments, influence perceptions of writing instruction. In researching these questions, the goal of the study was to better understand how teachers with similar experiences of working with an outside professional writing organization make meaning of their pedagogical practices, which might vary according to the purpose and context of instruction.

Study Overview

The researcher, a secondary ELA teacher who has published their students' work, identified the teaching of writing as a problem of practice after a detailed literature review process. The identification process of the problem of practice also included informal conversations with practicing secondary ELA teachers. After developing a tentative study design, the researcher secured a community partner for the study. This organization, Pharos Young Writers Workshop (Pharos; a pseudonym), is a professional nonprofit that organizes writing classes in a variety of settings for youth and adults.

Specifically related to the study, Pharos works with classroom teachers to support writing practices. The partner organization agreed to initiate recruitment of teacher subjects for interviews once Institutional Review Board (IRB) authorization was secured by the researcher. The intention of both the researcher and partner organization responsible for recruitment was to try to secure as diverse a group as possible by spanning gender, race, ethnicity, and student populations with which the teachers work (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, March 27, 2020). Research questions were developed using a critical literacy framework (Janks, 2009). A semistructured interview protocol (Kim, 2016) was used to complete two 75-minute interviews with each of the four participating teachers. These interviews were then transcribed and coded for themes using the interpretive framework of phenomenology (Peoples, 2021; Vagle, 2014; van Manen, 2014).

The researcher chose the methodology of phenomenology to analyze the study data because it best fits the research questions; it also complemented the philosophical worldview held by the researcher. This notion is especially true regarding the question of who constructs knowledge, as the phenomenological worldview argues, "The reality of an object is only perceived within the meaning of the experience of an individual" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 76). Phenomenology has a number of approaches and methodologies available to guide the researcher (Peoples, 2021; Vagle, 2014; van Manen, 2014). For this study, phenomenological interpretation of data were informed by van Manen's hermeneutic (i.e., pedagogical) approach as outlined by Vagle (2014), in addition to a phenomenologically oriented outline by Butler-Kisber (2010, as cited by

Saldaña, 2016). The role of phenomenological methodology and its relationship with "uncovering" (van Manen, 2014, p. 41) and exploring lived experiences is addressed at length in Chapter 3. Because the practice of phenomenology is connected to the writing process itself (van Manen, 2014), the occasions of interpretation and writing used to communicate findings can also be viewed as part of the research process. As "writing is the way that phenomenology is practised" (van Manen, 2011, para. 1), the process of writing and reporting the study from a phenomenological perspective is not separate; thus, the report is unequivocally part of the study process as well.

Theoretical Framework – Critical Literacy

A critical literacy framework informed the study. According to Janks (2009), critical literacy is an action "using writing to produce meanings" (p. 128). A social justice perspective is embedded within Janks's (2009) "interdependent model for critical literacy" (p. 129), where it is argued "critical writing is a form of social action that works with questions of control, identity, positioning, standard languages, dominant genres, and access" (p. 129). In seeking to uncover the practices of teachers who promote a more expansive view of writing pedagogy a central feature of their work, the researcher sought to uncover practices and strategies that might support future teachers by addressing less frequently analyzed pedagogical practices of writing instruction. Shor (1999) explained critical literacy—of which critical writing is a part—as "language use that questions the social construction of the self. When we are critically literate, we examine our ongoing development, to reveal the subjective positions from which we make sense of the world and act in it" (p. 3). Through exploring the lived experiences of teacher–practitioners, and

analyzing how these experiences inform their understandings of the teaching of writing, the interview data were examined by the researcher to uncover pedagogical acts using Janks's (2009) interdependent model for critical literacy. This model challenges students to conceive of themselves as agents in the narratives of their lives and the lives of those around them. When teachers employ critical literacy frameworks, such as Janks (2009), futures are possible and "Discourse is not destiny" (Shor, 1999, p. 2).

In his essay, *What is Critical Literacy,* Shor (1999) focused both on explaining the framework of critical literacy and addressing how what is both a practice and a tool can be used to "teach oppositional discourses so as to remake ourselves and our culture" (p. 2). Shor, Janks (2009), and several theorists who formed the foundation of the review of critical literacy in Chapter 2 address the idea of remaking discourse. Expanding the idea that it is both practice and tool, Shor (1999) explained critical literacy is both reflective and reflexive, by which he meant it entails "social practices used to critically study all social practices including the social practices of language use and education" (p. 11). Put another way, critical literacy is both content (i.e., something produced) and context (i.e., the way in which it is produced).

Curricular and Writing Definitions

Dehumanizing pedagogy was introduced earlier in the chapter with a connection made to specific ideas of autonomous literacy (B. Street, 2003) and students and educators as consumers (Lewison et al., 2015). Establishing commonly used terminology serves to clarify foundational assumptions that theoretically informed this research project. The terminology choices made by the researcher, and explained in this section,

are not meant to be exclusionary, nor are other potential choices necessarily negated; for example, by distinguishing between pedagogy, the work of the teacher, curriculum, and products used in the classroom, distinctions can be made that are important to more clearly delineate, even if their boundaries overlap in practice. In making research-based selections for consistent terms, the researcher established a cohesive narrative structure in support of reporting the research findings. Establishing this structure was done with the understanding that terminology in studies, particularly when encompassing subjects as broad as education and literacy, can shift and be contested. The purpose of this section of Chapter 1 is meant to clarify and support use of key terminology in the study.

Systematic Curriculum

There are a number of terms commonly used to define current beliefs structuring public schools in the United States. Ravitch (2010), as a public intellectual, has often used the term *reformers* to define a group that generally seeks to change some fundamental tenets of public schooling; for example, advocating for charter schools. In one essay, Giroux (2013) grouped a host of public policies together using the terms "neoliberalism" and "disimagination," in addition to calling teachers "technicians" (Giroux, 2014) in another essay. Curricular theorist Aoki (as cited in Magrini, 2015) used the terms "technical" and "analytic-empirical" to describe how a "social-efficiency" (p. 277) model has evolved.

Critical theorists, following Friere (1970/2018), have often focused terminology on ideas related to loss of agency and consciousness, as introduced earlier in this chapter. Key to reporting the study was defining a term that explains a worldview through which

the structure of schools function in this moment. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009), who consistently use the term "accountability," wrote of the following premises currently made in education:

> Behind the current educational regime is . . . [an] enterprise that, despite its rhetoric, makes certain assumptions: teachers are primarily technicians; the goal of teacher learning initiatives is to make teachers more faithful implementers of received knowledge and curriculum; subject matter is more or less a static object to be transmitted from teachers to students; the purpose of educational systems, which are the bellwether of the health of the economy, is to produce the nation's workers; and students' learning can be adequately assessed through standardized tests. (p. 2)

The researcher chose to use the curricular term *systemic curriculum* because it (a) is appropriate to the field of study, (b) is a comprehensive description that includes a full range of systemic implications, and (c) makes an ethical argument about the question of "what should be taught" (Null, 2017, p. 3). The use of a curricular term matched the purpose and goal of the study, which was an investigation into how a group of teachers working with a professional organization make meaning of their curricular choices when teaching the subject of writing. Null (2017) argued curricular questions are those of design and purpose:

> What should be taught, to whom, under what circumstances, how, and with what end in mind? . . . What process should we use to decide what our curriculum ought to be within a particular school, college, or university context? . . . Curriculum questions can only be answered by thoughtful inquiry into curriculum. (p. 5)

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) also understood the importance of the "ends question" (p. 9) in understanding current beliefs about education, stating:

> What we (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1998) once called the ends question in education (i.e., debates about the purposes of teaching, learning and schooling) is closed. In other words, the complicated string of assumptions and values that

> support the idea that preparation for economic roles is the central purpose of schooling is taken for granted and straightforward. (p. 9)

Pedagogy Defined

Secondary teachers who have the unique experience of teaching writing in conjunction with professional organizations independent of formal teaching requirements have an important contribution to make regarding writing pedagogy. *Pedagogy* is defined as "knowledge and skill that a person needs to develop in order to become a successful teacher" (Inglis & Aers, 2008, para. 1). Breault (2010) distinguished pedagogy from instruction. The authors wrote, "Instruction can occur with no set of larger beliefs or with no larger ideal in mind. It is a technical process that can be applied relatively context-free" (Breault, 2010, para. 2). They limited their definition of pedagogy to the more specific but less distinguishable practice they termed "the art of teaching" (Breault, 2010, para. 1).

For the purposes of this study, the more principled definition was used to define pedagogy, one more specific than mere technical practices. As defined for this study, *pedagogical practices* means "making intentional decisions based on a set of beliefs" (Breault, 2010, para. 1). Palmer (2017) also used the term *intention* to describe quality teaching, saying: "Teaching is the intentional act of creating those [learning] conditions, and good teaching requires that we understand the inner sources of both the intent and the act" (p. 7). Breault (2010) listed the following elements of pedagogy: consciousness, intentionality, refinement, and belief. Interviewing writing teachers helped identify potentially overlooked or neglected instructional practices within these four areas of pedagogical practice. The participating teachers' lived experiences teaching writing in

collaboration with an out-of-school writing organization contributes to existing data reviewed by the researcher and discussed in Chapter 2 supporting improvement to writing pedagogy. Teachers working with students to address distinct 21st-century learning challenges can benefit from research providing additional information on existing strategies that provide spaces "for a different way of being in the world, one based on a sense of connectedness that would replace the radical individualism and its associated binaries" (Yagelski, 2009, p. 9). Table 1.2 provides other terminology and their definitions as used in this study.

Table 1.2

Terminology and Definitions

Term	Definition
Critical literacy	"Critical literacy is language use that questions the social construction of the self. When we are critically literate, we examine our ongoing development, to reveal the subjective positions from which we make sense of the world and act in it" (Shor, 1999, p. 2).
Critical pedagogy	"Most critical pedagogues agree that schools work from a particular political agenda–maintaining the dominant culture. The process of critical pedagogy challenges these hegemonic structures and processes through asking students to develop a critical consciousness (Ayers, 2001; Bartolome & Trueba, 2000; Freire, 1996). This critical consciousness, or conscientization (Freire, 1970), allows students to reframe their understandings of the world or to 'name the problem' of how and why inequitable structures are maintained (Harro, 2000) . . . Through critiquing 'normality,' critical pedagogy seeks to contest the denigration of those that fail to conform . . . There is a focus on student self-exploration, transformation, and empowerment (Cochran-Smith, 1997)" (Wolfe, 2010, p. 370).

Term	Definition
Critical writing	"Most of the work on critical writing is in higher education . . . Sees writing as a social practice, pays careful attention to the disciplinary norms that writers in the academy have to master. Academic texts are exclusive and excluding for both writers and readers. Writing is fundamentally bound up with questions of power and identity" (Janks, 2009, p. 127).
Discourses (as opposed to discourses lowercase)	"Discourses are 'ways of being in the world' . . . They are socially situated identities. Language makes no sense outside of Discourses and the same is true for literacy. There are many different 'social languages' (different styles of language used for different purposes and occasions)" (Gee, 2015, p. 4).
Expressivist writing	Writing "with an underlying assumption that thinking precedes writing, and that the free expression of ideas can encourage self-discovery and cognitive maturation. Writing development and personal development are seen as symbiotically interwoven" (Hyland, 2016, p. 12).
Genre	"A set of texts that share the same socially recognised purpose and which, as a result, often share similar rhetorical and structural elements to achieve this purpose" (Hyland, 2016, p. 268).
Instruction	In contrast to pedagogy, "instruction can occur with no set of larger beliefs or with no larger ideal in mind. It is a technical process that can be applied relatively context-free" (Breault, 2010, para. 2). The researcher uses "teaching of writing" rather than "writing instruction" in service of this distinction.
Literacy	"Social action through language use that develops us as agents inside a larger culture." (Shor, 1999, p. 2)
Pedagogy	Intentional teaching decisions made due to a set of beliefs (Breault, 2010).
Peer review or Peer response	A classroom technique designed to help the student develop editing skills and a sense of authentic audience . . . Students . . . read and review one another's work in pairs or groups, soliciting critical feedback as they present their writing to peers" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 27).

Term	Definition
Process approach or Process-writing approach	A teaching approach to writing that which emphasises the development of good practices by stressing that writing is done in stages of planning, drafting, revising and editing, which are recursive, interactive and potentially simultaneous" (Hyland, 2016, p. 269).
Secondary (as a subset of "educational organization")	Secondary education is most broadly defined as age 12 through 17 or 18 organized most often into junior high schools and senior high schools with variations on this model (Mintz et al., 2003). When discussion in the research is specific to a particular age group, it is identified and noted.
School	While the study did not explicitly exclude private schools, the principal structure within the research text was of public schooling. If a study or section relates to a private school, it is explicitly noted and identified.
School-based writing	School-based writing is "specialized writing activities within a specialized activity system with specialized school genres . . . Further, the writing experiences, expectations, genres, skills, and objectives in schooling ar typically defined by the classroom setting and are focused on developing skills or student understanding" (Bazerman, 2016, pp. 16–17).
Text	"We use the term *text* broadly to refer not only to printed texts, but also to spoken language, graphics, and technological communications" (International Reading Association and the National Council of Teachers of English, 1996, p).
Transformative leadership	"A critical approach to leadership grounded in Freire's (1970) fourfold call for critical awareness or *conscientization*, followed by critical reflection, critical analysis, and finally for activism or critical action against the injustices of which one has become aware" (Shields, 2018, p. 11).
Workshop model	A student-centered classroom organization approach (Atwell, 1998) that is often used interchangeably with the process writing approach, with which is shares similarities. Modeled on the "artist's communal studio the. . . environment [of the classroom] is structured so each person has all the tools at hand, can work independently at his or her own pace, and can seek feedback at any time from others engaged in the same creative work" (Dornan et al., 2003, p. 57).

Term	Definition
Writing	"Writing is not simply a process of producing texts but also of imagining, producing, and reshaping identities" (Handsfield, 2016, p. 160).

Local Context

The researcher interviewed educators who worked in various school settings throughout a major urban area in a mountain state in the western United States. The partner organization, Pharos, was founded in the city in 1997. Pharos organizes a range of writing and literary classes and seminars for adults in a variety of genres, including poetry, playwriting, fiction, and memoir. It has a separate set of youth programs with content presented both in schools and as out-of-school programs. Pharos also offers professional workshops to help writers and creatives succeed in the publishing industry. Each year it holds a conference that is a cornerstone of literary programming in the city, billed as "A month of seminars, parties, workshops, salons, agent consultations, readings, and more" on their website.

According to the state's Department of Education website, the metropolitan area within which the Pharos operates has 18 school districts. Teachers who participated in the study worked in three of these districts. Expanded information about these districts, their demographics, and the organizational settings for the participant teachers' work are addressed in greater detail in Chapter 3.

The population of the western mountain region state where the research took place was 5,694,311 for the year 2018, according to the State Demography Office. The same office listed the population of the greater metropolitan region (10 County Metro) in

2018 as just under 3 million people (2,932,934). The percentage of the population that lives in urban areas across the state is 86.2%. As of 2018, 40% of the state's registered voters were unaffiliated, Democrats made up 29% of voters, and Republicans made up 28% of registered voters. There are 3% of voters registered with other parties. According to the Economic Development Corporation and their use of data from the U.S. Census Population Estimates Program, the population demographics are as follows: 64.8% White, 5.1% Black, .5% American Indian, 4.5% Asian, and 22.6% Hispanic Origin.

Background of Researcher

I am foremost a secondary ELA teacher. I have spent the majority of my professional time in this role, teaching ELA in the underserved communities of Los Angeles. As part of this work, I have published my students' writing to professionalize their practice. I have also helped organize teacher colleagues as a representative of United Teachers Los Angeles (UTLA). Additionally, I am an academic, seeking an educational doctorate degree to further professionalize my expertise in the field of education. I have earned a master's of arts degree from New York University, with my thesis exploring *The Possibility of an Ethics in Deconstruction*. I am also a writer, having practiced various forms of the art, with a novel in the early stages of being edited. Although perhaps not all are at in the immediate forefront, these elements of the researcher's professional self were interconnected in the "reflective" (van Manen, 2014, p. 20) process of phenomenologically reporting the findings of the completed research.

I will also make more of the personal visible in this introduction. I am the son of immigrants. After spending several years in displaced persons camps in Germany after

fleeing Lithuania during World War II, my parents met through the Lithuanian community in Chicago. My views and values of social justice were fostered as I learned about the subjugation of my family left behind, and the Soviet occupation of the country. My identity as a gay man has also greatly shaped my worldview, and I deeply understand what it means to be othered.

This background is important, as these elements are both present and absent in the progression of the study, somewhat mirroring the process that took place for the subjects. There are sections where I bracket myself out of the research "by discussing personal experiences with the phenomenon" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 77). Still, my experiences are present throughout, "not of forgetting what has been experienced but of not letting past knowledge be engaged while determining experiences" (Giorgi, 2009; as cited in Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 77).

Researcher as Writer

The life of the classroom is linked and not separate from the outside world. Critical literacy can be viewed as encompassing many different schools of thought (Janks 2009, 2010; Lewis et al., 2007; Lewison et al., 2015; Moje & Lewis, 2007; Shor, 1999). These differences can lead to a type of theoretical paralysis in which differences are discussed more than the intent of ideas. This challenge presented the researcher with a paradoxical challenge of exploring important theoretical frameworks that informed the research—yet with a caution so as not to have discussion of frameworks overwhelm the practical purpose and goal of the research project. Expressing this tension directly is particular to the task of discourse of this research study. Hyland (2016) explained: "A

discourse is shaped by writers attempting to balance their purposes with the expectations of readers though a process of negotiation" (pp. 22–23). By exposing the negotiation within this very document, the intention is to further explore and broaden assumptions and boundaries within the Discourse within which it functions; that is, to expand the conversation directly and include it in the research. I see these moves as adhering to the ideology informing the study.

Shor (1999) supported attention to this boundary, saying: "Theorizing theory produces abstract discourse whose reference to experience and history gets lost. Yet, in academic life, as we know, the more abstract a spoken or written discourse, the more prestige the speaker or text represents" (p. 16). By involving the reader, a cocreator of textual meaning, in the production of this text, the researcher hoped to hold the negotiation accountable for both theoretical underpinnings and the very practical and purposeful work of learning more about secondary writing instruction through the literature and proposed research. As Kirylo et al. (2010) noted:

> Critical pedagogy demands that people repeatedly question their roles in society as either agents of social and economic transformation, or as those who participate in the asymmetrical relations of power and privilege and the reproduction of neoliberal ideology. (p. 332)

The work to balance roles as researcher and teacher are returned to throughout the study, also enacting an example of Shor's (1999) reflexivity.

Underserved Populations

The discussion about opportunity for public school students in a decentralized state-by-state system like that found in the United States complicates the clear discussion about equity. Even laudable studies (e.g., those using Title I data) can focus on what

Renzulli and Reis (2004) called minimum competence, and still exclude underserved populations, such as gifted students. One commonly cited measure of inequity is Title I funding, which is a measure of poverty (U.S. Department of Education, 2004); however, such a measure discounts a range of other underserved populations, such as GLBTQ students, gifted-talented populations, and even potentially language learners. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2012) uses the concepts of fairness and inclusion to frame their definition of equity:

> - Inclusion means ensuring that all students reach at least a basic minimum level of skills.
> - Equitable education systems are fair and inclusive and support their students to reach their learning potential without either formally or informally presetting barriers or lowering expectations.
> - Equity as fairness implies that personal or socioeconomic circumstances, such as gender, ethnic origin, or family background are not obstacles to educational success. (p. 9)

The Aspen Institute Education & Society Program (2018) used a similar definition with a more specific list of included groups:

> Educational equity means that every student has access to the right resources they need at the right moment in their education, despite race, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, language, nationality/immigration status, disability, family background, or family income. (para. 7)

During informal discussions with Pharos codirectors before data collection started, the researcher's desire to include teachers who work with underserved populations was communicated (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, March 27, 2020). Moreover, the aforementioned definitions were used to further inform the researcher about how these populations are identified and served by the participating teachers and their institutions.

The range of underserved populations noted by the definitions in this section are reported in this study to the best ability regarding available data at greater length in Chapter 3. As the research context is a major urban area with a diverse population, culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students are a segment of the population with whom some of the participants work. Special mention of this population is made here for two reasons. First, according to U.S. Department of Education data, CLD students are a growing population of students in over half of all states, and in five states, that increase has been over 40%. Second, because this is a research study of teachers and writing, research regarding these learners and addressing successful teaching strategies for them matters. Kinloch and Burkhard (2016) included critical pedagogy and writing as socially constructed theoretical models that include the CLD population in their learning frames. An additional theory, what Gay (2013, 2018) termed culturally responsive teaching (CRT), is referred to and woven throughout the study, informing the researcher of research-based practices that put marginalized students at the forefront of consideration when constructing classroom learning and teaching pedagogies.

The researcher also devised the study to represent gifted and talented students. Because identification of the gifted and talented population is uniquely local, varying not only by state, but by district (Callahan, 2018), the researcher was particularly attentive to interview questions probing about high-achieving students. Data have shown gifted students as an underidentified group, and gifted students of lower socioeconomic status are of special concern (Borland, 2014). Secondary schools—home to the population of students with whom teachers in this study work—are especially limited in their choices

of gifted programming, with Advanced Placement classes often being the sole school-site-based program that challenges this group of learners until later high school grades, where dual enrollment can be an option for some (Hertberg-Davis & Callahan, 2008). The research regarding gifted student programming in secondary schools presents individual teachers with more responsibility for varying their curriculum for high-achieving students (Hertberg-Davis & Callahan, 2008). A portion of the population that Pharos organization serves are considered high achieving, or have specific talents in literature or writing (K. Smith, personal communication, February 11, 2020); thus, the researcher was inclusive regarding questions about instruction and learning opportunities for this underserved population during participant interviews, especially when probing or returning to clarify answers from interview subjects. Discussion of how including underserved populations was a goal of the researcher and is also included in Chapter 3.

Limitations of Study

Study limitations can be grouped into three areas: (a) qualitative methodology in general, (b) design of the study, including phenomenological methodology, and (c) recruitment issues. The researcher was thoughtful amid research design and execution process to be vigilant of potential limitations, and worked to keep potential constraints and drawbacks to a minimum where possible.

Use of qualitative methodology for the study was decided with the intent to focus on the particular, which is an indication of a productive study of this type (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The particular in this study was the experience of ELA teachers who have collaborated with a professional writing organization, and their lived experiences

teaching writing. A limitation inherent in this choice was this study is not generalizable (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Generalizability was also impacted by all four participating teachers working at different school sites, which meant there was no common setting in which the research took place.

The researcher used interviews as the primary method of collecting data. Creswell and Creswell (2018) listed four limitations of this data gathering methodology. First, the researcher's presence can produce bias or skew participant responses. Participants interviewed had different levels of communicative skills and may have lacked ability to refine details or express them with sufficient precision. The information from the participants was indirect, which meant there were already narrative decisions being made about what to discuss and reveal. Finally, because interviews were noncontextual, information was presented in a different setting than where the recorded events and actions take place. The researcher's level of experience could have also been a limitation (Best & Kahn, 2006), especially with a "challenging" (van Manen, 2014, p. 41) interpretive methodology, such as phenomenology.

Recruitment was limited due to several circumstances. First, focusing primarily on securing secondary teachers for the research study narrowed the potential pool of candidates from the partner organization, whose primary long-term focus is on professional writer relationships, not teachers. Second, several interested candidates responded but indicated pressures of managing a new school year during the continuing COVID-19 global pandemic was a barrier to participation. Finally, the researcher was limited by the pool of candidates and number of responses in attempts to secure a more

ethnically diverse set of participants. Notably, this disappointing limitation was impacted by statistics related to location and occupation. As noted in an earlier section of this chapter, the urban area in which the study took place was 64.8% White according to U.S. Census data (U.S. Census Population Estimates Program). The teaching profession is 79.5% female in the state from which candidates were recruited, according to state Department of Education data. The population of students served by the participating teachers, however, was diverse, and statistics indicative of such are presented in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The following literature review was organized according to two primary purposes outlined by Creswell and Creswell (2018). The first, and primary purpose, is to "identify the central issues in a field" (p. 26); in this case, writing instruction in secondary education. The second function of the chapter is to "integrate what others have done and said" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 26). These two combined purposes are closely associated with what Baumeister and Leary (1997) developed as "problem identification" (p. 312), one of five goals of a literature review they defined. The purpose of problem identification is "to reveal problems, weaknesses, contradictions, or controversies in a particular area of investigation" (Baumeister & Leary, 1997, p. 311).

The process for the literature review followed a multiple-stage, systematic formula outlined by Butin (2010), who charted different stages of narrowing research on two axes for educational research to include "general versus academic searches and practitioner versus scholarly searches" (p. 64). This methodology allowed for a broad search, which eventually resulted in "citation overlap" (Butin, 2010, p. 67). This research methodology returned common themes and questions throughout the research, which was written for varying purposes and audiences associated with the work of scholars and practitioners. This multiple-stage process helps explain the heuristic process and resulting criteria for selection in the review. The multiple-stage process created references that bridged both practitioner-oriented and theoretical literature supportive of the research

questions, and identified that contributed to an existing area of need for educational practitioners. First, the problem of practice was identified—dehumanizing writing instruction in secondary schools. Then, the researcher narrowed and revised research questions, which the literature consistently highlighted needed further research.

The literature review indicated a need for an improvement and expansion of pedagogical practices of writing instruction in secondary schools across a broad range of types of writing, and among all sets of student demographics (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2014; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Hillocks, 2008; Lacina & Block, 2012; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Scherff & Piazza, 2005; Wahleithner, 2018). Writing has not been seen as valued by those with instructional oversight in the educational system, and "if writing and writing instruction are not valued and understood by society at large, as well as policymakers and school personnel more specifically, the potential impact of changing writing instruction for the better will be restricted" (Graham, 2019, pp. 282–283).

What has been found to be contentious among some groups of researchers and practitioners, with different philosophical and pedagogical perspectives over the last 2 decades of discussion about writing pedagogy, are questions about what the purpose of writing in secondary schools should be, and the associated teaching methodologies that should be used to achieve those aims. These questions about writing are documented as both a function of teacher pedagogy and institutional school structures. Teachers are inconsistent in application of research-based teaching methods, which includes poor teacher development regarding teaching of writing (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Gillespie et

al., 2013; Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Hillocks, 2008; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Wahleithner, 2018; Yagelski, 2012). Systemically, teachers are restricted not only by standards, but the narrow ways in which writing products and schools are assessed and evaluated—both locally and by state and national testing criteria (Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Hillocks, 2008; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Street, 2003; Troia & Graham, 2016; Wahleithner, 2018; Yagelski, 2012).

Organization of Literature Review

The literature review that follows is organized into two sections, each of which integrates a particular theme addressing the proposed study (Baumeister & Leary, 1997). The first section of the literature review introduces sociocultural theories of literacy (Bazerman, 2016; Carter, 2006; Gee, 2015; Handsfield, 2016; Hyland, 2016; Lewis et al., 2007; Lewison et al., 2015; B. Street, 2003), and how theories of sociocultural literacies are conceptually different than notions of traditional literacy. Following this outline of broad perspectives of literacy, the first section reviews some background of how writing theories are organized. Theoretical background on writing was important to the study because it narrowed an expansive field to a particular construct related to the purpose of writing; moreover, it helped address how this construct is different from other conceptions of traditional literacy and writing. The researcher did not exclude these other views of writing in the discussion, but suggests that existing literature indicates "problems, weaknesses, contradictions [and] controversies" (Baumeister & Leary, 1997,

p. 312) in the field, according to the goals of problem identification introduced earlier in the literature review.

The problem, as identified in the literature, is that teaching of writing is not directed by humanizing pedagogies, but is driven by constraints such as time, standards, teacher development, and teacher beliefs. Discussion of the foundations of sociocultural theories of writing, the theoretical foundations of writing instruction that literature indicates are neglected by English teachers in secondary schools, is thus presented and clarified to better situate the study within the theoretical and pragmatic changes within the larger field of literacies (Carter, 2006; Gee, 2015; B. Street, 2003). The plural use of the term literacies is also addressed later in this chapter. The first section then closes by introducing an important finding in the literature that impacted the study—there is a conceptual rift in the field when it comes to theoretical and research foundations that influence the teaching of writing in K–12 schooling (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008).

The second section focuses on the more focused topic of writing and how it is taught. The section begins with discussion of literature on writing in secondary schools. Secondary education is most broadly defined as age 12 through 17 or 18 (Mintz et al., 2003). Most studies included in the review focused on this age group; however, research and discussions on K–12 writing often span all grades. The researcher took care to identify when findings were broad and covered the full span of K–12 writing, rather than when findings were particular to secondary age groups.

The distinction between secondary and elementary grades, particularly with regard to writing instruction, is important for two reasons. First, the structure of secondary education differs from elementary schools in that teachers and classes are subject specific (Mintz et al., 2003). This distinction informs research related to the teaching of writing, because secondary English language arts (ELA) teachers have historically had the responsibility to teach writing, which differs from many elementary teaching assignments that span multiple subjects. This study specifically focused on teachers who have literacy specializations, and all but one teacher in the study were subject-specific secondary ELA teachers. As such, this study does not feature much discussion related to what is termed "writing across the curriculum," (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 27) where teachers in subjects other than ELA address writing skills. The discipline of teaching of writing is a discussion too expansive for this literature review, due to the its focus on "disciplinary-specific forms of reasoning" (Galbraith, 2015, p. 218). This means, for example, that because science and history have different methodologies for how knowledge is created, the writing processes for each subject differ (Galbraith, 2015; Moje, 2008). This breadth presents too expansive a topic for this particular research project. The second reason to highlight distinctions between elementary and secondary writing in K–12 schools is because of how instructional influences about the teaching of writing begin to differ in secondary grades (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008), which is a topic covered at greater length at the end of the second section of the literature review.

The second section of the literature review then continues with discussion of research related to different pedagogies related to writing instruction. There are two ways existing literature has most often viewed primary bifurcations related to how the teaching of writing is discussed. One view is delineated by research influence; the second addresses what is produced in writing classrooms.

Research on secondary writing has been influenced by both educational psychology and composition studies departments (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008). Educational psychology influences are represented by discussion of the significant amount of research related to Graham and Perin's (2007a; 2007b; 2007c) *Writing Next* studies and the questions that have followed and expanded that seminal work (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2014; Lacina & Block, 2012). The research influence of composition studies is then discussed by addressing findings related to what is variously called a "process approach model" (Pritchard & Honeycutt, p. 276), a "process writing approach" (Graham & Perin, 2007a; p. 449), or a "writing process" (Dornan et al., 2003, p. 3; National Writing Project and Nagin, 2006, p. 21). The different names are listed as an example of the various different terminologies which share—but do not always replicate—methodologies under the process approach to writing (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005). In addition to various pedagogical terms related to the writing process, the term "workshop approach" (Atwell, 1998, p. 72; Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 239; Urbanski, 2006, p. 8) to teaching content, including reading, is also often used interchangeably with process writing methodology, creating further confusion in terminology (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Pritchard & Honeycutt,

2005). For purposes of this study, the researcher used the term "process writing approach" to specify a particular writing pedagogy, and the terms "writing workshop" or "workshop approach" to denote a particular approach to classroom organization.

The National Writing Project and Nagin (2006) identified the divide in writing instruction as one between "teaching writing as a product" (p. 21) and "writing as process" (p. 21). This separation has similarities with philosophical approaches in educational psychology and composition studies, so philosophical similarities were addressed; however, in their discussion regarding fissures related to writing research, Coker and Lewis (2008) addressed how:

> Academic discussions within, and occasionally across, the communities of writing researchers may not inform the preparation and professional development of middle and high school teachers. Much of the research on writing is produced by scholars in research-intensive colleges and universities, and little of it is conducted by scholars in teacher-preparation programs. (p. 243)

Because this research project is intended for both scholarly and practical audiences, it seemed appropriate specify each of the communities Coker and Lewis (2008) identified. When addressing secondary school teaching of writing, there are research-based differences, which are more closely related to academic interests, and product-related questions, which are closer to teacher experiences in the field.

Finally, the last sections of the literature review address the work of writing teachers, primarily in secondary school settings. The summarized research identifies what secondary teachers should know when teaching writing, in addition to what the research indicates they learn. Important knowledge also includes being familiar with adolescent cognitive function. The section also discusses why the beliefs of writing teachers are an

important facet of how instructional decisions are made in relation to how writing is taught in secondary grades.

Literacy as a Social Practice

This section of the literature review gives a brief overview of recent conceptions of literacy and the more expansive term, Discourses (Gee, 2015), which was used in this study. A principal goal of the section was to draw out distinctive theoretical currents within the field of traditional literacy and literacies. Addressing these different directions in the field allowed the researcher to identify important questions that impact the teaching of writing in K–12 schools. The researcher was cognizant that highlighting and summarizing information from such a broad field risked a critique of simplification; however, the goal for this section was to give the most relevant background to support theoretical and philosophical understandings related to the study, while simultaneously maintaining the focus on features of practitioner purposefulness. The section works to maintain a focus on how ideas of literacy and Discourse practices (Gee, 2015) pose questions to writing instruction in public schools, especially within the context of dehumanizing practices, as presented in Chapter 1 of the study.

The overview begins with broad ideas regarding traditional ideas of literacy. The section then includes discussion of principles that help inform the practice of writing in the context of social practices termed capital "D" Discourses (Gee, 2015). The construction of Gee's (2015) Discourses is discussed, because it is tied closely together with the idea of addressing literacies as a plural so as to "include those activities not typically accepted as 'reading' or 'writing' in any traditionally academic or school-

related sense" (Carter, 2006, p. 101). Because writing functions as a separate topic, both within the construction of Discourses (Gee, 2015) and as a practice with its own terminology, the following section features an exploration of how writing is often theoretically understood as a narrower discussion within similar areas of literacies and Discourses.

The section concludes by introducing a critical idea that informs the teaching of writing in K–12 schools. This idea is described as a conceptual "rift" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 242) between the conceptualizations of two fields of K–12 writing. Introducing information about this rift supports why the study viewed secondary writing as instructionally different from how writing is taught in elementary grades. The inclusion of one elementary teacher in the study (i.e., Mary), for the inclusive purpose of gathering data about gifted-talented pedagogical practices, was supported in that Mary's teaching model isolates literacy practices as a separate teaching assignment. The inclusion of Mary as a participant was also supported by a practice found in research literature of repeatedly addressing K–12 writing practices together; for example, the work by the National Writing Project and Nagin (2006).

Historical Literacy Debates and Sociocultural Reconceptualization

Named variously in popular culture as "literacy wars" (Janks, 2010, p. xiii; Roy, 2005, p. 99), "literacy crises" (Gee, 2015, p. 30), or "reading wars" (Strauss, 2019), cultural debate involving questions of how K–12 students learn language serves to identify questions related to worldview and ideology. Additionally, these disputes illustrate how questions of literacy enter political discussions and often place teachers in

positions that symbolize a particular view of the dispute, centering debates in the sphere of public education. Involving literacy teachers in these societal debates requires educators to defend theoretical and instructional choices (Roy, 2005). Roy (2005), for example, wrote these debates take place in two domains, “constructivism and realism,” and “pedagogic off-shoots . . . in the contrast between ‘whole language’ and ‘phonics’” (p. 99). These debates have shown that language learning enters the political and ideological sphere, and ELA teachers should be familiar with general historical frames impacting individual curricular decisions.

Gee (2015) identified the argument between ideas of traditional literacy and sociocultural approaches as a question of whether the practice of literacy is constructed “in the individual person rather than in society” (p. 30). To put this argument another way, “literacy is not primarily a mental ability, but a cover-term for a variety of different sociocultural practices” (Gee, 2015, p. 45). The reason this distinction of where literacy takes place matters is because it requires asking how meaning is made or created. Traditional literacy understands meaning to exist as an act of “interpretation” (Gee, 2015, p. 46) by the individual. Sociocultural approaches, as Gee (2015) noted:

> Turn literacy on its head . . . and refer crucially to the social institutions or social groups that have these practices, rather than to the practices themselves . . . The practices of such social groups are never just literacy practices. They also involve ways of talking, interacting, thinking, valuing and believing. (p. 49)

What follows this reconceptualization of the idea of traditional literacy is a group of literacy practices and its components, such as writing, are understood to be expressly ideological and never neutral (Gee, 2015; Janks, 2009, 2010; Lewis et al., 2007; Lewison et al., 2015; Scherff, 2012; B. Street, 2003). Traditional literacy counters a different

argument; namely, how meaning is made or created between those of privileged class (Gee, 2015). Gee (2015) concluded earlier debates about literacy were fundamentally questions of whether the masses, if provided skills of literacy, would assimilate or revolt. More recently, this question "has become a highly stratified social ranking based not on literacy *per se* but on the degree to which one controls a certain type of school-based literacy" (Gee, 2015, p. 84). This is why, in the introduction to this section, the argument was made that ELA teachers would benefit from historical background around the construction of literacy. Researchers such as Gee (2015) and B. Street (2003) identified schools as a distinct place where these societal questions of control take place. For Gee (2015), the more current debates are not even about literacy, but are more appropriately seen as questions "masking deeper and more complex social problems" (p. 31). Again, to repeat the main idea, literacies are deeply ideological and embedded in the social sphere for these theorists, and they consider the practice to encompass much more than just writing and reading; hence, the pluralization of the term (Carter, 2006; Gee, 2015; B. Street, 2003).

In addition to encompassing ideology and politics, ethics are also significant in this expanded view of the domain of literacies. The plural is used in "recognition of multiple literacies, varying according to time and space, but also contested in relations of power" (B. Street, 2003, p. 77). Gee (2015) tied the expanded sociocultural view of literacy, which informed this research, to an ethical principle. By identifying a "conceptual principle governing ethical human discourse" (Gee, 2015, p. 22), the author

argued an ethical rationale makes expanding the conception of traditional literacy an imperative, and it must be made explicit. Gee (2015) warned, in the event if:

> A theory I hold gives me or people like me (however this is defined) an advantage over other people or other groups of people, then my continuing to hold this theory in a tacit and/or non-primary way is unethical. I have an ethical obligation to explicate my theory, make it overt, [and] consider what socially contested terms ought to mean. (p. 22)

Although terms such as "literacy" and "literacies" are still used to identify aspects of language learning, scholars within the field work to be explicit about terminologies and address critical aspects of the definitions used within such scholarship. To maintain coherence and the most direct mediation of information, this study used the terms literacies, traditional literacies, and sociocultural literacies in reference to these theoretical frameworks and other theorists within similar sociocultural constructs. Theoretical schools of sociocultural literacy include new literacies for the work of Gee and B. Street (2003), which also include terms such as critical literacy theory (CLT), multiliteracies/new literacies (Handsfield, 2016), as and Moje and Lewis's (2007) term "critical sociocultural theory," which was later adopted by Lewis et al. (2007) in their work. Before moving on, the next section briefly discusses some of the more common schools of thought within sociocultural literacies, as the researcher recognizes the audience of this study might have different levels of exposure to any number of these associated terms.

Additional Constructions of Literacy as a Social Practice

The purpose of this brief discussion of additional theoretical schools of sociocultural literacy is to highlight commonalities among terms often used in the field.

By briefly summarizing features of additional terminology common to the field of sociocultural literacy, the researcher sought to be inclusive so the rationale of using a single term is more clearly understood. Handsfield's (2016) use of the term "social constructionism," for example, is evidence of these overlapping similarities.

Handsfield's (2016) book, *Literacy Theory as Practice*, was written to make connections between literacy theories and a K–12 audience. Because their work was for an audience of K–12 practitioners, who were the focus of this study, their summary of the features of socially constructed literacy practices is helpful. Handsfield grouped several related theories under a social constructionism umbrella by relating them to critical social science and poststructuralism; Hyland (2016) also shared this view. Although Handsfield explained their rationale for using the term social constructionism, it was only used here briefly while discussing this researcher. Handsfield (2016) outlined the general features of the social constructionism schools of thought:

- They expect different people to interpret the same phenomena, events, or texts differently,
- View knowledge as dependent on knowers and their experiences,
- Seek to explain *why* some understandings are valued or deemed more coherent than others,
- Attempt to make the familiar strange aby challenging taken-for-granted understandings about the world. (p. 75)

CLT also centers the social environment. CLT theorists believe it is the text that fuses interlocutors, "where readers and writers meet to jointly create meanings" (Hyland, 2016, p. 24). The idea of jointly creating meaning is informed by Vygotsky's (1978, as cited by Handsfield, 2016) concept of semiotic mediation, which Handsfield (2016) described as happening when "learners engage in socially mediated activity with others,

they appropriate new knowledge and ways of speaking relevant to the specific cultural activities of fields into which they are being apprenticed" (p. 89). What this sentiment means is different spaces of learning can be in this view similar to different conversations, and their living construction in-the-world have different ways of being, just like different combinations of students and teacher. This construction is similar to Gee's (2015) idea of Discourses.

Though brief, the purpose of this discussion served to support nontheoretically immersed readers of the study so terms such as CLT and social constructionism are recognized and understood as related to terminology the researcher selected for this study.

Discourses

The previous section reviewed the construct of traditional literacy and the move to the concept of sociocultural literacies. The way ideology, politics, and ethics function within the sociocultural literacy construct were also established. The question this section sought to address is how the idea of capital D "Discourses" functions when literacy is no longer limited to reading and writing (Carter, 2006). The discussion of Discourses is not just about terminology; it identifies issues related to sites where questions of literacy and power are contested—the spaces of schooling and formal education.

When literacy no longer takes place "inside people's heads" (Gee, 2015, p. 2), the question follows of where it does take place. For Gee (2015), this question is answered by the construct of Discourses, defined as:

> Ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking and, often, reading and writing that are accepted as instantiations of particular identities (or

> "kinds of people," see Hacking 1986, 1994) by specific groups, whether one is being a lawyer of a certain sort, a biker of a certain sort, a business person of a certain sort . . . They are ways of "being in the world." They are forms of life. They are socially situated identities. (p. 4)

The Discourse communities Gee identified are, for Moje and Lewis (2007), where types of learning are "situated" (p. 16) or "embedded" (p. 16), which the authors contended means that the process of learning, because of access, is "mired in power relations" (p. 17). Put a different way: if learning takes place over a complex and changing set of sites (e.g., different schools in a large urban school district), who is able to access these sites of learning Discourses matters. Examples Moje and Lewis (2007) listed that impact access include "expertise (newcomer versus oldtimer) . . . race, gender, sexual orientation, or economic status" (p. 17). Carter (2006) explained power relations slightly differently, as a move from "universal standards" (p. 101). Carter's view means rules or justifications that apply to one Discourse might not follow to another; for example, in a reflection of Discourses of experience and power, Rahman et al. (2017) stated:

> Schools with high-poverty and high-minority student populations . . . research consistently shows that these schools tend to have teachers with temporary certification, with fewer years of teaching experience, and who teach in fields in which they are not necessarily certified. (p. 2)

What this evidence means in practical terms in relation to the idea of Discourses (Gee, 2015) is students in schools with different levels of preparation can constitute different Discourses. This notion is similar to what Moje and Lewis (2015) identified earlier. Another example of when a single secondary school might identify different Discourses occurs when students write under different sets of rules in science and history courses than those of ELA classes (Galbraith, 2015; Moje, 2008).

The way the idea of Discourses related to this study was the participating teachers are members of several Discourse communities, which included their respective schools and school cultures. Additional Discourse communities might include school-based learning teams or professional responsibilities. For purposes of the study, the Discourse community of focus was the teachers' participation with Pharos Young Writers Workshop (Pharos; a pseudonym), the professional organization all four teachers have partnered with. As this section demonstrates, the teachers' participation and collaboration with Pharos constitutes a "situated" and "embedded" Discourse within these educators' teaching practices (Moje & Lewis, 2007). Similarly, the teachers cross into other types of Discourses as well, which features as an important understanding of how the study was constructed. This topic is addressed at greater length in Chapter 3.

Having introduced concepts related to sociocultural literacies and their relationship to the idea of Discourses (Galbraith, 2015; Gee, 2015; Janks, 2009, 2010; Lewis et al., 2007; Lewison et al., 2015; Moje, 2008; Moje & Lewis, 2007; Scherff, 2012; B. Street, 2003), discussion of research literature now turns to how theories and ideas about writing are located within practices of sociocultural literacy.

Writing as a General Practice

Writing is a vast discipline that has a "complex, multifaceted nature [which] constantly evades adequate description and explanation" (Hyland, 2016, p. xii). Using a structure delineated by Hyland (2016), this section first discusses background information on how writing has been approached within academic disciplines. This overview is important to better understand critiques of the constraints and limited

perspectives used in secondary writing instruction approaches in K–12 public schools. The overview also provides an understanding of how the practice of writing follows a trajectory of conceptual changes, similar to those that occur and subsequently affect traditional literacy. The section also addresses the conceptual "rift" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 242) of where research and teacher instruction originates for teachers in K–12 schools. This rift frames a challenge to the cohesiveness of the project of writing instruction in K–12 schooling.

Hyland: Theoretical Organization of the Structures of Writing

Hyland's (2016) foundational principle for organizing writing theories is through which perspective writing is understood. The frame of reference from which Hyland approached writing begins with the following question: Is it the text itself, the mind or intention of the writer, or the reader in relationship with a particular setting that has primacy? Hyland (2016) suggested the initial overview is "a map of the territory which picks out the main landmarks" (p. 3). They explained three approaches as "theories that are mainly concerned with texts, with writers and with readers" (Hyland, 2016, p. 3), each with subareas that more comprehensively organize the way in which writing is viewed. The way each of these theoretical areas differ, according to Hyland, is by what type of interpretive agency is used in the multifaceted process of communication writing produces. Hyland was clear about his positionality and lack of neutrality, and gave literature-based assessments of each of the different outlined perspectives. When discussing the theory that views "texts as objects" (Hyland, 2016, p. x), for example, Hyland (2016) identified this approach as viewing text as "disembodied" (p. 4) and

"writers are passive" (p. 4), clearly outlining the philosophical consequences of a particular perspective of writing and the understanding it produces. This example also links to the way highlighted perspectives inform research and discussion about school-based writing practices, with critiques of school-based writing, notably from Yagelski (2012), who used similar language of "writing as procedure" (p. 189).

Text Oriented Writing. The first view, text oriented understandings, encapsulate ways of looking at texts as objects-in-themselves, "independently of particular contexts" (Hyland, 2016, p. 4). This view reflects the lineage resulting from the work of Chomsky (2000, as cited by Hyland, 2016, p. 4) and what is termed transformational grammar. This school of thought sees texts as rules and structures with the grammar and words-as-symbols as sufficient for understanding (Hyland, 2016). In this view, ideas for writing improvement are developed through studies such as White's (2007, as cited in Hyland, 2016) measuring of the increased use of morphemes. This is text as rules. One consequence regarding this view of writing is there is little relationship involved in the work; writing is often assessed by the extent to which rules are followed, and meaning is conveyed according to grammatical conventions. This view of writing is mechanical and to some degree approximates treating "persons as things" (Freire, 1970/2018; Gillen, 2014).

Writer Oriented Writing. Writer oriented understanding theories continue to be a component of schooling (Hyland, 2016). Writer oriented understanding is a set of ideas viewing writing from the perspective of the producer of text. The expressivist school of writing equated to "personal development" (Hyland, 2016, p. 12) falls under this

umbrella. Elbow (1998, as cited in Hyland, 2016) is known for establishing models behind this process approach. This view of writing is the archetypical view of the creative writer, seen to some as a “project to preserve and reproduce the figure of the author, an independent, self-creative, self-expressive subjectivity” (Bartholomae, 1995, p. 65).

The process writing approach played a strong role in this study because of its influence on some secondary writing teachers. Also influential in this group of writer-centered ideas was writing as a cognitive process. There is growing information regarding the multiple complex ways writing works cognitively in the brain; for example, Kellogg (2008) noted:

> Learning how to compose an effective extended text . . . should be conceived as a task similar to acquiring expertise in related culturally acquired domains . . . it is similar to learning how to play chess - which is another planning intensive task . . . in its demands on thinking and memory. (p. 2)

A discussion on cognitive tasks for adolescent writers is reviewed later in this section by focusing on writing teachers and what they should know.

Writing as Social Interaction and Critical Discourse Analysis. The third view of writing—as primarily social interaction—differs from Hyland’s (2016) other two models in that it does not hold meaning in itself (i.e., text centered model), nor does intact understanding reside in an author’s mind (i.e., process model). Rather, this view is “a joint endeavour between writers and readers, co constructed through the active understanding of rhetorical situations and the likely responses of readers” (Hyland, 2016, p. 23). Hyland's (2016) terminology of “joint endeavour,” “co constructed,” “active understanding,” “situation,” and “responses” (p. 23) is language indicative of participation and collaboration. Unlike the writer oriented understanding, this model does

not locate interpretation as solely constructed by the reader, but as a collaborative creation which includes the author, text, and reader, in addition to the environment itself. Hyland (2016) credited Nystrand as one of the developers of this orientation, which requires negotiations, as "written communication is predicated on what the writer/reader each assumes the other will do/has done" (p. 22).

This final reader oriented group closes with critical discourse analysis (CDA), which as a theory comprises many facets of the previous discussion of sociocultural literacies (Hyland, 2016). These facets include, for example, (a) writing as social interaction, (b) ideas about social construction, and (c) writing as a Discourse community (Hyland, 2016). Heading the section "Writing as Power and Ideology" gives focus to the epistemological assumptions for this theoretical view. This theoretical lens presupposes a particular understanding of the world, as Hyland (2016) described:

> That the interests, values and power relations in any institutional and sociohistorical context are found in the ways that people use language . . . *ideology* is important because it is concerned with how individuals experience the world and how these experiences are, in turn, reproduced through their writing. (p. 28)

This connection is important for the present study because of the corresponding ideas that "any act of writing, or of teaching writing, is embedded in ideological assumptions" (Hyland, 2016, p. 29). According to this view, teachers in schools begin the teaching of writing with a number of beliefs and assumptions that are then carried over into their pedagogy, classrooms, and teaching sites. These assumptions then foster interactions that include the prevailing strength of dominant discourses, the situation of the experience itself, and all participants, in addition to the "personal and social experiences which

cross-cut what we write" (Hyland, 2016, p. 29). The view of teaching as ideological reinforces and expands on ideas presented earlier in this section about sociocultural literacies. Hyland's (2016) construct of sociocultural literacies further develops the scope of where meaning is created in a sociocultural contexts. This construct especially includes teachers' "ideological assumptions" (Hyland, 2016, p. 29) and "beliefs" (Hyland, 2016, p. 29), meaning ideas teachers have about the teaching of writing are formulated not only by teacher training or professional development, but by myriad sociocultural influences experienced by ELA instructors.

With this review of writing perspectives, the researcher hoped to convey how conceptions of writing echo and overlap with sociocultural literacy theories. Although writing is a topic within the subject of literacies and Discourses, it is sometimes addressed distinctly with its own vocabulary and practices. The background presented in this section also serves to incorporate into the study key knowledge from composition studies, one major area of influence on the teaching of secondary writing.

Academic Rift: Composition and Educational Psychology

Although Hyland's (2016) text was written for an academic audience of practitioners and lecturers, Coker and Lewis's (2008) review of writing research specifically discussed writing from the perspective of high school practitioners and teacher preparation. Coker and Lewis (2008) argued, for researchers of adolescent writing, there are "stark divisions" (p. 242) in the different academic placement of the analysis of writing. This division, or rift, extends even to "theoretical orientations, methods, professional organizations, and standards" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 242). Such

a rift indicates not only a wide, but deep difference regarding the work of evaluating and structuring writing studies for K–12 educators. Coker and Lewis (2008) divided the camps into the educational psychology and composition studies departments. Principally, this division influences methodologies of research; educational psychologists focus more on quantitative methods and younger grades, and composition scholars housed within English departments typically investigate issues at higher secondary grades and college work (Coker & Lewis, 2008).

According to Coker and Lewis (2008), this split is important because it affects the practical, pedagogical needs of K–12 teachers. Without a unified focus, teachers of writing, especially those new to the profession, must navigate theoretical differences and distinctions without a complete understanding of the philosophical commitments of either group. Depending on educational background (including teaching licensure), and curricular materials at the district level, these distinctions can be obscured for educators. Coker and Lewis (2008) were explicit about this concern, warning, "The academic discussions within, and occasionally across, the communities of writing researchers may not inform the preparation and professional development of middle and high school teachers" (p. 243).

According to existing research on writing instruction, what this rift can mean in practice for the English teacher is there is consistent separation between discussion of the writing process (i.e., the how) and the artifact (i.e., the what or finished product; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Lammers & Marsh, 2018; Lopez, 2011; Scherff & Piazza, 2005; Yagelski, 20012). This separation of where writing research originates was introduced

earlier in the study via National Writing Project and Nagin's (2006) distinction of "teaching writing as product" (p. 21) and "writing as process" (p. 21). As identified in the research, one primary cause for the lack of change in the teaching of writing, in addition to structural issues related to accountability (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009), is how schools of education approach preservice teacher development (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008; National Writing Project and Nagin 2006; Troia & Graham, 2016; Wahleithner, 2018; Yagelski, 2012).

In classroom practice, this division between process and completed artifacts serves to forestall questions about how writing products accept standard notions of literacy; Wahleithner (2018) described this issue as "the void of experience from years spent preparing students for multiple-choice items about writing" (p. 7). Such confusion and lack of coherence "across the communities of writing researchers" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 243) allows more room for a mechanical view of the teaching of writing, where getting to the appropriate product is more important than the student's relationship to the process of writing and forming ideas. Yagelski (2012) called the view of teaching writing with a focus on product "a process of textual production" (p. 190).

The consequence of focusing research solely on the delivery of a type of writing instruction—namely, focusing on a narrow type of product—is students will not produce writing that challenges dominant points of view, because the instruction itself functions within the current value systems in education. This ideological aspect is related to sociocultural literacies and Discourses (Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2015; Janks, 2009, 2010; Lewison et al., 2015; Moje & Lewis, 2007; B. Street, 2003). The example of the

consequences of separating writing as a practice and product produced explains a central issue discussed in the research. Writing, as conceived by sociocultural literacies and critical discourse analysis, views writing ideologically, and "links language to the activities which surround it, focusing on how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written texts in communities, schools and classrooms. Discourse is thus a mediator of social life" (Hyland, 2016, p. 27). Viewing writing as ideological includes the teacher and their methods of teaching writing in secondary schools.

This section addressed how research and knowledge related to writing instruction is dispersed through a network of three institutional domain—those of educational psychology, composition studies, and teacher education. These research findings support the difficulty of providing practicing teachers with existing information about improving the teaching of writing. In addition to information about how "broad dissemination remains a critical challenge" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 5) of getting research information to teachers, the section also discussed how the continuing dynamic of writing products valued over process (Hillocks, 2008) reinforces existing, dehumanizing ideologies without challenging dominant Discourses, especially in school-based writing (Gee, 2015; Janks, 2009, 2010; Lewison et al., 2015, Moje & Lewis, 2007; B. Street 2003).

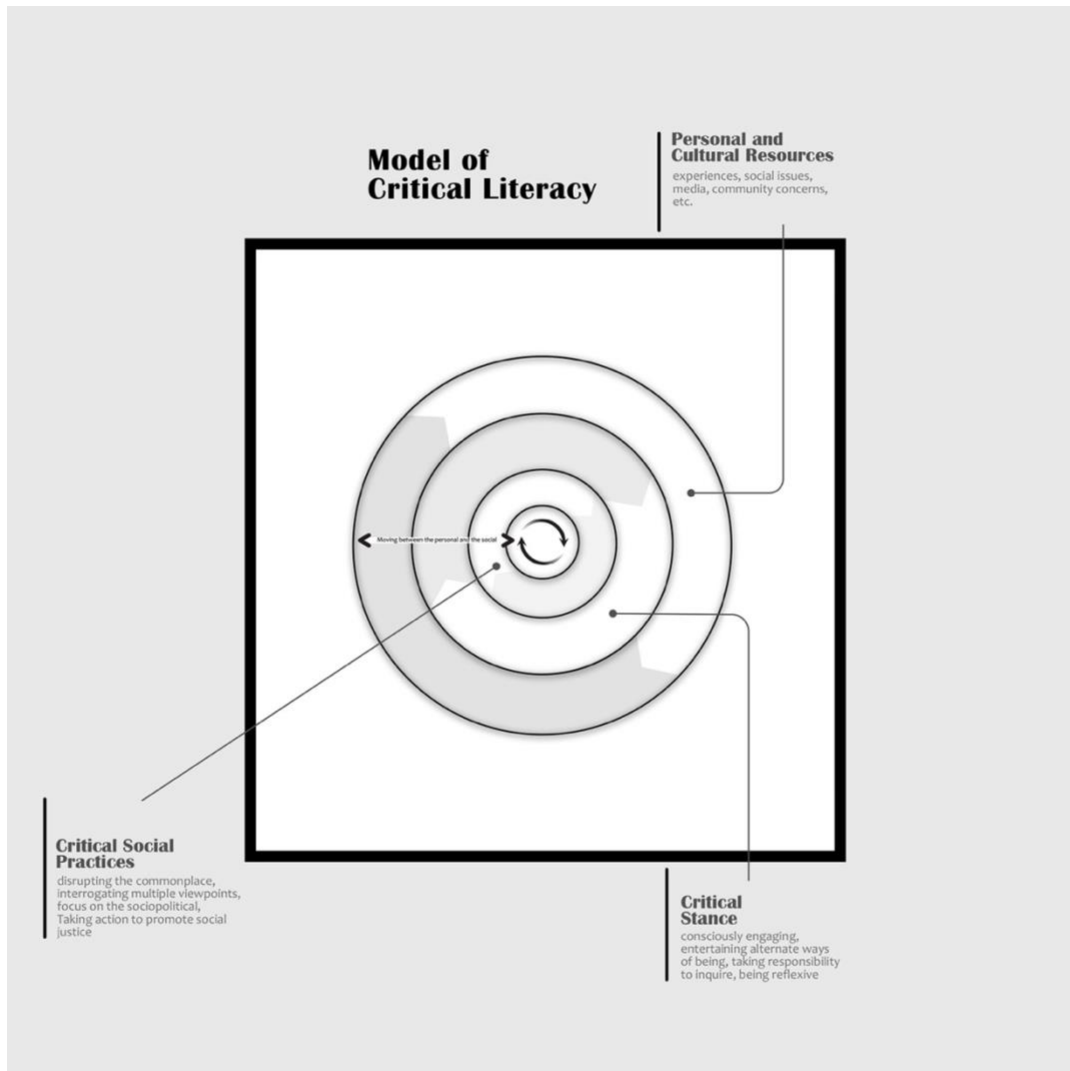
Sociological Writing and Critical Theories

Within the sphere of sociocultural literacies are frameworks that more explicitly address questions of critical theories and praxis, grouped together as critical literacy

constructs. In a book geared for teachers in the classroom, Lewison et al. (2015) listed examples of four frameworks that occur in the literature: "[(a)] Luke and Freebody's (1997) four-resource model, [(b)] Shannon's (1995) critical literacy framework, [(c)] Janks's (2002, 2010) synthesis model, and [(d)] the four dimensions of critical literacy" (p. xxvii). Lewison et al. (2015) explained the design of their instructional model of critical literacy (see Figure 2.1), as a response to not finding other models "sufficient in representing the complexity of what it means to implement critical literacy in elementary and middle school classrooms" (p. xxvii). With the use of "instruction" in the title of their model, the authors' explained their text is for teachers work in the classroom (Lewison et al., 2015). Figure 2.1 provides a visual overview of this model.

Figure 2.1

Lewison et al.'s Instructional Model of Critical Literacy



Note. Adapted from "Instructional Model of Critical Literacy," by M. Lewison, C. M. Leland, and J. C. Harste, 2015, *Creating Critical Classrooms: Reading and Writing With an Edge*, p. 6. Copyright 2015, Routledge.

Two models listed by Lewison et al. (2015) were used as frameworks for the study, and are introduced next. Janks's (2009, 2010) model is presented first, and was used as the foundation for the study research questions. Janks (2010) presented their

perspective as not taking a side in the previously discussed literacy debate, instead describing their book as one that "works against the dividing practices in the field" (p. xiv). Janks's (2009, 2010) decision to situate their framework as an antithesis to division aligned with the goal of the researcher not to negate teachers' necessity to work with school-based curriculum, especially for a study that investigated teachers-in-practice. The selection of Janks's (2009, 2010) model was further informed and supported by the researcher's development of a chart cross-examining Janks's four domains in relation to literature from other critical literacy theorists (see Appendix A). The second model used in the study, Lewison et al.'s (2015) instructional model of critical literacy, is introduced following Janks's (2009, 2010) model. This framework was integrated by the researcher due to the "emergent" (Peoples, 2021, p. 58) process of examining data. The process of integrating this second model of critical literacy is explained in greater detail in Chapter 3.

Janks's Interdependent Model of Critical Literacy

Janks's (2009) discussion of their critical literacy model also begins with a personal story, noted earlier in the study as a common feature of critical analysis. The theory of critical literacy as outlined by Janks (2009) is specifically action oriented and focused on "remaking the word" (p. 128). Like Shor (1999), Janks explicitly connected critical literacy to the ideas of Freire (1970/2018) and social action that "works with questions of control, identity, positioning, standard languages, dominant genres and access" (Janks, 2009, p. 129). Janks focused on remaking texts, which could be written texts or social constructions of identity. Following a critical analysis (i.e., deconstruction)

of a text, the remaking process is a way of reimagining existing constructs (Janks, 2009); this process positions the work as a practice of social justice by not only dismantling constructs, but by also working to recreate new possibilities. Janks (2009) developed the interdependent model for critical literacy, which served as a foundation for interview questions with study subjects. Each of the four domains (i.e., power, access, diversity and design) are now reviewed so as to give context regarding their features. Each feature is interdependent and does not act in isolation (Janks, 2009).

Design

Janks (2009) used the term design as "the concept used to refer to multimodal text production" (p. 130). This term has the function of more versatility than the term write, and is able to be used across different types of textual production (Janks, 2009). Examples Janks gave for greater inclusiveness of the term are students who design texts with word processing functions or students who design text in digital spaces; for example, blogs.

Power

In Janks's (2009) model, power is related to position and perspective. Positionalities related to power include being the reader of text, in addition to how an author situates themselves through language. Language use makes assumptions, Janks explained, and gave the example of the word "motives" having a negative connotation.

Access

Who has access in different situations is context dependent, and this includes access to different types of language (Janks, 2009). For Janks (2009), this category

includes linguistic difference and hegemony of the English language. Education is a particular area of linguistic dominance, and Janks cautioned, for access to be realized, significant action must take place for greater inclusivity.

Diversity

Diversity addresses the idea that communities have different perspectives regarding the value of literacies. The linguistic practices of those who are privileged have their practices valued more than those less privileged. Heath (1983, as cited by Janks, 2009) found students could attend the same school with "mainstream language values" (p. 132), but "different communities have different 'ways with words' resulting in different usage" (p. 132). Janks' (2009, 2010) framework using these terms became one of the two frameworks in the analysis of study data, with terminology informing the areas of inquiry when interviewing research subjects.

Instructional Model of Critical Literacy

The purpose of this overview of the instructional model of critical literacy (Lewison et al., 2015) meant to introduce the structural frame of the theoretical model. A longer, additional overview of the dimension of Lewison et al.'s (2015) "critical stance," which the authors call the "core" (p. xxi) of their model, is presented in Chapter 4. The second section of Chapter 4 is also where justification for incorporating the framework is provided, along with an elaboration of the elements of critical stance.

The model Lewison et al. (2015) called the instructional model of critical literacy is presented in Figure 2.1. The authors' reasoning for creating an additional model of critical literacy is that "none was sufficient in representing the complexity of what it

means to implement critical literacy" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. xxvii). The word implement is critical when comparing and contrasting Lewison et al.'s (2015) model with the other critical literacy framework informing the study (Janks, 2009, 2010). Though not exclusionary, Janks's (2009, 2010) model is more curricular focused, meaning products of instruction are of greater focus. Lewison et al.'s (2015) model is more pedagogically oriented, meaning the actions and choices of the teacher—and the implementation they address—is of greater focus in this model. The focus on how pedagogical choices are implemented is especially true of the "critical stance" element discussed in Chapter 4.

Moving inward from the outer square, the model addresses four elements of their instructional model of critical literacy, all of which interact together (see Figure 2.1). The model is situated in specific contexts, which is the box that binds the ring of the model. The authors explained this situatedness is particularly meant to establish an understanding that there are a wide range of schooling contexts where teachers work, and "creating critical curricula is not easy" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. xxxii). Personal and Cultural Resources, the outer ring of the circle, includes "what students and teachers draw on to create the content of the curriculum" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. xxviii; see Figure 2.1). Another way personal and cultural resources are explained by Lewison et al. (2015) is these are aspects of students' and teachers' lives outside of school. Critical Social Practices, the next ring, is defined as "social practices in which students and teachers engage as they create critical curricula" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. xxix), including sociopolitical issues and issues of social justice (see Figure 2.1). Critical stance, at the center, is specifically teacher related. These stances are the "attitudes and dispositions"

(Lewison et al., 2015, p. xxxi) of teachers as they enact aspects of critical literacy and become critically literate. Lewison et al. (2015) argued teachers cannot just enact critical literacy, but both a personal practice of critical literacy—and critical literacy actions in the classroom—are necessary for the full dimension of critical literacy to be realized.

Examples of Critical Writing Pedagogies

The purpose of this section is to present examples from literature about three methods of critical writing practiced in secondary schools. This information supported the discussion of practices with study participants and informed questions about teaching practices.

Pedagogical Beliefs of the National Writing Project

The National Writing Project (NWP) is a nationwide, decentralized group of educators that works from a learning community perspective, wherein groups of teachers work together to expand learning about the teaching of writing (Kaplan, 2008). Another founding tenet of the NWP is the idea that "teachers learn best when they are taught by practicing teachers" (Kaplan, 2008, p. 337); however, not all teachers of writing have access to the intensive 5-week summer training the NWP has established as its primary focus (Wood & Lieberman, 2000), which Wahleithner (2018) also questioned. As the work of the NWP has shown (Kaplan, 2008; Whyte et al., 2007; Wood & Lieberman, 2000), much can be learned from individual teachers sharing stories of their expertise. Because writing "is both an art and a craft" (Kaplan, 2008, p. 339), stories of the individual expertise of writing teachers at the site level can be difficult to identify, losing important lived experience. Exploring individual lived experiences of writing with other

colleagues could especially benefit new teachers, who "may begin teaching without the breadth and depth of understanding needed to carry out effective writing instruction" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 243). The researcher sought to identify common processes experienced writing teachers engage in that promote relational writing practices that humanize both students and teacher, which NWP teachers promote.

Hip Hop Literacies and Writing Practices

Morrell and Duncan-Andrade (2002) suggested this pedagogical focus can be used to "forge a common and critical discourse . . . centered upon the lives of the students, yet transcend[s] the racial divide and allow[s] us to tap into students' lives in ways that promote academic literacy and critical consciousness" (p. 88). After citing troubling statistics about Black and Hispanic youth and poverty, Howard (2015) wrote, "Children living in poverty are not poverty stricken when it comes to intellectual ability, work ethic, resilience, survival skills, and determination" (p. xiii). In the state where the study took place, the percentage of Black and Hispanic students who met or exceeded expectations on the State 2018 Measures of Academic Success exam was only 25%, compared to 50% for White students (Campbell, 2018). These statistics point not only to differences in test-based achievement measures, but also speak to a divide in a connection to schooling itself.

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy

An additional framework that supports critical writing practice, particularly with regard to instruction and analysis of student writing, is culturally responsive teaching, especially as outlined by Gay (2013). Two aspects of what Gay (2013) outlined as

requisites for culturally responsive teaching can inform analysis of textual themes in students' writing, particularly as they explore various aspects of their identities in addition to construction of curricular tasks. Gay (2013) first identified "centering culture and difference in the teaching process" (p. 48 in addition to "establishing pedagogical connections between culturally responsive teaching and subjects and skills routinely taught in schools" (p. 48) as critical to the project of culturally responsive teaching and actions that must be taken intentionally. For Gay (2013), centering culture and difference means "realities and possibilities . . . belief that teaching to and through cultural diversity is a humanistic, realistic, normative, and transformative endeavor" (p. 61). Examples of how this centering can be actualized in the teaching of writing include specifically asking students to reflect on both positive and negative experiences of their diversity, and how it has shaped different facets of their adolescence. Students can learn how to critique implicit and explicit values that play both internal and external roles in their lives through writing exercises. Pedagogical connections can be fostered by working with an expanded definition of literacy that includes "cultural competences based in the heritages, families, and communities of different ethnic groups" (Gay, 2013, p. 65). Writing is a medium through which to share these understandings and convey their importance through personal narrative.

Research of Writing in Secondary Schools

This first section of the literature review presented introductory evidence of two systemic influences affecting the features and quality of secondary writing research. The first influence is a focus on standards and accountability (Coker & Lewis, 2008;

Gallagher, 2006; Graham, 2019; Lewison et al., 2015; Wahleithner, 2018). The second influence is a theoretical and departmental separation regarding research viewpoints split between educational psychology and composition studies, which may cause subject confusion (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008). A third major influence on the teaching of secondary writing relates to the education and training of teachers. This category of research findings indicated teacher preparation programs poorly prepare preservice teachers with the expertise needed to teach writing (Wahleithner, 2018). Wahleithner (2018) wrote:

> Opportunities to develop knowledge of writing instruction vary widely, with many preservice programs providing little preparation at all. Many inservice ELA teachers report receiving only adequate preparation at best (Kiuhara et al., 2009) which is not surprising considering the ways writing gets addressed in preservice programs, if it is explicitly addressed at all (Hochstetler, 2007; Thomas, 2000). Few states require courses focused solely on writing instruction (Nagin, 2006), leading most programs to embed attention to writing within methods courses (Totten, 2005). (p. 6)

In addition to the particulars Wahleithner (2018) listed of how teacher preparation programs organize their curricular programs, Gee (2015) pointed to a historically based ideological dominance situated in Marxist ideas of production and consumption, saying:

> Societies have often been set up to ensure elites and more privileged people produce ideas and knowledge . . . while the masses are supposed to primarily follow, work and consume. This is why, across history and even today, reading (a form of consumption) is far more prevalent than is writing (a form of production). (p. 10)

This second section of the literature review, moving from a broader perspective of literacies, focuses on three strands of influence on the pedagogy of writing teachers and their classroom teachings.

First, this section begins with an overview of literature regarding the standards movement and resulting implementation of direct assessment of writing. The section accounts what many K–12 public school teachers—though mostly math and ELA subject teachers—must navigate in their respective districts, which Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) called "tightly controlled accountability systems" (p. 2). The researcher used the word navigate to indicate that implementation and demands to adhere to such systems can differ between districts and states. There are also systems that differ according to economic factors of the students, because the resulting measurements are provided as test scores. The term navigate also alludes to how departments and individuals apply these demands in particular settings.

Following discussion of standards and testing and their influence on what is prioritized in secondary writing instruction, the literature review details one of two strains of influence regarding writing instruction—that of empirical research, which is primarily (but not exclusively) focused in educational psychology departments. In this section, the researcher identified and analyzed the most extensively discussed and cited empirically-driven research, focusing on the last 20 years of studies. Because the focus of this research study was not on the full range of the types of writing practices that take place across all secondary schools, under the many various contexts of instruction, the review of empirical writing research is not meant to be comprehensive. Instead, the review's purpose is to inform the audience of influential and commonly discussed studies in an analysis of the literature, with the goal of "identifying issues in a field" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 26), as introduced at the beginning of this literature review. The

primary method of analysis for selecting what would be included is the prevalence of "citation overlap" (Butin, 2010, p. 67).

Following the overview of major empirical studies, the next section of the literature review addresses the second theoretical strand of research informing the teaching of secondary writing—an analysis of research related to composition studies. In a further example of the research dialogue between educational psychology and composition, Graham and Perin (2007a) explained the process approach to writing instruction creates "considerable controversy . . . there is no universally agreed on definition" (p. 450). The process approach is aligned with composition studies, and this section addresses the overarching philosophy of this group of modalities without falsely reducing or simplifying a group of approaches that purposely—because of philosophical assumptions both about learning and empiricism—do not have a single systemic procedure or strategy for its pedagogical execution.

Finally, this section of the literature review closes with a section addressing literature and studies related to teacher education; namely, how preservice teachers are prepared for classroom teaching. In addition to literature on teacher preparation, the section reviews where there is agreement among different viewpoints in the literature about what writing teachers should know about the teaching of writing as educators in classrooms.

Standards and Secondary Writing

Background on educational standards and their role in curricular choices by teachers is important to understand when discussing public school achievement for the

2020–2021 school year, the year this study took place. Researchers have also identified testing-aligned standards as a primary driver of writing instruction in secondary schools (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Hillocks, 2008; Lewison et al., 2015; Wahleithner, 2018). After the end of a previous standards movement in 1995 (Ravitch, 2010), the current national standards stage is considered to have begun with George W. Bush's No Child Left Behind Act, which was signed into law in 2002 (Ravitch, 2010).

The Common Core State Standards (CCSS; National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, 2010) began to replace the state-by-state standards beginning in 2010 with its formal national adoption included as part of the reauthorization of the Every Student Succeeds Act in 2015. It is important to distinguish that, although school accountability measures are linked with state standards (National Center on Educational Outcomes, n.d.; Spurrier et al., 2020), there are different types of standards that can guide ELA professionals. The goal of this section is to broadly review how CCSS influence the teaching of writing in schools, and to contrast two visions of ELA standards—specifically those of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) and the CCSS.

Influence of Standards and Testing on Writing Curriculum

Research on writing instruction is deeply intertwined with prevailing sociocultural and political demands regarding school accountability and student achievement (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Graham, 2019; Lacina & Block, 2012; Lewison et al., 2015; Scherff & Piazza, 2005; Troia & Graham, 2016; Wahleithner, 2018; Yagelski, 2012). What this means is a good portion of what is researched regarding K–12 writing instruction is limited by what is applicable to a particular systemic focus. Support for

such a viewpoint is made evident by a statement from former Secretary of Education, Margaret Spellings, who noted, “What gets measured gets done. Amen” (as cited in Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009, p. 71). Wahleithner (2018) identified “four levels of policy impact the way a teacher teaches: national, state, district, and site” (p. 6), requiring educators to address all levels in their classroom teaching of writing. Although “assessments may exert a stronger effect on teacher behavior because accountability tests have ‘teeth’ and standards are more open to interpretation” (Troia & Graham, 2016, p. 1720), this section addresses standards and tests together, as both are drivers of what Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) called the “accountability emphasis” (p. 9).

Due to increased focus on assessment-oriented outcomes, the way writing is taught in secondary schools is primarily dictated by outcomes, rather than research-based writing pedagogy (Graham, 2019; Hillocks, 2008; Scherff, 2005). In their summary of the trajectory of writing instruction from previous decades, Scherff and Piazza (2005) discussed a shift in the 1990s. Identification of this shift was also supported by B. Street (1993, as cited in Scherff & Piazza, 2005) who wrote, “the sociopolitical context was again shaping what it meant to be literate and what constituted appropriate literacy acts” (p. 273). By “what it means to be literate” (B. Street, 2003, as cited by Scherff & Piazza, 2005, p. 273) the authors indicated moves to more “integrated literacy modes and rich collaborative environments” (Scherff & Piazza, 2005, p. 273) due to school populations changing and becoming more demographically diverse. By 1999, however, all but 12 states had instituted a direct assessment to measure writing (Scherff & Piazza, 2005),

which indicated a shift away from approaching literacies as a more expansive practice. This shift was explored earlier in this chapter when discussing sociocultural literacies.

In practice, not only the standards, but the testing required to monitor progress in relationship to the standards, are what establish the curricular focus of tested subjects. A study by Applebee and Langer (2009, as cited by McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013) suggested the types of writing required for standardized tests can limit the amount of time available for revision and extended writing. Mathematics and ELA were the two subjects with content directly related to testing by NCLB. Each state was required to administer the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP, 2010) every other year in Grades 4 and 8. The schools that did not improve as required were "labeled a school in need of improvement (SINI). It would face a series of increasingly onerous sanctions" (Ravitch, 2010, p. 97). Writing was not a subject tested by the required NAEP, and its diminished importance was made clear to teachers and administrators nationwide. Ravitch (2010) wrote, "Whatever could not be measured did not count" (p. 21), and writing is very hard to measure in a standardized fashion.

In recent years amid implementation of the CCSS, there has been dissent regarding two fundamental premises arguing for standardized testing-based achievement measures. The first premise is the argument that educational scores in the United States are not as low as those promoting testing would claim. Krashen (2014) wrote, "When we control for the effects of poverty, American students rank near the top of the world" (p. 37). Similarly, Ravitch (2014) wrote: "The test scores are not declining, and the test scores are not flat. Test scores are the highest they have ever been since the National

Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) started testing kids in 1970" (p. 155). The second flawed premise critics would point to in the rush to implement the CCSS is there is a relationship between standards and increased student success; as Krashen (2014) noted, "There is no evidence that having national standards and increasing testing have improved student learning in the past" (p. 38).

In an overview of secondary writing, Hillocks (2008) reported on two studies of how writing is taught in secondary schools. Findings from the earlier study included that "writing often served merely as a vehicle to test knowledge of specific content" (Applebee, 1984, as cited by Hillocks, 2008, p. 314). The study also found "the teaching of writing involved little more than the making of assignments" (Applebee, 1981, as cited by Hillocks, 2008, p. 315), with "the amount of time devoted to prewriting activities [amounting] to just over three minutes. That included everything from the time the teacher started introducing the topic until the first student began to write" (Applebee, 1984, as cited by Hillocks, 2008, p. 315). Although Hillocks (2008) indicated no similar study has been done up to that point regarding the teaching of secondary writing, a subsequent study by Hillocks (2002, as cited by Hillocks, 2008) allowed for some comparative findings. The study researched "the impact of state writing tests on the teaching of writing" (Hillocks, 2008, p. 315) in five states. Findings comparing the two studies, which were 20 years apart, included the following: (a) more writing was being done, (b) preparing writing was given more time, (c) audience was a more prominent consideration in writing, and (d) example pieces of writing were used in the teaching of writing (Hillocks, 2008). After examination contrasting the two studies and their findings,

Hillocks (2008) concluded, "In both periods, teachers and curriculum makers assume that the knowledge necessary for effective writing is general knowledge of a few principles that are applicable to all or most writing" (p. 316).

Two Visions of Standards

It is rare to find in the literature an argument against any standards whatsoever; for example, though Yagelski (2012) explained his philosophical disagreement with the outsized focus on standards by educators, he still acknowledged their value, saying, "I want to emphasize that I am not suggesting that we ignore or diminish the importance of writing as a communicative and rhetorical act . . . Students must learn to write effectively for various purposes and audiences" (p. 193). Janks (2009) also expressed the importance of teaching mainstream literacies, writing that students "need access to schooled literacies – to the standard variety of the dominant language, to dominant genres and to the social and rhetorical sophistication needed to write for a range of audiences and purposes" (p. 128). Yagelski (2012) identified the area of disagreement as the difference between what he called "text production" (p. 193) and "the *experience* of writing" (p. 193). For proponents of critical literacy—such as Handsfield (2016), Janks (2009), and Yagelski (2009, 2012), whose discussions of teaching practice address the standards movement of the last 20 years—it is the idea that writing is a "deeply human act that can help us better understand what it means to be human" (Yagelski, 2012, p. 193) that is the area of disagreement with instruction that privileges production of text.

Ryan (2016), in his critique of corporate influence on teaching and public schools, identified standards not instituted by imposition, but by collaboration. He pointed to

standards developed by the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) in association with the International Reading Association (IRA) as an exemplar of democratically established standards. Ryan (2016) explained the criteria, saying: "Authentic standards are student-centered, holistic, and culturally responsive; are research- and community driven, rather than market driven . . . Their standards reflect the democratic, learner-centered pedagogy" (p. 73).

The biggest notable difference between the CCSS and NCTE standards are the number of elements included between the two sets; for example, the writing domain of CCSS in Grade 6 includes 10 individual strands of expectations (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, 2010). In comparison, the NCTE/IRA has 12 standards across all of the K–12 grades. The 12 NCTE standards stay consistent throughout the K–12 grades, suggesting a view of limited but deeper familiarity with the expectations compared with the broader and more graduated expectations of Common Core. For example, the CCSS change each year through Grades 6–8, and then have sets for Grades 9–10 and 11–12 combined. This means an understanding of instructional context for secondary grades might require understanding each of these five sets, along with an introductory set of standards called Anchor Standards (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, 2010).

Unlike the CCSS, the International Reading Association and National Council of Teachers of English *Standards for the English Language Arts* (1996) centered the teacher and student. For example, Standard 3 stated, "The primary purpose of assessment is to improve teaching and learning" (IRA & NTCE, 1996, p. 16). This standard is in direct

contrast to standards assessed by a standardized exam, where the content is not a reflection of specific classroom learning. There are no national or state tests solely aligned with *Standards for the English Language* Arts used to measure school progress (IRA & NTCE, 1996).

The Advanced Placement program, which also includes standards, could be seen by some ELA teachers to have more authenticity than the CCSS. The argument for the greater authenticity of Advanced Placement standards could be that although AP tests are criterion-referenced, the expectations, especially the writing component, are clearly defined through rubrics and allow for personalization by the student to write on a topic of choice (College Board, n.d.). The argument for authenticity of AP writing tasks is strengthened by the purpose of the writing prompts, which simulate types of writing done for college-level work, a specific goal of the AP program.

Empirical Writing Studies

The purpose of this section has been to introduce studies that show how standards tied to assessments influence writing curriculum in K–12 schools. This influence has shown "increasing emphasis on standardized tests continues to narrow the focus of writing instruction" (Yagelski, 2012, p. 189). The section also discussed findings from two studies, 20 years apart, on writing instruction; the first study was by Applebee (1984), followed by Hillocks in 2002 (as cited in Hillocks, 2008). Although key findings found some changes, both studies showed writing instruction lacked nuance and shifting instructional strategies depended on the type of writing being assigned (Hillocks, 2008). Finally, two different philosophical approaches to standards was considered, addressing

how the need for some curricular guidance and uniformity could be addressed without overattachment to inauthentic testing.

Empirical Research and Educational Psychology

For philosophical and methodological reasons discussed earlier in this chapter, Graham (Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2014; Graham et al., 2017; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c) took a somewhat different focus on the teaching of writing.

Graham and Perin Studies

A significant amount of empirically based research about writing in K–12 schools comes from Graham, the Mary Emily Warner Professor of Education at Arizona State University, in addition to associates related to their research. Graham was the principal author of two writing research studies highlighted in this survey of literature. These studies also served as the topic of Coker and Lewis's (2008) review, which analyzed and interpreted findings specifically for a secondary audience. It was Coker and Lewis who situated Graham and Perin's *Writing Next* (2007a) work specifically in the tradition of educational psychology, explaining their approach to research comes from a cognitive and quantitative perspective. Coker and Lewis's conflict regarding methodologies was introduced in more detail earlier in this chapter.

In their analysis, Coker and Lewis (2008) explained the benefit of using a meta-analysis approach when reviewing a "state-of-the-field" (p. 233) study of writing research. In contrast to a literature review (they cited one by Hillocks, 2008) they noted the process used in meta-analysis:

> Gives researchers a systematic method for surveying the efficacy of a given intervention . . . allows researchers to calculate that impact (the effect size) of the

> intervention being studied. Then the effect size . . . can be averaged to yield a measure of the effectiveness of that approach across many studies. (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 236)

In short, Graham and Perin's (2007a) study gave a numerical value to different treatments among the 123 published writings investigated that addressed writing improvements. The metanalysis study by Graham and Perin (2007a; 2007b; 2007c) was the first study of such comprehensiveness since one in 1986 (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007a).

In their principal study, Graham and Perin (2007a) identified 26 separate treatments used with adolescents (Grades 4–12), including: process writing approach, grammar, sentence combining, strategy instruction, prewriting, and peer assistance. In the results section, the strategies were grouped by common features. Process writing findings showed no significant effect, although slight improvements were seen with professional development.

Explicit teaching strategies were "effective across different experimental–control comparisons" (Graham & Perin, 2007a, p. 462). Specifically, the strategies highlighted as showing the most statistical impact included "planning, revising, and/or editing" (Graham & Perin, 2007a, p. 463). Summarizing text was found to have "a strong impact on their ability to write more concise text" (Graham & Perin, 2007a, p. 463). *Scaffolding*, defined as "providing some form of assistance that helps the student carry out one or more processes" (Graham & Perin, 2007a, p. 450), had some positive impact, with the most notable teaching strategies being collaboration (e.g., peer review), and assigning product goals. Throughout their discussion of results, Graham and Perin (2007a) cautioned that

the studies were of various quality, although statistical calculations were used for measurements at different stages to address the significance of these differences.

Coker and Lewis (2008), in their discussion of the meta-analysis, addressed at considerable length what they saw as a limitation to the study, one which might generate considerable reactions:

> A large body of writing research could not be included . . . This constraint will certainly frustrate many teachers and researchers who may view the instructional recommendations in [Graham & Perin, 2007a study] as limited and unrepresentative of the wider body of writing research" (p. 239).

Here, Coker and Lewis (2008) identified existing gaps in how data about writing are collected. These questions related to both the type and amount of data produced by writing studies. The authors also addressed how different research is valued and by whom. Coker and Lewis (2008) pointed to a potential for integration between strategy-specific and process writing methodologies, and cited Pritchard and Honeycutt as supportive of this view.

Graham and Perin (2007b) later extended their meta-analysis with an additional study not included in the original *Writing Next* report. This study included single-subject designs, as well as "qualitative research that examined the practices of teachers or schools judged by either their performance or others as providing effective writing/literacy instruction" (Graham & Perin, 2007b, p. 315). Both extensions of research used similar methodology to their original meta-analysis, with the same requirement—that the studies show improvement in writing quality (Graham & Perin, 2007a). In this follow up, the two principal findings from the *Writing Next* study were supported by reviewing single-subject design data, showing similar strategies of explicit instruction and scaffolding

writing tasks were successful. Strategy instruction yielded the largest effect sizes in the additional study, and especially showed promise for struggling writers (Graham & Perin, 2007b).

Information on struggling writers is a significant point of difference between the original meta-analysis study, where only 23% of the studies focused on this population, and the single-subject design research, where struggling writers comprised the subjects of almost all of these types of studies (Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b). This additional review of teachers and schools who have had success with writing found five qualitative studies with mixed student populations in both type of school and grade levels of students. Even with these differences, however, the researchers found “a very consistent picture of the writing instructional practices of effective teachers” (Graham & Perin, 2007b, p. 324).

Advocating for Broad Research. An additional and related contribution made by Graham and Harris (2014) was to specifically advocate for stronger empirical writing research. This finding is important to address because of the suggestion that a significant amount of research in the field of writing are “of poor quality” (Graham & Harris, 2014, p. 116). To further their point, Graham and Harris (2014) cited the meta-analysis study noted earlier in this section, that “43% of true- and quasi-experiments testing the effectiveness of the process approach to writing instruction involved a no instruction-control condition or a poorly specified comparison condition” (p. 102). While focusing their recommendations on quantitative research using true-experiment, quasi-experiment, and single-subject design, the researchers' explicitly valued the full range of research

informing writing improvement. In their suggestions for future research Graham and Harris (2014) include "qualitative studies of the writing practices of exceptional writing teachers, case studies examining the effectiveness of a specific writing practice . . . interviews with teachers and students about their experiences with a particular writing method" (Graham & Harris, 2014, pp. 96–97), a combination several of which is the focus of the current study. One recommendation relevant to this study stands out; namely, the recommendation that a study should be designed to be "as representative of the real world context as possible" (Graham & Harris, 2014, p. 105).

Process Writing and Composition Studies

Overview

Before the next section, which transitions to a review of what the study consolidated as the process writing approach, it is helpful to address what might be understandable confusion regarding how the Graham and Perin (2007a, 2007b, 2007c) *Writing Next* studies account for this group of practices. This explanation is important for a more nuanced view of writing studies discussed in this review. In explaining treatment categories for their meta-analysis, Graham and Perin (2007a) both combined studies into a process writing approach category; they excluded one group of studies due to "lack of distinctiveness and clarity" (p. 450) and another group due to being "too diverse to form a cogent treatment" (p. 450). When accounting for process writing approach-related studies, Graham and Perin (2007a) identified its differences by explaining, as a methodology, process writing is different than single-task intervention items (e.g., sentence combining), as process writing is a "full writing program" (Graham & Perin,

2007b, p. 318). As researchers, Graham and Perin (2007a, 2007b) seem to honor the theoretical underpinnings of the process writing approach by choosing not to separate what they addressed as a conceptual foundation, which, in the field, supports a variety of processes. In practice, Graham and Perin's (2007a, 2007b, 2007c) studies did exclude process writing as a cohesive writing program, but some of the related individual strategies were included; thus, statements like Dean's (2010) that *Writing Next* "doesn't recognize other practices" (p. xi) needs context. Coker and Lewis (2008) explained, although these choices will "frustrate many researchers" (p. x), the *Writing Next* researchers' "objective was to summarize what is known about the relationship between discrete writing interventions and measurable student outcomes, and it is therefore appropriate that they circumscribed the study as they did" (p. 239). This argument gives helpful context in explaining how the educational psychology and composition studies research divide appears in practice in the work of scholars; for instance, "only 4 percent of the citations in *Writing Next* also appear in Hillocks' (2008) most recent review of secondary writing, even though both reviews target adolescent writing" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 243).

Process Writing Approach

Process writing methodology is driven by practice, so encapsulating it by a single, commonly understood design is challenging (Graham & Perin, 2007a). Dornan et al. (2003) in their introduction, addressed one example of its origins:

> [The text] combines the pedagogies of three instructional approaches to composition: the emphasis on the personal connection from the Expressivists' school of composition, the rhetorical tradition that focuses on the importance of structure, purpose, and audience, and the school of composition that uses writing for social action. (p. 3)

Two criticisms highlighted by Graham and Perin (2007a) about instruction related to the process writing approach involved the amount of free writing and the role of the teacher. In addition to Hillocks (2008), other well-known practitioners of process writing methodology are Graves, Atwell (1998), and supporters of the National Writing Project. Importantly, not all National Writing Project development or literature is solely process writing approach related. Kirby and Liner (1988) influenced the process writing approach with a book, *Inside Out*. Calkins is especially significant in the elementary grades. Highlighting names associated with the process writing approach is commonly done because "there is no universally agreed on definition" (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006; as cited by Graham & Perin, 2007a, p. 449). Associating names with the process writing approach also has the effect of maintaining its connection to writer oriented writing (Hyland, 2016).

The purpose of this review of significant theories related to the process oriented writing approach was to provide contextual background of its main curricular ideas. The process writing approach has been identified as one of two epistemologically different approaches to writing instruction in K–12 schools (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008). As has been made clear in the earlier section related to educational psychology studies, the dividing lines are not always clear or simple; however, it is imperative to understand the differences due to the effect on secondary writing instruction and how

information to teachers is shared (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). One example of a model that informs teachers of "what composition is [and] continues to hold sway" (Hillocks, 2008, p. 312), is the five-paragraph essay.

Discussion of the process writing approach is organized as follows. This section introduces the principal components of the writing process approach and a significant epistemological premise that was foundational to its development. The section is followed by the important feature of how teaching writing has changed from when the process writing approach was first developed. Following that section is a discussion on the difficulty of empirically studying the process writing approach. Finally, a critique to the process writing approach is discussed from the sociocultural literacy perspective.

Dornan et al. (2003) introduced the premise of the process writing approach as "writing is 'meaning making'" (p. 42). This premise is different than many prevailing writing exercises in school-based writing. In a 4-year study on writing, Applebee and Langer (2013) found "19% of assignments represented extended writing of a paragraph or more; the rest consisted of fill-in-the-blank and short-answer exercises, and copying of information directly from the teacher's presentations" (p. 14). Graham (2019) reported results of a 2010 report, which found, "The writing activities most commonly assigned to students involved very little extended writing, as students were seldom asked to write a text that was a paragraph or longer" (p. 280). By making engagement with written text a regular feature of classroom practice, the process writing approach has contributed to

more students understanding the range of individual choices available to them when composing pieces of writing (Dornan et al., 2003).

Although basic elements of the process writing approach (see Figure 2.2) have remained since its inception in the 1970s (Kirby & Liner, 1988; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005) one specific change of note was the adoption of more direct teaching methodologies (Dornan et al., 2003; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005). The teacher role has changed from early aspects of the methodology focused on what not to do, where “teachers were found *not* to make specific assignments, *not* to help students learn criteria for judging writing, *not* to structure activities based on specific objectives” (Hillocks, 1984, as cited by Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005, pp. 275–276). One reason for changes to the process writing approach methodology is changed understanding of cognitive processes required for writing and their complexity (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005). In a survey of the development and changes of the process writing approach, Pritchard and Honeycutt (2005) concluded:

> Most researchers assert that writing and the writing process are best understood as complex phenomena that include not only procedural strategies for going through the writing process to generate text but also a multitude of other strategies to develop specific schemata. (p. 285)

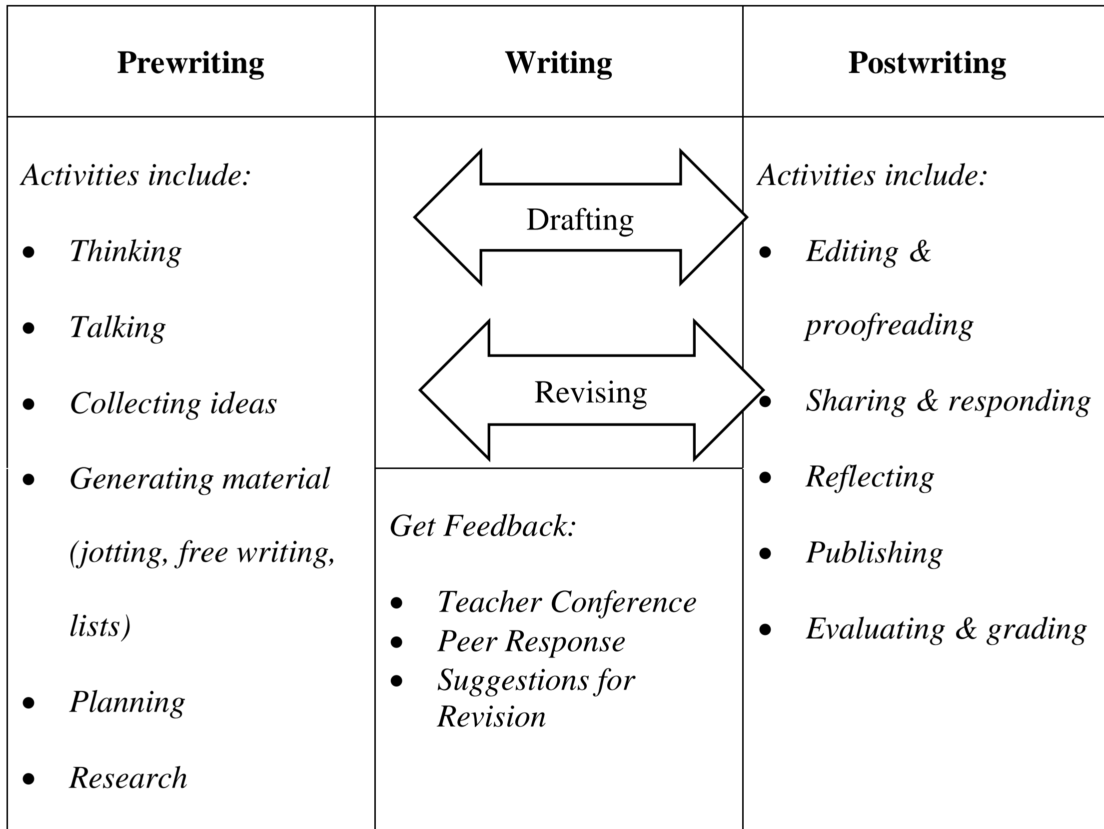
Put simply, research informing the process writing approach has come to understand that the work of writing is more than writing itself; there are a host of other factors (e.g., managing background knowledge) involved in the process of composing text. There is now an understanding that direct teaching techniques are required for early writers, which includes adolescents, and “the process model now demands careful scaffolding and

creating lessons that traverse the entire process" (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005, p. 276).

Figure 2.2 breaks down stages of the writing process, according to Dornan et al. (2003).

Figure 2.2

Stages of the Writing Process



Note. Adapted from "Stages of the Writing Process" by R. W. Dornan, L. M. Rosen, & M. Wilson, 2003, *Within and Beyond the Writing Process,* p. 43.
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Though the process writing approach has adapted to research, studying the process writing approach still proves difficult (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Dean, 2010; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005). One significant factor is the disagreement on what strategies encompass the writing process (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005). A model constructed for choice has built-in variations. Pritchard and Honeycutt (2005) stated, "few large-scale studies are specifically designed to study the

relation of the process instructional approach to the quality of written products. Fewer yet use an experimental and control group design" (p. 279). Two areas of research have been found to have had "positive effects" (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005, p. 282) related to the process writing approach: prewriting and revision.

Teacher Knowledge

Writing and Preservice Teachers

Students in teacher certification programs shared experiences of what Yagelski (2012) called school-sponsored writing, noting, "Semester after semester, they underscore how little meaning school-sponsored writing has had . . . Year after year" (p. 195). One story Yagelski (2012) recounted was by a preservice English teacher, one of a number of future writing teachers who shared writing in school for them was a negative experience. How writing teachers feel about their own writing is important regarding writing instruction because, as has been discussed throughout this review, teacher beliefs about writing matter for writing instruction (Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Wahleithner, 2018). Addressing anecdotal feedback that students do not have the patience to write, Yagelski (2012) attributed this issue to the negative influence of testing, arguing, "Who wouldn't be reluctant to write the tedious, meaningless drivel that we so often ask students to produce in school?" (p. 195).

As reported in other areas of the study, teachers often self-report lack of training in the teaching of writing (Gillespie et al., 2013; C. Street, 2003; Troia & Graham, 2016). In addition to general literacy classes taking precedence (Barnes & Smagorinsky, 2016) over writing-focused pedagogy, and the influence of two research methodologies from

two epistemological backgrounds (Barnes & Smagorinsky, 2016; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008), research has revealed school-based writing is informed by the "ideology of schooling" (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17). Wahleithner (2018) outlined the following knowledge that teachers must have to teach writing: (a) knowledge of the general writing process, (b) knowledge of varied processes aligned with drafting different genres, and (c) how to develop content or substance of text and variations in different genres.

Regarding teacher training, researchers have also indicated that preparing literacy teachers for critical literacy practices is additionally challenging (Hendrix-Soto, 2019; Lewison et al., 2015; Scherff, 2012; Wolfe, 2010). For example, Risko et al. (2008) reported only 3% of the 82 empirical studies included in their analysis of teacher preparation for reading studies had a critical literacy focus. Three studies reviewed for this review all found experience with developing and implementing critical literacy practices improved teacher comfort with theories and practices of critical literacy (Hendrix-Soto & Wetzel, 2019; Scherff, 2012; Wolfe, 2010). Even when confronted with obstacles, Wolfe (2010) expressed importance of the process of making critical literacy practices part of preservice teachers' experiences, noting, "Not 'doing' critical pedagogy, then, should not be termed failure; rather, it can be seen a part of the process of coming to understand how power relationships with university instructors, cooperating teachers, and students must be negotiated" (p. 381).

What Wolfe (2010) argued in their research was practicing an identity can push students closer to "disrupt their notion of what it means to be a teacher" (pp. 382–383). Both Wolfe (2010) and Hendrix-Soto and Wetzel (2019) identified challenges to

implementing critical pedagogies, affirming that learning to apply critical pedagogies does take additional effort and expertise. Lewison et al. (2015) also noted, “even with support, creating critical curricula is not easy” (p. xxxii). Preservice learning can serve as opportunities for future teachers to analyze certain assumptions. Hendrix-Soto and Wetzel (2019) and Scherff (2012) addressed the implication of teacher background. Hendrix-Soto and Wetzel (2019) reported barriers encountered in their study, such as resistance, are not unique, noting, “Many studies [have] reported resistance to critical literacies” (p. 209). Like Wolfe (2010), Scherff (2012) addressed the sometimes slow pace of change for new teachers, stating:

> Beliefs and values–cultural, pedagogical, religious, and so on–are deeply held–and although some preservice teacher can be affected profoundly by one experience, for others it takes several, and for others there are not enough to create change. (p. 228)

There has been more discussion in the study of training preservice teachers to teach writing. This section focused on data addressing teachers’ self-reported lack of training. Second, the section discussed particular challenges of preservice training teachers in critical literacy practices, which not only take additional effort and practice, but can challenge some teachers’ personally held beliefs that take time and exposure to change.

Writing as a Cognitive Task

In this section, research is presented regarding cognitive processes required for writing and how writing skills are known to be developed. Importantly, writing is not a single skill (Graham, 2019), but “a complex and challenging task, requiring a considerable amount of instructional time to master” (Graham, 2018a, as cited in Graham, 2019, p. 280). In a synthesis of research on how writing skills are acquired,

Bazerman (2016) outlined the following findings. First, “learning to write requires writing in many situations across a lifetime” (Bazerman, 2016, p. 15). Second, domain knowledge and the task of writing in those domains are related (Bazerman, 2016). For example, science writing requires knowledge of how the sciences are structured and organized, including particular domain vocabularies (Graham, 2019). Domain knowledge needed for writing also includes, for example, understanding of how texts are constructed, how revision is achieved, and tools of writing (Graham, 2019). Third, particular types of writing tasks are more successful at supporting the improvement of writing. These types of tasks include “activities and assignments that engage audiences, activities, and collaboration outside [of] teacher assessment of traditional classroom genres” (Brazerman, 2016, p. 17). These activities are often considered real-world writing practices (Graham, 2019; Murphy & Smith, 2020). Finally, institutions of schooling create particular types of writing processes, with particular effects (Brazerman, 2016). School-based writing is a “specialized activity system” (Brazerman, 2016, p. 16) with its own genres. Schooling further impacts writing development through “ideologies of schooling” (Brazerman, 2016, p. 17).

Another understanding related to cognitive function and writing is that “there is no prespecified sequence of normal development” (Graham, 2019, p. 287). Graham used the word “variable” to indicate that writing abilities cannot only rise and fall, but there can be different levels of writing proficiency for different types of writing. The finding that writing improvement does not take place linearly is important for teachers to understand because writing is not a stagnant or fixed skill, and must be approached with

the understanding of "applying a previously learned writing skill to new situations . . . [called] accumulated capital" (Graham, 2019, p. 286).

Understanding writing as a cognitive task also requires the knowledge that not all literacies function the same way. Kellogg (2008) distinguished the difficulty of learning to write from another literacy process (i.e., speaking) by noting that "speech acquisition is a natural part of early human development" (p. 2). This distinction contrasts with writing, which is a "purely cultural achievement that may never be learned at all" (Kellogg, 2008, p. 2). For a fully realized writing process to take place, executive functioning must be fully developed (Kellogg, 2008). Kellogg (2008) described the cognitive functions required for advanced writing to include "planning, generating and reviewing the emerging text" (p. 9). Thisrequires a cognitive function called "working memory" (Kellogg, 2008, p. 5), which adolescents are still developing.

Such background is important for secondary writing instructors to be familiar with, because as Kellogg explained, these processes have not yet fully developed for secondary students, and must be taken into account when selecting writing strategies for this age group. For example, it has been shown there is a limit to executive attention, so less than fully developed cognitive functioning does not have capacity for the demands required for some advanced writing skills (Kellogg, 2008). Allowing for more room for cognition by strengthening spelling or writing can "free up mental resources for . . . important aspects of writing" (Graham, 2019, p. 287). In contrast to speaking, there is a connection between writing and reading processes, which can develop together (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). Research on how reading and writing might be related

"has led many educators to agree that integrating reading and writing has multiple benefits for development of literacy" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 33).

Beliefs of Writing Teachers

Another determinant of how writing is taught in schools related to teacher pedagogy are the beliefs teachers have about writing and the process of writing (Graham, 2019; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013).

According to a study by McCarthey and Mkhize (2013), what teachers think about writing is significant because "orientations affect practice" (p. 5); however, findings have indicated teachers' writing instruction does not always follow what teachers philosophically believe. The study divided what were defined as teacher orientations into two categories, structural and relational (Berry, 2006; as cited by McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013). The concepts of structural and relational orientations (Berry, 2006; as cited by McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013) can be loosely mapped onto other constructs reviewed in this literature review; for example, Yagelski's (2012) text production has similarities to relational orientations to writing, and sentence combining can be seen as a structural practice.

The authors noted three areas make up influences of writing instruction: teacher beliefs, personal context, and professional development (Troia et al., 2011, as cited by McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013). What McCarthey and Mkhize (2013) found in their study of 29 teachers in high and low-income schools in four states is that "teachers in different school settings placed value on different elements of writing" (p. 28). The type of instruction differed between teachers in the schools depending on population. Research-

based instructional methods, such as rhetorical style and voice, were the focus of teachers in high-income schools, whereas teachers at low-income schools emphasized mechanics and grammar (McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013). One conclusion of their study was that "more studies need to look at the relationship between teachers' orientations and their writing practices" (McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013, p. 29). Graham (2019) also identified teachers' beliefs as important for writing instruction. Building on their research—that time devoted to writing is an important feature of successful instruction—Graham (2019) also pointed to findings showing teachers who believe in themselves and enjoy writing are more inclined to teach the skill.

Summary of Literature Review

The literature review chapter was organized into two sections. The first section presented a broad overview of changes in how literacies are constructed, with a review of how the idea of literacies and Discourses were conceptualized in the study. This section also included some discussion of the various terminologies related to the field of sociocultural literacy. Next, the section addressed different philosophical views of writing and introduced theoretical similarities between writing theories in composition studies and the broader field of sociocultural literacies. The first section of the chapter finished by introducing and expanding on critical literacies, a particular theoretical framework within sociocultural literacies. Two critical literacy frameworks were discussed, both of which informed the study. Janks's (2009) interdependent model for critical literacy was discussed, with its features of power, access, diversity, and design described to support a common terminology of inquiry for the study. The second critical literacy framework

from Lewison et al. (2015) was also presented, with its particular focus on how teachers enact particular critical stances in the classroom.

The second section of the literature review was organized to address research findings about key factors that influence the teaching of writing in secondary schools. First, standards and testing and the many levels of policy influence was addressed. Second, the researcher presented results of studies, mostly from the perspective of educational psychology. The third section addressed existing literature on process based writing and influences to the teaching of writing from composition studies. Finally, a section on teacher education was presented. This discussion of research findings addressed how teacher education programs are not prioritizing writing pedagogy in their programs. Together, these two sections of the literature review focused on two goals outlined at the beginning of the chapter; first, to “identify the central issues in a field” (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 26), and second, “problem identification” (Baumeister & Leary, 1997, p. 312).

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The goal of this study was to investigate the lived experiences of public school writing teachers who collaborate with a professional writing organization. Studying lived experience is a practice within phenomenology, the interpretive framework used to report study findings. *Lived experience* is defined as "the intent to explore *directly* the originary or prereflective dimensions of human existence; life as we live it" (van Manen, 2014, p. 39). The partner organization with which the teacher participants are involved, Pharos Young Writers Workshop (Pharos; a pseudonym), is a department of a larger professional writers organization, Pharos Writers Workshop. The Young Writers department of the organization has two codirectors, which is explained in greater length later in this chapter.

School-based writing, with its institutional goals, limits student opportunities to practice the full range of writing pedagogy, especially one that is student-driven (Janks, 2009). According to Bazerman (2016), school-based writing is not taught based on the subject of writing, but from the demands of schooling. As Hillocks (2002, as cited by Bazerman, 2016) noted, this notion means "the ideologies and epistemologies that drive testing and implicitly drive school curricular design are often orthogonal to other view of writing and may restrict writing education" (p. 17). Because of the unique aspect of writing done in schools, the study was distinct in the language used regarding *school-*

based writing, which Bazerman (2016) defined as "specialized writing activities within a specialized activity system with specialized school genres" (pp. 16–17). The aim of the research was to understand how teachers experience the life-world of writing instruction as they navigate institutional and noninstitutional goals in public school environments. *Life-world* is defined in phenomenology as "the take for granted world that we live in and experience" (Levine, n.d., para. 26). In examining collaborating teachers' lived experiences, the researcher hoped to better understand common pedagogical experiences of teachers who invite out-of-school professional collaborators to teach writing. The research questions for this study were as follows:

- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's perception of role regarding his/her role as the teacher in school-based writing?
- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's beliefs of value about the writing that is valued in school-based writing?
- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's ideas about language in school-based writing practices?
- How do these experiences of an out of school writing Discourse community integrate to influence pedagogical practices?

These questions were constructed using Janks's (2009) critical writing framework. The questions were used to draw out teacher experiences with the potential to expand future pedagogical possibilities for writing instruction. An expanded view of writing instruction

allowed for a greater understanding of how collaboration with non-school-sponsored writing organizations could influence and further change the scope of writing instruction for secondary teachers. In researching these questions, the goal of the study was to better understand how teachers with this particular experience outside of their formal school roles explain the lived experiences of their pedagogical practices.

Research Design Overview

When determining research design, it was important for the researcher that the devised study have methodological congruence (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Methodological congruence is explained as having the study fit "as a cohesive whole, rather than as fragmented, isolated parts" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 50). The purpose of the study was to discover the lived experiences of writing teachers who work with an out-of-school professional writers organization.

Both principal frameworks informing the study—phenomenology and sociocultural literacies—share a philosophical worldview. This worldview extends to ideas about humanizing pedagogy (Friere 1970/2018), and Yagelski's (2012) views of "writing as praxis" (p. 190) or writing as "ontological act" (p. 191). These views are linked with a view of consciousness that is "between humans and the world" (Vagle, 2014, p. 28). These frameworks are joined by their reorientation from "mind separated from the world" (Vagle, 2014, p. 20), or, as Yagelski (2012) wrote, "We exist in a dialectical relationship with the reality we help create" (p. 190). What this means, according to Gee (2015), is, "Meanings are ultimately rooted in negotiations among people in different social practices with different interests, people who share or seek to

share some common ground. Power plays an important role in these negotiations" (p. 27). In addition to the important idea of meanings being negotiated in different contexts, an additional aspect of meaning making is these attributes are always in a type of motion or flux. Describing what this idea of tentativeness means for research, Vagle (2014) wrote:

> Whatever understanding is opened up through an investigation will always move with and through the researcher's intentional relationships with the phenomenon– not simply in the researcher, in the participants, in the text, or in their power positions, but in the dynamic intentional relationships that tie participants, the researcher, the produced text, and their positionalities together . . . intentionality is always moving, is unstable and therefore can be read *post-structurally.* (p. 30)

As addressed in Chapter 1, the research was executed, interpreted, and reported with the transparent appreciation and reflectiveness of the researcher's participation in the process. The role of the researcher and their influence is one example of the "dynamic intentional relationships" (Vagle, 2014, p. 30) that informed the life of the study. The role of phenomenological analysis is further described in the next section of this chapter.

This introduction to the research methodology chapter is followed by a discussion of how phenomenology informed the process of data analysis. That section is followed by an overview of the partner organization, Pharos, and includes certain goals that structure their work. An outline of Institutional Review Board (IRB) documentation is followed by discussion of the recruitment process and introduction to the study participants. Following participant introductions, the next sections present the process of data analysis and themes related to reporting study data. Topics associated with data analysis include validity and reliability, limitations of methodology, and ethical considerations.

Phenomenology

The purpose of using phenomenological interpretation is to "understand . . . intentionality of why the properties of the world (or phenomena) have such a unique mode of existing, expressed in distinct patterns" (Kim, 2016, p. 57). One defining characteristic of pedagogy, discussed earlier in the study, is the idea of "intentional decisions" (Breault, 2010, para. 1) when making teaching decisions. Phenomenological methodology allowed a closer investigation into the participants' actions through the language of describing their experiences. The rationale in selecting the interpretive framework followed the purpose of the study, which was to better understand the lived experiences of a particular educator experience; or, in the terminology of phenomenology, understand the phenomenon. The phenomenon investigated in the study that informed each of the research questions was, what is particular to the experiences of school teachers who teach writing in collaboration with a professional writing organization. The secondary related questions addressed how these experiences have impacted their pedagogical thinking and actions. Phenomenologically, the research questions inquired about the essence of each of the phenomena as experienced by the teacher participants.

To clarify the particular phenomenological approach used to interpret study data, some philosophical background is helpful and works to strengthen the connection between the research questions and the relationship with phenomenological interpretation. The practice of phenomenological research begins with clearly identifying a phenomenon. This phenomenon is the "unit of analysis" (Vagle, 2014, p. 23), as

opposed to a person. For example, in this study, the phenomenon studied was the experience of teachers who collaborate with a professional writing organization. In the practice of phenomenology, phenomena are experienced not as a cartesian "subject-object" (Vagle, 2014, p. 22); rather, phenomena are inseparable from the experience itself (Vagle 2014; van Manen, 2014). van Manen (2014) described phenomena as relational, noting, "Phenomena are the ways in which we find ourselves being in relation to the world through our day-to-day living" (p. 20). To state this idea another way, phenomena are studied in phenomenological practice as not an exterior creation experienced by an "autonomously-encased human mind separated from the world" (van Manen, 2014, p. 20), but a study of "how it is to BE in the world" (van Manen, 2014, p. 21). Creswell and Poth (2018) described a phenomenon as "an "'object' of human experience" (p. 75).

For this concept, it is helpful to have philosophical understanding related to the idea of subjectivity and how consciousness experiences objects of interpretation. Intentionality, as presented by Husserl (as cited by van Manen, 2014), can be explained as the idea that "all our thinking, feeling and acting are 'oriented to' or 'with' the things in the world. This also means that we can never step out of the world and view it from some detached vista" (p. 62).

Closely related to the concept of phenomena in phenomenological practice is the idea of essences. *Essences* are defined as the "development of descriptions" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 75) of phenomenological experiences. Husserl (as cited by Vagle, 2014) distinguished the phenomenological idea of essence, and the critique that essence is too similar to the idea of essentializing, by explaining that "Husserl's essence was not about

finalizing anything but capturing what makes something like love what it is for humans in their intentional relations with one another and with the world" (Vagle, 2014, p. 29). Using a less "socially contested term" (Gee, 2015, p. 18), essence was described by Adams and van Manen (2017) as "whatness":

> Phenomenological research investigates what makes the experience . . . what it is, and inquires into the "whatness," or "how it appears or gives itself" as a recognizable experience, phenomenon, or event. It investigates intersubjective understanding–the lived meaning of an experience itself–how we can speak of an experience and communicate with others about that experience. (p. 782)

Essences, as grouped in the study and informed by van Manen's (2014) hermeneutic (i.e., pedagogical) approach, are actually closer to "manifestations" (Vagle, 2014, p. 30). Rather than an understanding of an essence that runs closer to a universal or static idea, ideas in this study were conceptualized more as themes (Vagle, 2014), or "manifestations [that] come into being through intentional relations, which are always already being interpreted" (Vagle, 2014, p. 30). The point is the researcher approached essences less like unifying aspects of experience, and more like themes constructed between individuals having common experiences (Vagle, 2014).

One practice of phenomenology the researcher did not use was situated narratives, where several participant narratives are combined to a "general description" (Peoples, 2021, p. 62) of a common phenomenon. This practice is usually done with multiple individual experiences combined into a single narrative (Adams & van Manen, 2017). In maintaining the individual voices of each participant, the researcher's goal was to retain their unique voices while maintaining thematic groupings. Adams and van Manen (2017) addressed this possibility, writing, "Students may also come to appreciate that

phenomenological questions often point toward a constellation of experiences rather than name a singular, unitary experience" (p. 782). Vagle (2014) described this idea of a number of experiences as a feature of van Manen's approach to "considering parts and whole" (p. 60).

For van Manen (2014), considering parts and a whole does not end in finding an "invariant structure" (Vagle, 2014, p. 60); rather, the approach explains how "themes come to be for the researcher as he or she steps back and look(s) at the total, at the contextual givens, and how each of the parts needs to contribute to the total" (as cited by Vagle, 2014, p. 60). The researcher's hope was to give common experiences depth via multiple voices of the study, with unifying intentionality explored by the researcher as themes developed from common experiences.

Community Partner Overview

Pharos is a pseudonym for the nonprofit organization the researcher formally partnered with for the study. Pharos is a department of the Pharos Writers Workshop organization. Pharos describes their mission on their website as: "To provide the highest caliber of artistic education, support, and community for writers and readers." Pharos Writers Workshop is located in a populous urban area in the western, Rocky Mountain region of the United States. As part of its Young Writers Program, the organization provides workshops at its site, a standalone building with a home-like interior. Programs offered include a Summer Camps Program, in addition to standalone workshops on topics such as academic writing and screenwriting. Pharos has published several anthologies of work from students of its various Young Writers programs. Pharos also collaborates with

organizations such as youth treatment centers, in addition to offering workshops in several school districts throughout the region. Visits by professional writers are organized in coordination with individual teachers or directly with participating districts. Because of its relationships with professional writers throughout the region, Pharos is able to call on its network of writers to provide workshop services to teachers in the area.

An initial email addressed to the codirectors was sent in January 2020, at which point the researcher had established a draft framework for the research project. The first meeting took place with one of the codirectors, Kate, during the second week of February 2020, at which point both parties continued discussions about the project. The researcher met with both codirectors, Kate and Rosie, three times via Zoom technology to understand the work of the organization. In addition to gaining understanding of the organization, the researcher asked for background that would support the codirectors work that could inform the study.

Pharos codirectors discussed a range of questions with the researcher from their work at Pharos. The organization hopes to benefit from study findings (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, March 27, 2020). Pharos hopes research information will better inform the organization regarding the experiences of teachers they partner with by sending professional writers into classrooms (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, March 27, 2020). Additional benefits of the research could translate into information on specific ways in which Pharos' s services and collaboration with teachers support the work of partner organizations, such as schools and clinics (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, August 11, 2020). The researcher expressed to the

codirectors the desire for a mutually beneficial relationship following some best practices of community research (Strand et al., 2003), even though the study did not fall into that formal category. Formal partnership documentation was secured by the researcher in early April 2020 (see Appendices B and C).

Adopted Framework for Theory of Change

Pharos has adopted an evaluation framework from the Boston Youth Arts Evaluation Project (BYAEP, 2012). The purpose of evaluation was described by McBride (2018) as a "systematic application of social science research to plan for and learn about the impact of policy, performance, programs, or initiatives in order to create, further, or sustain social change" (p. 624). The goal of social change supports adopting a model of evaluation that includes a theory of change, which is briefly discussed to further expand on the work of Pharos. Although the evaluation model helps situate the work of the organization, the model is more representative of the work of Pharos's out-of-school programs. These programs are in the organization's control, and not the collaborative work between public school teachers and professional writers, which was the particular focus of this study. Still, the framework is presented here as indication of the type of formal, evaluative Discourse organizational leaders focus on when addressing questions related to the efficacy of their work.

The BYAEP (2012) described the purpose of creating their framework as one stemming from the need for a model more closely aligned to meet the varied outcomes for youth through creative practices. BYAEP wrote the existing models were not sufficient to measure how their work functioned. Revising previous models required a

shift of “emphasis from collecting and reporting on the data, which often did not correlate with attainable outcomes, to establishing a framework with tools that spoke directly to meaningful outcomes” (BYAEP, 2012, p. 6). The report indicated the importance of “meaningful outcomes” (p. 6) by expressing the desire to do “justice to the beauty, nuance, and holistic nature of our work with youth” (BYAEP, 2012, p. 6).

The BYAEP model is represented by two documents, excerpted in the Appendix for reference (see Appendices D and E). The first diagram represents outcome areas (see Appendix D); the second visually shows “inputs and the indicators of outcomes” (BYAEP, 2012, p. 28; see Appendix E). Inputs include the constructs of “Opportunities, Positive Climate, and Connections” (BYAEP, 2012, p. 30). Outcomes are measured in three time frames: short term, intermediate, and long term (BYAEP, 2012). The diagram in Appendix D highlights the long-term outcomes by placing them in the center of the intersecting circles. The long-term outcomes are listed as resiliency, personal fulfillment, community, and engagement. Many outcomes, throughout all of the timeframes, correspond to some degree to terminology used in education.

IRB Approval

Completing documentation for formal IRB approval began Spring 2020, and relevant documents are included in the IRB documentation Appendix section of the study (see Appendices F–I). A process of formal submission and revision took place during the summer months of 2020, with formal approval secured August 2020 (IRB ID 1569202-3). The IRB process included the formal Human Research Application, which presented key aspects of the study. Supporting the application was a “step-by-step description of

research procedures" document, which thoroughly outlined how the research would be conducted (see Appendix F). A document outlining "consent to participate in research" was also submitted (see Appendix G). The "consent to participate in research" informed potential participants of their right to withdraw, and additional aspects of how their privacy and participation would be protected.

Protection information included stipulations of how data would be deidentified, pseudonyms would be used for any identifiable information, and how electronic interview data would be protected. Potential participants were also informed of potential benefits of participating in the research, such as the insights that might benefit and support future teaching methodology. The IRB submission also included information on recruitment procedures, and the researcher provided a brief questionnaire interested candidates filled out to express interest in participating in the research study (see Appendix H). The brief questionnaire was conducted anonymously via the Qualtrics data program, and included a shorter version of a consent document regarding information potential research candidates would share in expressing their interest in participating in the study. Data about participants that were collected on the "indication of interest" application included: first name, last initial, self-identified gender, years teaching, school of most recent employment, race, personal (nonwork) telephone number, and personal (nonwork) email address (see Appendix H). Information to the potential research participants included details of their commitment to participate, including approximate hours required for the project. Commitment information included information about the member checking process to transparently inform potential participants of all aspects of

the research process. Before formal submission to IRB, the researcher tested the "indication of interest" form to make sure it functioned properly. The full IRB application also included a "proposed study timeline" for the research process.

After the application was approved by the principal investigator's university sponsor, the application was submitted to the IRB office. The IRB Office requested the researcher make minor changes and clarifications over Summer 2020, which were completed, and corrected documentation was then resubmitted. IRB approval was granted in August 2020. After communication with the researcher in August 2021, IRB extended the closing of the research window to late December 2021 to allow for member checking to be completed in Fall 2021.

Recruitment Process and Participant Selection

The researcher obtained University of Denver IRB approval in August 2020. Upon receiving the formal IRB approval document, it was electronically shared with the two Pharos codirectors. At that point, Pharos officially began recruitment of potential research participants via an introductory letter. Pharos agreed to select a cross-section of teachers the organization had relationships with and contacted them via email with an "invitation to participate in a research study" letter (see Appendix C). The goal of recruitment was to identify 4–6 participants to take part in the study. Recruitment took place through electronic mail and some brief personal contact, both of which originated from the Pharos codirectors. The introductory email, "invitation to participate in a research study," had two sections (see Appendix C). The first section, coauthored by Pharos codirectors, greeted potential participants and explained the researcher's

agreement with Pharos. The codirectors then introduced the researcher at the end of their letter.

The second section of the initial email was authored by the researcher. The researcher introduced the scope of the research project. The purpose of this portion of the introductory recruitment letter was to provide sufficient information to potential participants so they could make an informed decision about what type of commitment was required to participate in the research project. The letter included information about the expected commitment participation in the study would require, in addition to preliminary information about consent to participate. The researchers' letter also included information about any risks associated with the research, which were deemed minimal in the documentation provided to the IRB. This information was all formally documented at the beginning of subject interviews, but was included in the initial letter to allow potential participants more time to freely authorize consent or to ask questions about the research interview process. Participants were provided with a link in this initial email to a brief Qualtrics form (see Appendix H). The form asked for potential participants to indicate interest in participating in the study. The form was designed so no online tracking information would be collected to protect confidentiality. Before any personal information was requested, modified consent information was provided to potential participants. This step meant potential participants were informed of their rights and potential privacy issues at the point at which they indicated interest in the study. Special attention was given at this point to informing potential participants of any risks associated with sharing the initial information requested by the researcher, and how such

information might be used during the duration of the study. After the consent section, the form requested the following information from potential participants as part of their indication of interest: last name and first initial, self-identified gender, race, nonwork email, nonwork phone number, years teaching, and name of current school. The form was then submitted through the Qualtrics system to the researcher. The documentation indicated that submission of the form constituted understanding consent provisions related to the initial form.

Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion in Recruitment

In preliminary discussions with Pharos codirectors, the researcher and Pharos agreed a broad and diverse cross-section of participants would be invited to participate in the study. The mutual goal was to have a diverse group of participants, both regarding participant demographics and school settings. The researchers' intent was to strive to be as broadly inclusive as possible regarding the composition of the participant group by race, gender, and professional years of experience. The researcher also scrutinized the demographics of student populations served by the potential study participants to include sites of various socioeconomic backgrounds. The researcher actively strove to include populations of students with diverse educational needs, including students who struggle with writing and gifted-talented students. This criteria for inclusion in the study aligned with values of the Pharos organization. The following statement appears on the website of the partner organization, and is included here as information regarding the intended composition of professional writers involved with the organization:

> Pharos is a diverse, inclusive, and equitable place where all participants, employees, and volunteers, whatever their gender, race, ethnicity, national origin,

> age, sexual orientation or identity, education or disability, feel valued and respected. We respect and value diverse life experiences and heritages and ensure that all voices are heard. To that end, we uphold a commitment to a diverse community by nurturing an inclusive, supportive, and welcoming environment.

The codirectors also indicated their desire for a cross-section of potential participants throughout communications prior to recruitment.

Recruitment and Participant Enrollment

The recruitment process officially began the last week of August 2020, with formal IRB approval emailed to the Pharos codirectors as noted earlier. The recruitment window remained open and available through October 20, 2020, an 8-week period, at which point information was posted on the Qualtrics recruitment website that the recruitment window was closed. During the recruitment window, the researcher worked to minimize potential issues of power imbalance (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) between the researcher, partner organization representatives, and potential participants. One way this mitigation of power imbalance was completed was by limiting contact with codirectors on questions related to protocol, making it clear in direct statements the codirectors were trusted to oversee their process. Because the partner organization is a nonprofit, and potential recruits do not get paid or work for the organization directly, there was diminished potential for unintended feelings of coercion by the codirectors on the part of potential subjects. An additional way potential power imbalance was minimized was the initial recruitment letter clearly indicated potential participants would not impact their relationship with Pharos Writers Workshop or Pharos by deciding to participate in the study.

Once a pool of prospective subjects accepted the invitation to participate, the researcher's goal was to enroll a diverse group of participants, with preference given to the order in which candidates replied to the invitation to participate; then, secondly, preference was given to inclusion criteria to have as diverse a participatory group as possible. Due to the limited number of participants responding to the invitation to participate, and ultimately, completing the informed consent document, selection of participants based on diversity was limited. This limitation is also discussed in later sections of this chapter.

A total of 16 teachers fitting the inclusion criteria of having worked with Pharos and being a secondary public school teacher were contacted via Pharos's codirectors email. There were no exclusionary criteria if inclusion characteristics were met. Pharos codirectors supplemented email contact with brief phone calls to inform the potential pool of respondents from the email. The codirectors were informed not to discuss the study during these brief informational calls. During a 10–15-day window after initial emails were sent, the Pharos codirectors sent out a follow-up email regarding the study to nonrespondents from the same pool of 16 teachers, reminding them of the opportunity to participate in the study.

The initial target number to secure 4–6 recruits was a larger number than the suggestion of "one or two individuals" by Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 186) for the type of phenomenological study constructed by the researcher. The proposed number of participants was selected with the view of potentially satisfying a "threshold of saturation" defined as:

> When new interview data do not yield any new knowledge but merely confirm or are redundant with what has been found in the existing data, or when the interviewee has exhausted all the relevant stories that she or he wanted to share. (Suárez-Ortega, 2013, as cited by Kim, 2016, p. 161)

The goal of 4–6 participants also allowed for the concept of emergent design, which holds that "research cannot be tightly prescribed and that all phases of the process may change or shift after the researchers enter the field and begin to collect data" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 44).

Upon completing and submission of the interest form, potential participants were contacted by the researcher within 48 hours with an emailed reply indicating their indication of interest form had been received by the researcher through the Qualtrics program. This return email contained a copy of the potential participant's completed form so respondents would have a copy of initial consent information. Potential participants were informed that updates about study participant selection would follow during the 1st week of October 2020.

By the 3rd week of September 2020, six people had completed the brief indication of interest form via Qualtrics. One form was incomplete and did not allow for the potential participant to be contacted, so the remaining five participants were contacted and automatically included in the study. The intention of the researcher was to allow for the possibility of a broad pool of participants from which a group of participants representing a diversity of backgrounds would be selected; however, only the range of minimal participants was reached. Although interest among the 16 contacted teachers denoted a 37.5% interest among the total pool of potential respondents, two possible variables contributed to the lack of a greater number of respondents. First, even with the

high rate of interest, the pool of potential respondents was limited. Perhaps more consequentially, the COVID-19 global pandemic, beginning in March 2020 and continuing throughout the year, caused major disruptions to schools and impacted teacher working conditions. Information during the recruitment process relating to conflicts with aspects of teaching related to COVID-19 was supported by feedback from the Pharos codirectors, who shared feedback from potential participants during the recruitment process (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, September 10 & 25, 2020). The researcher also intended to select a higher number of participants to allow for the possibility of subject attrition; however, this was also limited by the number of candidates who expressed interest.

Informed Consent and Preparing Participants

During the 1st week of October, an email was sent to the five potential participants welcoming them to the study and outlining how to schedule the brief initial onboarding call; calls lasted no more than 10 minutes. For all but one participant, the online OnceHub scheduling platform was used (https://www.oncehub.com), allowing participants to self-schedule their interview times from a broad range of available choices, including weekends. The purpose of the initial 10-minute call was so participants would review the informed consent document, be introduced to how interviews would be managed, be informed of the request for lesson plan examples, and have an opportunity to ask any questions of the researcher before the first of the two 75-minute interview sessions. Likely participants were also given information on how the scheduling platform would work. One respondent chose to have the informational session held at the same

time as the first interview. During the four onboarding interviews, and after the researcher's outline was reviewed, participants were directed to an online form which contained a copy of the consent document and required an electronic signature. Upon returning the informed consent document, recruited teachers were considered official participants in the study.

Brief opening introductions and interviews began the 2nd week of October 2020. Each participant's first interview was transcribed and provided to them within a week of their first interview and before their second interview. To enter the password-secured digital interview space, teacher participants were provided with a link to a private digital room on the Zoom platform. Interviews were recorded by Zoom software and an initial transcription was provided by the digital videoconferencing service. Further transcription steps took place to maintain accuracy, and are reviewed later in this chapter. The final second interview was held mid-December 2020.

The single participant teacher who scheduled independently of the online OnceHub software requested their interviews take place over the phone rather than the video conferencing platform. This format was acceptable to the researcher, and scheduling proceeded with the participant suggesting available times and the researcher honoring the request for alternative recording arrangements. These phone calls were recorded using a microphone, and the protocol of procedures was followed similarly to the other participant interviews.

Securing Research Participants and District Representation

Pharos representatives indicated a total of 16 participatory invitations were sent out in early September 2020 (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, September 14, 2020). Pharos representatives sent reminders to those in the pool who did not respond 7 to 14 days after the initial emails went out, and Pharos representatives made brief phone contact with potential participants where available, informing them of the existence of the invitation (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, September 14, 2020). The researcher informed the Pharos representatives that no information about the particulars of the study nor researcher should be shared, and Pharos representatives agreed any phone communication with invited subjects would only consist of informing study invitees of the invitation (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, August 11, 2020).

A total of six subjects responded to the call for participants through the Pharos emails and completed the initial interest form at least in part, indicated by a link to a brief Qualtrics form. One potential subject only partially completed the interest form, resulting in the inability to contact this respondent for follow up. An additional potential subject fully completed the interest form and scheduled the initial onboarding interview. Subsequently, this respondent wrote via email they needed to reschedule this initial interview and never did so. One reminder email was sent to the potential subject reinviting them to reschedule, and the email also contained detailed instructions for rescheduling their initial appointment. This subject did not respond to these invitations for completing the rescheduling process.

Institutional and Location Demographics

After the preliminary stages the recruitment process left a total of four participants who completed the research protocol of two 75-minute interviews. The four participants' formal teaching assignments corresponded to 3 of the 8 largest school districts in a major Rocky Mountain metropolitan region. The following information follows American Psychological Association (APA, 2020) guidance regarding protecting confidentiality by using the suggested strategy of "limiting the description of specific characteristics" (p. 22). All place names were given pseudonyms. Identifiable characteristics in References—for example, "Los Angeles"—were rendered generally with the term "City," and so forth. This step included masking website links in the References section of the research study that revealed identifiable characteristics. To address any research questions that might arise, for ethical purposes, the researcher has kept documents that can unmask identifiable data, should an exceptional instance arise.

The greater metropolitan area of Perspective has a population of 3,265,677, according to the regions Metropolitan Economic Development Council (MEDC). One district is represented by two teacher participants. The three districts together serve a total of 207,854 students and have a total of 427 schools between them (Niche Data, 2020). Although respondents were recruited because of their professional association with the Pharos, the researcher includes the following information about each of the public school districts the teachers represent to provide background on structural district representation, in addition to general contours of the types of populations each district generally serves. Notably, demographics data are reported with the same terminology used by the district

(or reporting agency), which accounts for some minor differences in language terminology between districts for some of the demographic groups.

- Perspective City School District serves the main urban city of Perspective, which in July 2019, the year before the study took place, had an estimated population of 729,239, according to the State Demography Office. It is the largest district represented in the study, with a total of 90,296 students enrolled in October 2020, according to the district website. The percentage of students who qualify for the National School Lunch Program (NSLP) in the Perspective District is 61.73% of the student population, according to the district. The district's "Facts and Figures" webpage listed the following student demographics: Hispanic 52.4%, White 25.6%, Black or African American 13.8%, Asian 3.2%, Two or More Races 4%, Native Indian or Alaska Native .7%, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander .4%. Additional district information includes students with disabilities (i.e., special education services) making up 12.1% of the school population, and 8.4% identified as gifted and talented. These statistics were reflective of enrollment of October of the 2020 school year, which should be noted is the first fall semester of a full school year during the COVID-19 global pandemic.
- Madison School District serves a regional county with a population of 585,341, according to MEDC. According to the state's Education Department enrollment statistics, the district had an enrollment of 80,088 students in the 2019–2020 school year, the school year of the study. In the Madison School

District, 31% of students qualified for the NSLP, according to district statistics. The district's "District Profile" webpage listed the following student demographics: White 67%, Hispanic 24%, Multiple Races 4%, Asian 3%, Black 1%, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander 1%, and American Indian/Alaska Native .5%. According to state enrollment data obtained in October of each school year, 11.3% of the districts' population is identified as gifted and talented and 11.2% of the student population qualify for special education services.

- Flatstone School District is the smallest district represented by the four participants and represents an adjacent metro area and its surrounding suburbs. According to the district's "About" webpage, over 31,000 students attend the district's schools. According to October 2020 enrollment statistics on the district's "Enrollment" webpage, 67.4% of the district's students are White (the district uses 'Caucasian'), Hispanics make up 19.4% of the student population, students of multiple ethnicities make up 6.2%, 5.7% are Asian, .9% are African American, .3% are American Indian, and .1% of the district's students are identified as Native Hawaiian. According to October 2020 enrollment statistics on that same "Enrollment" page, 19.6% students qualified for NSLP (i.e., free lunch and reduced lunch total), and 12.5% of district students were eligible for special education services, not including 504 plans. Students identified as gifted and talented made up 14.7% of the district population in October 2020, according to the same data source.

Study Participant Introductions

A total of four subjects participated in the study—three females and one male. The researcher's proposal indicated an intention to include as diverse a group of participants as possible. No specific data can elucidate why greater number of volunteers did not come forward. One potential participant was struggling with the potential closing of their school (R. Jones, personal communication, September 11, 2020). Another variable established as a challenge and potentially hindered larger participation by teachers in the study were the conditions of the COVID-19 global pandemic; for example, one invited potential participant wrote they were "extremely overwhelmed and overloaded with virtual teaching" (R. Jones, personal communication, September 11, 2020). This participant alluded to the move by a majority of school districts in the region where the study took place to online-only teaching early in the 2020–2021 school year due to the COVID-19 global pandemic. Amid discussions with the two Pharos representatives, required changes and challenges of virtual teaching were anecdotally discussed as a challenge for teachers to take on new projects (K. Smith & R. Jones, personal communication, September 10, 2020).

The following section provides an introduction to each of the four study participants, including information about their teaching site when teaching in-person. Notably, all four teacher participants experienced being out of the physical classroom and virtual teaching throughout the 1st semester of the 2020–2021 school year. Though the study's focus was on the teaching of writing over the course of their career, the participants did discuss challenges of transitioning their teaching to a virtual modality

because it was an immediate pressing concern—an experience of their life world—at the time of interviews. Some of these issues are discussed in the findings section of the document, Chapter 4. Pseudonyms are used for the teachers, in addition to the names of their teaching sites. District names are also pseudonyms and were presented earlier in this chapter. Teachers are presented throughout the study in first name, alphabetical order to maintain consistency.

Brandon

Brandon, who identifies as male, has been a school teacher for 25 years, not including the year of this study. They self-reported their race as other. Brandon teaches Grades 9–12 at a public high school in the Madison School District. The Quest School, according to the official district school website, was advocated for by parents and students looking to establish a nontraditional school. The school opened in 1970 and serves students in grades PreK–12. Students have to apply to enroll, and priority is given to students residing in the Madison School District, but who are able to reside outside of the county served by the school district.

According to the Madison School District's "About Us - History" on the website, the school organizes students in "multi-aged groupings throughout the school." The mission statement, also on the website, includes "an emphasis on self-direction, learning through experience, shared responsibility, and the development of life long-skills [*sic*]." Two goals of the school are to "Create the world as it ought to be," and "Rediscover the joy of learning." According to the "Mission, Goals, and Philosophy" webpage, guiding philosophy statements for the school are separated into categories of "Learning,"

“Community,” and “Individual.” School values listed on the page include “Curiosity” and “Courage.” According to State Education Department data in December 2016, the elementary school served 231 students and the high school served 343 students. School-level demographics were not available on district website.

Catherine

Catherine self-identifies as female and was teaching Grade 10–12 ELA at Forest Trail High School in the Flatstone School District. Catherine identifies as White and has been teaching for 24 years, not including the year of the study. According to the state’s Department of Education, Forest Trail High School is designated as an Alternative Education Campus. State statutes governing such schools have defined them as:

- having a specialized mission and serving a special needs or at-risk population,
- having nontraditional methods of instruction delivery,
- serving students who have severe limitations, and
- serving a student population in which more than 90% of the students have an individualized education program . . . or meet the definition of high-risk student.

The public school serves 180 students, and, according to the Flatstone School District’s website, has a vision expressing “a school conducive to learning for all children using a variety of innovative and traditional approaches differentiated for each student’s needs and skills.” School highlights on the website’s “About” page includes the “transformation of the lives of our students and the communities we serve,” addressing the role it plays for students who have otherwise not had success in the traditional Flatstone District’s

schools. The physical school does not serve ninth-grade students, which Carolyn mentioned during their interview. This limitation is due to the school's role as an attendance option after students have not succeeded in the district's other traditional high schools.

Winona

Winona was a teacher of Grade 8 students at Bathurst K–8 school in the Madison School District. Winona has taught for 8 years, not including the study year, and self-identifies as a White female. The school is physically separated into two campuses a mile and half apart, with one campus serving Grades K–4 and the upper school serving students in Grades 5–8. The school mission and vision page identified the school as a "21st Century School," integrating data for a school with components of shared leadership, self-direction, information literacy, being inventive, and a collaborative culture. The school employs tenets of expeditionary learning and problem or project-based learning, according to the school website. According to 2016 state Education Department data, school enrollment at that time was 780 students; there were not more updated State Education Department data available.

Mary

Because of the researcher's interest in underserved populations, there was a determination to include a teacher representative who works with gifted and talented students. Secondary schools program opportunities for gifted and talented students differently than elementary schools. One way in which secondary programming is different is an overemphasis on Advance Placement courses from the College Board

(Gallagher, 2009). A second programming difference is the availability of accelerated courses, where secondary students are able to attend college classes (Avery, 1998; Gallagher, 2009). Due to factors of how secondary schools program gifted and talented students, the decision was made to be inclusive and incorporate an elementary teacher into the study.

Mary self-identifies as a female and worked at Bluepine Elementary in the Perspective City School District. The school vision, according to the website, is "celebrates our equitable, diverse, and inclusive community by supporting and developing the full potential of the whole child." A "Parent Guide to Curriculum" from 2014 is provided to parents on the school website in support of including parents in their child's education (Perspective School District). According to data from National Center for Education Statistics (2020), the PreK–5 school served 447 students.

Data Collection

The primary method of data collection for the study comprised a series of semistructured, one-on-one interviews. This method allowed for inquiry "flexible enough to expand the scope of the interview" (Kim, 2016, p. 163). Morse (2012, as cited in Kim, 2016) suggested "six to ten questions providing a general order to guide the course of the interview" (p. 163). Creswell and Creswell (2018) also suggested 5–10 questions. Several questions were shared with the partner organization for input. The purpose of allowing the Pharos organization to provide feedback in the construction of a subset of questions was so the partner organization was invested in the outcome of the work, and so the final research product is "accountable to the institution in the local context as well as to the

academic structure of the university" (Rosenthal, 2014, as cited in Buss & Zambo, n.d., p. 18).

An interview protocol (Creswell & Poth, 2018) was established to structure the process. This protocol included the following: (a) a list of semistructured interview questions based on themes, (b) interview notes, (c) interview transcription, and (d) member checking (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Saldaña, 2016). To allow for in-depth probing, two interviews of approximately 75-minutes each were scheduled with a brief introductory phone call to establish familiarity and explain protocol. The purpose of using a protocol of two interviews was to allow for deeper questioning and the ability to return to previously mentioned topics. All digital equipment was kept secure and independent of any identifiable information. Electronic recordings and data were secured on password-protected equipment. Transcribed interviews were given a pseudonym so they did not contain any identifiable information without a key, which was kept independently of the data. Due to the COVID-19 global pandemic, the researcher conducted these interviews solely through the digital medium of Zoom, with one participant requesting to be interviewed over the phone.

The researcher used a transcription protocol to assure the process was systematized and consistent (McLellan et al., 2003). Adapted from McLellan et al. (2003) and their inclusion of Mergenthaler and Stinson's (1992) "seven principles for developing transcription rules" (as cited by McLellan et al., 2003, p. 65), the researcher developed the following protocol for transcribing the research interviews. By adaptation, the researcher means to indicate minor changes were made (i.e., parentheses to brackets)

in the rules, and only protocol that pertained to an individual researcher were adopted. First, principles from Mergenthaler and Stinson (1992; as cited by McLellan et al., 2003) were selected:

- Preserve the morphologic naturalness of transcription,
- Preserve naturalness of the transcript structure,
- The transcript should be an exact reproduction. (p. 65)

The following protocols were added from McLellan et al. (2003):

- Nonverbal sounds shall be typed in brackets, for example, (short sharp laugh), (group laughter), (police siren in background),
- If interviewers or interviewees mispronounce words, these words shall be transcribed as the individual said them. The transcript shall not be "cleaned up" by removing foul language, slang, grammatical errors, or misuse of words or concepts,
- The spelling of key words, blended or compound words, common phrases, and identifiers shall be standardized across all . . . transcripts. [This includes] enunciated reductions,
- Filler words . . . shall be transcribed,
- Word or phrase repetitions shall be transcribed [up to three repetitions]. If a word is cut off or truncated, a hyphen shall be inserted at the end of the last letter or audible sound. (p. 78)

These rules were followed by the researcher for all interview transcripts, which were proofread for accuracy.

The researcher then coded all interviews. The coding process was systematized to minimize variation in data identification. Coding followed a two-cycle method suggested by Saldaña (2016), where an initial cycle of "fairly direct" (p. 69) identification was followed by the "classifying, prioritizing, integrating, synthesizing, abstracting, conceptualizing and theory building" (p. 69) of the second cycle. The use of analytic memos (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Saldaña, 2016) also figured into the coding protocol to support the cycle of "researcher reflexivity" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 44).

Further researcher analysis of the data were supported by the software program NVivo. The program supplemented the coding process in the areas of "retrieving and reviewing common passages or segments that relate to two or more code labels" and "supporting the researcher to conceptualize different levels of abstraction" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, pp. 214–215). Coding tables are presented later in this chapter.

Data Analysis

Coding data does not take place as a single process of analysis, but is an "interpretive act" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 5). Coding takes place heuristically, which Saldaña (2016) defined as an "exploratory problem-solving technique without specific formulas" (p. 9). Data analysis took place using a phenomenologically situated coding methodology. Saldaña (2016) wrote of the following steps, which were used as a model by the researcher for data analysis:

> Butler-Kisber (2010, pp. 50-61) advises that the phenomenological process consists of extracting verbatim "significant statements" from the data, "formulating meanings" about them through the researcher's interpretations, clustering these meanings into a series of organized themes, then elaborating on the themes through rich written description. (p. 200)

Because "phenomenology is not a singular concept, idea, or methodology" (Vagle, 2014, p. 51), the researcher further developed how particular phenomenological approaches informed the coding process earlier in the chapter.

Data were coded through several cycles of data analysis. The coding process consisted of a two-cycle methodology (Saldaña, 2016). Saldaña (2016) described the purpose of the coding process as being "in service to thinking. The insights . . . about social phenomena emerge . . . from the analytic connections . . . [constructed] and

[reported]" (p. 80). First cycle coding, which is presented in Table 3.1, is described as "fairly direct" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 69). Two in vivo coding (Saldaña, 2016) methodologies were used by the researcher for first cycle coding. Etymology of the term *in vivo* means "that which is alive" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 105). This origin of the term helps to support the alignment of the in vivo coding methodology with phenomenological inquiry, which seeks to analyze "understanding experiences as lived" (Peoples, 2021, p. 3).

Table 3.1

First Cycle Coding: Coding According to Janks Terminology Excluding Research Question Language

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Access	4	17
Design	3	10
Diversity	3	20
Power	4	32

The two in vivo coding methodologies used by the researcher were processes of initial coding and concept coding (Saldaña, 2016). During the initial coding analysis, the researcher "breaks down qualitative data into discrete parts, closely examines them and compares them for similarities and differences" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 115). In vivo coding is an open ended approach that provides the researcher with "analytic leads" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 115). The second round of in vivo coding (Saldaña, 2016) used a concept coding approach. A *concept* is defined by Saldaña (2016) as "an idea" (p. 119) that which "symbolically represents a suggested meaning broader than a single item or action – a 'bigger picture'" (p. 119). Concept coding fit with the goals of the research study, which

included identifying aspects of participating teachers' pedagogical choices in relationship to theoretical constructs of critical literacy. Saldaña (2016) wrote, "Concept Codes are appropriate for studies focused on theory and theory development" (p. 120), further supporting the appropriateness of using this coding methodology for the study.

Saldaña (2016) placed "themeing the data" (p. 198) at the end of their discussion of first cycle coding, as the process has elements that overlap second cycle coding. Second cycle coding is analytic and refines the coding process with methods of "reorganizing and reconfiguring . . . transformed work" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 212). Organizing the previously coded study data into themes aligns with the research project process because "themes serve phenomenology" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 199). The process of themeing the data, Saldaña (2016) wrote, "organizes a group of repeating ideas" (p. 199) before having been processed by reflective understanding on the part of participants.

Second Coding Cycle

Use of coding software served not to limit findings, but, rather, was implemented with the goal of "staying immersed in the information and the entire experience rather than using it to cut data down to smaller more manageable parts" (Peoples, 2021, p. 67). Upon confirmation of coding results, provided by the use of NVivo software, the researcher then analyzed the data to highlight examples of how critical stance revealed themselves in the data. This is what distinguishes the two parts of reporting the results of the study: the first part discusses what might be done as critical literacy practice; the second part of Chapter 4 discusses how it is done, using actionable expressions of "attitudes and dispositions" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. xxxi) of the teachers participating in

the study. Pennycook (1999, as cited by Lewison, 2015) further explained the difference with a contrasting view, noting, "Taking a critical approach . . . does not entail introducing a 'critical element' into a classroom but rather involves and attitude, a way of thinking and teaching" (p. 13); later, Lewison et al. (2015) used the word "mindset" (p. 13) as an alternate way to describe critical stance.

Role of Coding Software in Analysis

Peoples (2021) cautioned that some practitioners of phenomenological approaches view the use of coding software with suspicion. These critiques focus on detaching the researcher from what should be an immersive experience, in which language can only symbolically approximate (van Manen, 2014). Phenomenology is "interpretive" (Vagle, 2014, p. 56) and critics of software believe the machine "separates the researcher from the data" (Peoples, 2021, p. 66). Peoples (2021) also cited a critique that software "instrumentalizes a process that should be intuitive" (p. 66). Peoples (2021) also pointed out, for van Manen, software "hinders abductive reasoning" (p. 66). van Manen (2014) described abduction as "the moment when a sudden leap occurs that makes insight possible" (p. 344).

The researcher used software as a tool, and not as a sole means to finalize findings. Use of software informed and confirmed immersion of data by the researcher. The role of technology was also diminished due to the multiple cycles of coding, which produced insight into the findings through the circular process of repeated exposure to interview transcripts. Peoples (2021) suggested researchers "discuss what moved you in the analysis and prioritize the findings in relation to what was illuminated for you as the

researcher" (p. 68). This idea of illumination is important in explaining the second section of findings, as the researcher, through multiple coding cycles, understood the process of data analysis as "emergent . . . data emerge and change during analysis" (Peoples, 2021, p. 58). What this understanding meant for this particular study is that through successive coding cycles, a second group of data needed to be reported by the researcher.

Coding Data Tables

Each of the tables (Table 3.2 - Table 3.9) represents a cycle of coding. Information regarding context of terminology, listed in the "Code" column, is presented with each table. "Interview files" denotes the number of interviews, 9 total, were represented with found codes. "Total reference segments" identifies how many individual segments pertaining to the code were found.

Table 3.2

First Cycle Coding: Coding by Research Questions

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
RQ1 Teacher Role	8	81
RQ2 Writing Valued	8	34
RQ3 Language	8	22
RQ4 Pedagogy	9	136
• Importance of success	2	3
• Lesson examples	2	2
• Lessons scaffolding	5	15
• Modeling	3	5
• Multimodal	5	11

Note. This table represents first cycle coding according to Research Questions with inductive methodology, meaning codes were emergent and data driven (Saldaña, 2016).

Table 3.3

First Cycle: Inductive Coding

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Assessment of writing	6	28
Audience	5	16
Community	5	11
"Community of writers"	1	12
COVID-19	4	21
Creativity	5	18
Curriculum	5	46
• Institutional curriculum	6	25
• Standards	5	12
Differentiation	5	14
Dominant language skills	1	1
Education writing gurus	1	1
Ela teacher pressure	2	11
Giftedness curriculum	3	15
High expectations	3	7
Learning process	3	21
• Writing as fun	5	16
Lessons	5	36
• Lessons: class discussion	3	6
• Lessons: critical improvement	4	41
• Lessons: critical ed steps	4	24
• Lessons: as representation	4	10
• Lessons: cultural	4	12
• Lessons: feedback	1	4
• Lessons: graphic organizers	1	1
• Lessons: mini lessons	2	10
• Lessons: modality of teaching	4	18
• Lessons: modeling	5	18
• Lessons: scaffolding	3	12
• Lessons: self-choice (student)	3	9
• Lessons: skill repetition	4	12
• Lessons: topic concern	1	3
National writing project	1	2
Pharos	6	15
• Pharos: working writers	5	14
Professional development general	4	18
Professionalization of writing	3	16

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Purpose of writing	6	18
Real world writing	2	17
Relational actions	6	33
• Relational actions: social-emotional	6	26
Research process	2	4
School & district structure	5	30
Social justice	5	31
• Social justice: everyone can write	4	6
Special populations	4	9
• Special populations: language learners, ELL	2	5
Student resistance	6	15
Student self-expression	6	29
• Student empowerment	1	3
Successful & positive feedback to students	4	17
Teacher as writer	4	27
Teacher development	4	44
Teacher personality	6	27
• Teacher split personality	2	3
Teacher self-reflection	4	58
Teaching writing	5	67
• Professional development in teaching writing	5	12
Time in class writing	1	3
Urban schooling	2	18
Writing across curriculum	2	4
Writing process	3	3
Writing topics	3	8

Note. This table represents first cycle emergent coding

Table 3.4

Second Cycle Coding: Coding by Critical Stance Domains

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Consciously engaging	9	106
Alternate ways of being	9	138
Taking responsibility to inquire	9	155
Being reflective	9	192

Note. This table represents domains of critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015).

Table 3.5

Second Cycle Coding: Coding by Critical Stance Domain - Consciously Engaging

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Proactive responding	8	53
Truth naming	8	31
Power relationships	9	38
Reframing	7	20
Attention to language	3	7
Options available	8	56

Table 3.6

Second Cycle Coding: Coding by Critical Stance Domain - Entertaining Alternate Ways of Being

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
New Discourses and identities	9	53
Risk taking	8	21
Parts may not be working	9	35
Using tension as a resource	8	35
Multimodal multimediated	9	49

Table 3.7

Second Cycle Coding: Coding by Critical Stance Domain - Taking Responsibility to Inquire

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Questions, interrogating the everyday	9	76
Knowledge construction	8	26
Pushing beliefs out of resting places	9	46
Cycle of new knowledge	9	54
Beyond initial understandings	9	53

Table 3.8

Second Cycle Coding: Coding by Critical Stance Domain - Being Reflective

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Complicity in status quo	8	51
Questioning literacy practices	9	152
Dialogue & debate with others	9	111
Reframe & retheorizing	9	67
Praxis: Reflection & action	9	83

Table 3.9

Second Cycle Coding: Coding by Themeing the Data

Code	Interview files	Total reference segments
Beliefs about writing	9	82
Purpose of writing	9	66
Teacher "stance" first	9	60
Technical-relational	9	84

Contrary Data

Coded data tables are provided for transparency regarding reporting the findings. Data excluded from the study were removed by the researcher for two reasons. First, data findings were excluded because of reporting limitations, meaning manageable study length. The second purpose by which data were excluded was because findings were not within the direct scope of the study topic. The reported themes were driven by the focus outlined by the research questions and several cycles of investigation into the data.

The data analysis did reveal two areas where study findings did not align with the survey of literature in Chapter 2. First, one set of literature made connections between writing teachers and the teacher being a writer themselves (Kaplan, 2008; Whitney, 2014; Yagelski, 2012). This notion is especially tied to the work of the National Writing Project

(Kaplan, 2008; Yagelski, 2009, 2012). The study data did identify Brandon does have a consistent writing practice, and two other participating teachers have a background in writing practice; yet, no results addressed this literature topic in detail. The second topic that did not correlate with the data involved writing practices for authentic audiences. Though one participating teacher did address an assignment for a public audience, and two other teachers validated the importance of real-world writing, the four teachers participating in the study did not discuss significant experiences of having their students practice writing for real-world audiences; for example, publishing their student work. The partner organization, Pharos, does have experience and has published student work. The researcher is sympathetic to Brandon's explanation that elaborate use of technology and processes required to produce material for authentic audiences can produce additional work for instructors.

Validity and Reliability

It is important to recognize validity has a different meaning in a qualitative study and is not a reflection of generalizability (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Given that Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Creswell and Poth (2018) suggested using multiple-validity procedures "to check accuracy of the findings" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 200), the researcher relied on the following strategies throughout the research process: (a) member checking after each interview, (b) rich, thick description, (c) clarification of bias, as evidenced by Researcher Description section in Chapter 1, and (d) presenting of negative of discrepant information. The researcher attempted to secure

additional documentation, specifically curriculum documents, from the subjects to deepen the data analysis process.

Intercoder Agreement Protocol

To support the goal of disseminating high quality research, the researcher used an intercoder agreement protocol, where "two or more coders agree on codes" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 202). Campbell et al. (2013) have presented methodology guidelines for intercoding agreements suggested for single researchers working with semistructured interviews, such as this study. Campbell et al. (2013) defined *intercoder reliability* (ICR) as "two or more equally capable coders operating in isolation from each other select[ing] the same code for the same unit of text" (p. 297). O'Connor and Joffe (2020) described the function that executing an ICR can have on the results being reported, noting:

> One undeniably important element of ICR is an external quality-signaling function. Reporting ICR can help persuade readers that the analysis was performed conscientiously and consistently . . . ICR can thus serve as a badge of trustworthiness. (p. 3)

Campbell et al. (2013) defined the "unitization problem" (p. 302) as a particular challenge for working with coded text. The authors explained this challenge is because the "text to be coded – the units of analysis – are not naturally given . . . but require the subjective interpretation of the coder" (Campbell et al., 2013, p. 302). The solution Campbell et al. provided is to have a second coder work with deidentified coded passages. Campbell et al. (2013) explained providing such textual units "eliminates a potential source of confusion when comparing the coding of two or more coders" (p. 304). To implement a process of ICR, the researcher contacted the chair of the Research Methods and Statistics department at University of Denver to secure a list of names of

qualified coders for this purpose. Ethics of compensating the coder was also discussed with both the study advisor and the department chair, and was subsequently cleared.

Upon securing the services of a second coder, the researcher provided them with a first cycle codebook document, which contained definitions and criteria for inclusion or exclusion of codes used with the data (see Table 3.10).

Table 3.10

First Cycle Codebook - Research Questions

Code	Code description
Identity as teacher	Excerpt indicates relationship to teacher's particular self-identity as a teacher, a distinct and separate identity.
Power Interpersonal power with students	Excerpt shows teacher attention to interpersonal and social-emotional aspects of relationships in working with students. Interpersonal relationships are valued and are indicated by a purposeful enactment between student and teacher. Teacher perceives or identifies relationship/s as valued aspect of working with students. Power is not held by teacher, but is "acquired, appropriated, resisted, or reconceptualized" (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 19) in exchanges and relationships between students and teacher.
Power Power with students	Excerpt indicates example of explicit or implicit power distributed between teacher and student. Power is not explicitly held by teacher or dictated by teacher, it is shared or relational, and student/s have some type of voice or ability to express subjectivity or agency.
Power Power with writing curriculum and relationship with pharos	Excerpt indicates example of teacher negotiating or navigating a power relationship with writing curriculum, where the curriculum is not the source of all power. This is often negotiated through planning lessons or classroom activities, in addition to control of the identity which predominates for the teacher in this negotiation. For example, is the teacher negotiating the curriculum as educator first or writing teacher first?

Code	Code description
Power Power with school institution	Excerpt indicates example of teacher having some power in relationship with school or district institution. This power is often taken by an action on part of the teacher, and the relationship of the institution is relational in that it selects where to police, hinder, or stifle this power. The power can be perceived or actual.

Under separate cover, the second coder was provided with 145 excerpts, or textual units (Campbell et al., 2013) of coded text by the primary researcher. These texts consisted of 15% of the coded segments, well within the 10% named as a reasonable number by Campbell et al. (2013). These coded data units were randomized, meaning text from all participants was mixed together. A numerical system selected text for the second coder at random; for example, every fourth data unit. A brief list of instructions accompanied the packet (see Appendix J). The second coder process was also within relevant IRB procedures, and the second coder only had access to deidentified data; for example, only pseudonyms were available to the second coder. Another feature protecting anonymity was that because coded text was randomized, further complicating the grouping of text according to participants.

The researcher's coded segments were of variable length, but this practice followed Campbell et al.'s (2013) strategy of "focusing on meaning units rather than naturally given units of some sort" (p. 303). The 15% of coded segments provided to the second coder amounted to 145 segments of coded text. Of the 145 segments, the second coder applied the same code to 102 segments, resulting in a simple proportion agreement percentage of 70.3%. According to Campbell et al. (2019), "there is, unfortunately no agreed upon threshold for what constitutes a numerically satisfactory level of agreement"

(p. 310). The second coder's 70.3% agreement fell within the lower portion of one of the listed data points, "Fahy (2001) held that an intercoder reliability range of 70% to 94% was 'acceptable' to 'exceptional' for his analysis of transcripts" (as cited by Campbell et al., 2013, p. 310). One possibility for a lower ICR was that longer segments, such as those used by the researcher, "tends to reduce reliability relative to coding sentences or a few words" (Campbell et al., 2013, p. 305). Of the 145 segments, 60% were longer than 100 words. Because not all codes had the equal probability of being used, and both coders did not have similar understanding of the codes, Campbell et al. (2013) indicated a statistic often applied, such as Krippendorff's X coefficient, was not applicable for this particular study. The researcher used a proportion agreement method (Campbell et al., 2013) for analysis. Although Campbell et al. (2013) explained this method is "not ordinarily recommended" (p. 309), they did note there are areas where it is acceptable. The purpose for using this method in this particular study was not for formal statistical analysis (Campbell et al., 2013), but to "increase the consistency and transparency of the coding process . . . [and] insure the final analytic framework represents a credible account of the data" (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020, p. 2). The work of the second coder also informed the researcher's second coding cycles by establishing stronger code definitions and applications.

Limitations of Methodology

The most important point to emphasize regarding a qualitative method such as phenomenological research is that it is not generalizable (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The lack of generalizability is an important philosophical distinction, as "the intent of this

form of inquiry is not to generalize findings to individuals, sites, or places outside of those under study" (Gibbs, 2007; as cited in Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 202). A second very important limitation is the positionality of the researcher (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), as interpretation of this study is informed by the researcher's background and biases. This information has been presented directly and transparently and is discussed where relevant throughout the study. A third limitation to study methodology is the decentered nature of teacher participants. Because the focus of the study was on teachers who work with a professional writing organization, by design the study participants worked across four different schools and three school districts. This variation means no unifying features of setting can inform study findings. The lack of a unifiying setting in the study is especially important as it relates to a "status quo" secondary school, which is not represented in the study. Discussion related to the absence of "status quo" schools are considered in Chapter 5.

Ethical Considerations

The researcher was committed to high ethical standards throughout the research process. One way this standard was established was documented through the IRB process, especially in the area of human subjects research. Areas of particular concern received added attention, which are reviewed here.

One area of particular attention was with the Pharos partnership. Although the study did not fall into the category of community based research (CBR), the researcher was committed to developing a mutually beneficial partnership with the organization. This commitment meant the researcher solicited input from the organization regarding

research questions. The researcher also worked to listen to Pharos codirectors regarding perceived areas of inquiry that could be addressed in the research as part of a process of "developing trust" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 88). The researcher committed to providing the organization with research briefs (P. Viskanta, personal communication, March 27, 2020). An additional area of heightened scrutiny by the researcher was electronic security of all identifiable information to protect participants' identities. Another area of caution involved working during the research process to respect potential power imbalances between researcher and participants, and avoiding only disclosing positive results (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Finally, the COVID-19 global pandemic beginning in March 2020 added additional ethical and safety considerations; for example, the researcher adhered to all required procedures to maintain the health and safety of participants. Safety protocols for the study included understanding that the participant teachers were working in ad hoc, recently developed conditions. The research design took the evolving COVID-19 global pandemic into consideration, and when initially proposed, research was able to continue, even amid various safety measures in place during the duration of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

As outlined earlier in this study, organizing concepts present in all of the questions are ideas related to the intersection of critical literacies and pedagogical practice. The questions posed to the research participants were conceptualized with a phenomenological lens, with the purpose of:

> Trying to slow down and open up how things are experienced, as scientists, theologians, students, teachers . . . [how they] are doing what they do. Phenomenologists want to study the lifeworld . . . the world as it is lived, not the world as it is measured, transformed, represented, correlated, categorized, compared, and broken down. (Vagle, 2014, p. 22)

The study's aim was to inquire into the lived experiences of teachers who have collaborated with a professional writer's organization. These pedagogical experiences were grouped in the research questions using concepts related to (a) the role of the teacher, (b) teachers' beliefs about school-based writing, (c) teachers' ideas about language in school-based writing, and finally, (d) how teachers have been influenced by collaborating with an organization. The language of experiences, influences, and lived ideas were all used through a phenomenological lens to manifest discussions from participants on their experiences.

The phenomenological method of data analysis for the study focused on constructed relationships to better understand, as Vagle (2016) noted, "what it is like as we *find-ourselves-being-in-relation-with-others* (e.g., teacher with students, nurse with patient, therapist with client) and *other things* (e.g., a good book, some bad news, our

favorite activity, an anxiety)" (p. 20). For this study, the relationship analyzed was how teachers who work in collaboration with a professional writing organization experience the phenomenon of writing instruction during their classroom teaching practices.

As a methodology that seeks to identify what constitutes particular experiences as they are lived, phenomenological analysis cannot isolate a particular experience—in this case, the teaching of writing—from other encounters experienced by teachers. All participants expressed a more focused understanding of their particular roles as educators when addressing writing as the subject of instruction; yet, no substantial data indicated they perceived their role as "teacher of writing" different from their global roles as in-classroom teachers of English-language arts (ELA), a subject that includes writing, reading, and other types of literacy. Put simply, the teachers' stances and beliefs were, according to the data, experienced as a holistic construction, not just limited to when they teach writing. This finding meant, although the study questions focused on the teaching of writing, participants' experiences were not able to be separated from their full experiences of teaching their particular subjects in the classroom. This inability to isolate experiences aligns with an understanding that "lived experiences themselves may seem to lack clear boundaries–beginnings and ends" (Adams & van Manen, 2017, p. 782). Although the researcher maintained a focus on writing instruction throughout the analysis, the nature of the methodology is such that data examination included experiences interconnected or associated with teaching that were not able to be isolated.

The research findings are presented in two sections. The first set of findings correlates to the research questions, and findings are presented as themes related to each

of the study questions. The second set of data analysis is presented as a result of findings from early data reviews, which indicated further analysis and reporting was necessary using a different organizational framework.

The research analysis is structured by participant, in alphabetical order. By reporting thematic data by participant, the researcher sought to maintain the individual experiences of teachers in their different respective contexts. Context is not a topic the researcher experienced directly, but it was experienced via data from each teacher. The choice of reporting data as individuals in this section was decided intentionally, and is different from a more traditional use of phenomenological practice in general narratives (Peoples, 2021), a distinction addressed in Chapter 3. In brief, the choice of individual narratives was made to maintain features of participant identity and individual voice.

To support understanding of how the reporting of data are organized in this chapter, Table 4.1 (presented in two parts) outlines findings and denotes in what section they appear in Chapter 4.

Table 4.1

Research Findings

Chapter 4 section	Research question or theoretical model	Finding
Part 1	RQ1: How do the experiences with an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's perception regarding his her role as teacher in school-based-writing?	Finding 1: Teachers in the study valued an expanded view of writing, both as an art form and a means of communication. Finding 2: For teachers in the study, relationships come first.

Chapter 4 section	Research question or theoretical model	Finding
		Relationships precede teaching of content.
Part 1	RQ2: How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teachers' beliefs about the writing that is valued in school-based writing?	Finding 3: Teachers in the study working with an out-of-school writing Discourse community value writing exercises that provide opportunities for student empowerment through the written word.
		Finding 4: Teachers in the study working with an out-of-school writing Discourse community connect writing practices to student expression, which is highly valued by the participant teachers.
Part 1	RQ3: How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's ideas about language in school-based writing practices?	Finding 5: Two out of the four teachers in the study working with an out-of-school writing Discourse community understand that the teacher's viewpoint regarding use of languages other than English can validate aspects of student identity.
Part 1	RQ4: How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community integrate to influence pedagogical practices?	Finding 6: The teachers in the study all deemphasize formal standardized assessments in their pedagogical practices.
		Finding 7: The teachers in the study all use research-based teaching strategies. The most common strategies include scaffolding, differentiation, direct instruction, and peer review.

Chapter 4 section	Research question or theoretical model	Finding
Part 2	Instructional model of critical literacy	Finding 8: The teachers in the study all use elements of real-world pedagogy in their approach to the practice of writing in their classrooms. Finding 9: All teachers in the study embodied critical stance, the "attitudes and dispositions we take on that enable us to become critically literate beings" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. xxi). The elements of critical stance, each supported by research data, are: • consciously engaging, • entertaining alternate ways of being, • taking responsibility to inquire, and • being reflexive (Lewison, et al., 2015)

Part 1: Research Question Findings

RQ1: How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's perception regarding his her role as the teacher in school-based writing?

To analyze perspectives of the teachers' roles, the researcher first made sure to clarify what the word role encompassed in relation to lived experience. Webster's Dictionary (n.d.) suggested that a *role* is "a function or part performed especially in a particular operation or process" (para. 4). In the case of this study, *functions* are the pedagogical moves that teachers experience in the process of teaching writing. Moreover,

performed refers to how each teacher embodies or gives expression to aspects of their assigned roles as educational leaders in their classroom.

Writing Is Deeply Valued

One research finding was that all of the teachers in the study deeply value writing as a practice. The participants in this study had an expansive view of writing, and valued writing as both an art form and a means of communication. This finding meant each of the teachers' lived experiences recognized the value of writing as both a skill required for scholastic success and as an appreciation (or connoisseurship; Eisner, 1976) of the practice of writing as a creative endeavor. For the teachers in the study, writing was not simply a skill connected to a list of standards, as in B. Street's (2003) autonomous model, but also a creative endeavor linked to their students' personal experiences. This personal connection is important, because it seemed to contribute to the teachers' comfort in working with an outside group to share the construction and delivery of their classroom lessons. Constructing a view of writing as more than a school-based skill not only influenced classroom activities, but extended to the ELA teachers' sense of their identities as instructors responsible for teaching a number of connected literacies. One example of how writing was valued by the teachers emerged from three secondary writing teachers, Jonathan, Catherine, and Winona, who each had a separate elective ELA class dedicated to the practice of creative writing.

Brandon: Value of Writing

Brandon created a specific writing workshop class, illustrating the value they place on the practice of writing so as to include it as an ongoing course in his school's

structure. Offering an advanced writing class centers Jonathan's connection with writing; they stated, "The writer's group I do and the culture I create in my classrooms, that all comes out of my own passion and love for expressing myself and so it seems central to my [teaching] practice." Similarly, this value Brandon places on writing, which resulted in the creation of a specific class, was perceived as translating to student success. Brandon's lived experience centers writing as a "passion" they "love," and the creation of a specific class, together translates to experiencing student engagement. Brandon described the writing class as a rite of passage for students at their school, noting:

> My basic writing class has been around for so long that almost every student takes it. It's really everything a high school kid needs to know about writing and it's really effective. It has a really good reputation . . . people who hate writing really like the class.

Brandon described a class that serves school-based writing goals and is also a place outside of the formal ELA class sequence where writing as a creative form and passion is practiced and engaged. Although carving out a class might indicate that creative writing is prioritized, Brandon articulated both creative and scholastic writing occurs simultaneously with success.

Catherine: Value of Writing

Catherine also teaches, and advocates for, a class specifically for nonstandardized writing, called creative writing. Catherine's lived experiences have informed their perception of the significance of "fun and playful" practices in a "safe" style of writing

instruction. Catherine's connection with these types of writing experiences informs the role they assume in creative writing class, and they stated:

> We're working really hard to make it fun and playful, and experimental and make it really safe to just try to . . . let's play with their word combinations. Let's play with how we might describe this scene . . . that's my style.

Catherine used the inclusive "we," indicating an understanding and experience of the class as a collective and communal unit. The use of "we" indicated the class is not experienced through a single teacher's viewpoint. Though Catherine's class (as with Brandon's class) functions outside of ELA requirements, there is still a structured curriculum that involves age-appropriate learning goals. One example of this structure comes from peer writing workshops. Catherine noted, "In a class that's just creative writing, for example, then there really is time to do peer writing workshops. I give them a structure."

Winona: Value of Writing

Both Catherine and Winona distinguished their creative writing classes from institutionally structured ELA classes by mentioning time constraints that limit time for writing in required courses. Existing literature supports the importance of time as a factor in improving writing instruction (Graham, 2019). Catherine noted:

> We just run out of time. In the class, like 10th-grade LA, 11th-grade LA [language arts], where we need to do a lot of writing and a lot of reading and a lot of research and a lot of speaking, we just run out of time [to do more creative writing practice].

Winona, the eighth-grade teacher, also established time is a principal constraint regarding the types of writing that can be done in a required English class, stating:

> Not that we don't do creative writing in my normal English class, but obviously, it's one of many genres that I feel pressured by the standards to hit. I also have to teach them. So, in ELA, I have to teach compare and contrast, use of transitional phrases, of blending quotations, and active versus passive voice, and how to adequately paraphrase, and subject–verb agreement, and all these other pressures that I don't have in my elective.

The data suggested both Catherine and Winona experienced time as a significant constraint on their abilities to expand their writing curricula. They experienced this constraint even with programming in their schedules to include creative writing classes; they both expressed their desire to do more non-school-based writing in the standard class structure. Winona listed all of the skills they are required to address, which emphasized how the checklist-oriented Discourse of school-based standards is experienced by a teacher. Although Winona combines writing skills for particular lessons, their inner experience reflected one of multiple autonomous skills. Winona, much like Brandon and Catherine, also addressed how their discrete creative writing course tries to expand on the type of writing done in schools. Winona reflected on telling students:

> I might give you tips on your grammar or . . . your use of punctuation . . . [but] this elective is about the pieces of writing you're doing . . . [my focus is] it's, are you, are you embracing the genre that we're . . . that we're writing for.

Winona's comment specifically distinguished between rule and standards-based writing, and writing as an act in and of itself. Winona's choices are supported by research. Hillocks (2008) noted study findings that have found a limited effectiveness of teacher comments on writing. In addition, Hillocks also noted an additional finding that correcting a paper for comments are "complicated by differences between the teacher's and students' values and knowledge" (p. 323). This finding raises questions about how effective teachers instinctively feel in communicating comments and corrections on student papers. Winona, like Catherine, also used terms similar to "fun" when distinguishing the expanded freedom associated with a class solely focused on writing.

Both teachers experienced their additional class as a place of greater autonomy, allowing for independence from particular school-based expectations and limits. Winona stated, "The creative writing elective, I feel like that role for me . . . was very different . . . because I tried to make the elective as laid back as humanly possible." Later in the interviews, Winona mentioned they were given permission in the creative writing class to "do all the fun, creative writing styles that I don't have time to do in my normal English class. A month, 2-month long poetry unit. [Laughter.] Versus the crammed 3 weeks I'm able to do poetry normally." The attention to standards and curricular goals, even in an elective writing class, showed that in both class content and lived experience, the creative writing course Winona taught was still driven by curricular principles. Yet in the elective course, there was a simultaneous focus for the teacher on disentangling the work of writing with standardized external goals, as indicated by Winona's introductory statement to class. The result of the teachers' Discourse between the two classes indicated writing

practices that are introduced in the participant teachers' creative writing classes do not originate from a scholastic imperative. Although school-based requirements were still evident in Winona's creative writing class curricula, the teachers' value of writing was primarily shown to grow out of their experiences of teaching and practicing writing, a place of personal importance, and wanting to share this means of communication with their students. This indicates that in the creative writing classes, where teachers are given freedom, the teachers still feel a pedagogical responsibility to address a range of writing skills that includes school-based writing expectations.

Relationships Come First

Because the participating teachers all had relationships with the Pharos Young Writers Workshop (Pharos; pseudonym), data from the study indicated there was a strong connection to the type of teacher who seeks out collaboration with a professional writing organization. It appeared engaging in the Pharos Discourse community and inviting professional writers to their classrooms were actions associated with teachers with a particular trait: one that values relationships and treats students as independent agents rather than things. In contrast to the banking model of education, introduced by Freire (1970, 2018), all four teachers in the study discussed empathetic, authentic relationships with their students. The participant teachers each shared extensive examples about fostering relationships with their students, and the importance of these mutual relationships to their roles as teachers.

For the teachers in the study, the importance of teacher–student relationships and community precede the content they teach, irrespective of whether that content involves

reading or writing. An additional finding related to fostering relationships is safety and care were also more specifically linked by all four teachers to their writing instruction. Importantly, although this finding is related to the teachers' participation in the out-of-school Discourse community, this study could not fully explain the order of events related to this shared trait; namely, this research could not address whether the participant teachers, because they had relational qualities, were more likely to seek out collaboration with a group, or to what extent the experience of collaboration influenced their relational practices.

Brandon: Relationships

Brandon noted differences in the way relationships are experienced in their standard ELA classes versus the writing workshop elective. Safety and care are modulated differently in each context. Both classes require elements related to what is called the "ethic of care" (Noddings, 2005, p. xv). In terms of the teachers' general education classes, "care" for Brandon specifically related to trauma associated with previous writing experiences. Brandon noted:

> It was really obvious from the very beginning that a lot of kids were closed, most kids were closed to the instruction [of writing] because their feelings and their self-worth, and their identity was coupled with the criticism, the red ink that came back on their pages. And so Step 1 [in teaching writing] was decouple that, you know, take the shame out of it, take the pain out of it.

This focus on safety as a primary factor in teaching writing to the "broad population of students," as opposed to the writing workshop elective, was further supported as Brandon addressed the subject again at a later point:

> So when I teach writing to further the broad population of my students . . . it starts from the standpoint that most of these kids are carrying trauma from previous writing experiences and that how that manifests in them is they shut down. They feel like they're stupid, and so they have these different defenses.

Although Brandon did not specifically use the term reluctant writers, manifestation of writing hesitancy is central to this population of students. Brandon's acknowledgement and attention to these social–emotional indicators revealed how a primary relational stance precedes writing instruction. Writing instruction is not a separate pedagogical task for this teacher, but one informed by the experience of interacting with students. By using the phrase "the broad population of my students," Brandon indicated one purpose of writing for them was writing knowledge that is specifically tied to expanding access to writing skills for reluctant writers. Writing should not be a secluded province of a limited group of students who show particular affinity for the practice and writing abilities. This finding is another example of how practices that primarily discuss writing as a discrete set of skills overlook qualitative questions, such as if the writing teacher's view of writing is ideological (B. Street, 2003). Brandon noted he experiences all of his students as individuals first, and particular experiences worthy of acknowledgement function as a relational foundation for the rest of his teaching.

Brandon's advanced writing students in the writing workshop class are also met with care, but are self-selected; thus, they have greater capacity for listening to critique. One step Brandon gave as an example, indicative of a shift to a greater sense of security with writing, involved taking on the title of writer. Brandon noted, "They want to be there, they identify as writers . . . I can push them harder. I can speak more candidly about their shortcomings that – they have the resources to hear that and they want that." At another point in the interviews, Brandon again used the title of writer as a differentiator between nuanced pedagogical choices made for different populations of students; they noted, "The general population [of students] is not as invested [in writing] . . . If they don't come with that investment [that] they see themselves as a writer, it's more difficult to create [safety with writing instruction]." The differentiation of different levels of comfort with writing again exemplifies actions that show the teacher understands their students' realities and modifies instruction to specifically meet their academic and social–emotional needs. Care is also exemplified with writing workshop students through the process of introducing the extensive practice it takes for professional writing expertise. For this group, in an experience Brandon indicated is "universal," care required being realistic about the writing profession. As Brandon stated:

> They [students] come in with a fantasy that they're going to be discovered, and the universal experience is you get your feelings hurt, you realize you have hard work to do . . . And then later on, a year from then you look back at that and it's humorous, and you're grateful for it and the people who give the hardest feedback are the people you value the most.

Brandon's lived experiences of interacting with student trauma, and how trauma affects student writing tasks, informs his pedagogical approach of prioritizing student care. This care is not expressed as sympathy, but empathy. As student resiliency builds, Brandon is able to lead specific classes of self-selected students who call themselves writers, and who are comfortable with a greater level of critique. Brandon describes this critique as the "hardest feedback."

Catherine: Relationships

Catherine has also been informed by experiences that have directly connected their approach to the teaching of writing to students feeling valued. The data that connects Catherine's teaching of writing to how they value students indicated student relationships are a primary consideration for them when taking part in writing instruction. Commenting on the feedback they have received regarding the extensive comments they share on student papers, Catherine said, "A consultant who has been working with us, told me that she thinks that shows the kids that we really care when we do stuff like that. I hadn't really thought about that [commenting on student writing]." Similar to Brandon's intentional work to create a safe environment, Catherine described the experience of connecting particular classroom actions; in this case, connecting the way all papers are read and commented on to what are considered by students (and colleagues) as caring actions. This stage of the writing process has been acknowledged and valued by Catherine's administrators, and Catherine noted:

> I get a lot of support for the way I do it [teach writing] cause we see the kids improving, it's pretty clear. Also, their test scores show that they're getting better.

> So my administrators support me with that. They know from observing me, one of the things I do a lot of is have kids turn in a written assignment to me, and then I write comments, and they go back and revise it. Sometimes two times.

For Catherine, significant relationships at the school site support their knowledge that this added attention to student writing works. The detail with which Catherine gives feedback contributes to their success as a writing teacher and Catherine's relationships with students.

Sharing power is another indicator of care for students. Power sharing in the classroom was shown by Catherine's expressed commitment to have students feel responsible for their own written work. Catherine explained, "I'm trying as much as possible to write the comments in a way that they can figure it out [how to revise] and they feel the ownership over their written piece." This detail indicated Catherine has directly coupled the experience of commenting on student papers with an expressed goal to advance student ownership and independence of their work. Compared to the idea of correcting papers, when something broken is fixed, Catherine's work has an intended social–emotional component; that is, comments are a tool to strengthen student ownership of their writing and support student confidence. The connection Catherine is able to make about the role their comments can serve for students' indicated Catherine also understands, like Brandon, the importance of student confidence and success during the writing process, and that success is a foundation for growth. The idea of success supporting student confidence is evidence based and is included in existing literature on

learning; for example, such a finding aligned with Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (Hyland, 2016; Shabani et al., 2010).

Mary: Relationships

Relationships are also at the center of Mary's work as a teacher. They said, "My mind is on my relationships with the kids more than my mind is on curriculum or what I'm teaching. So, when it comes to writing, it's the same way." For Mary, writing instruction is not experienced as requiring a disposition different from teaching other subjects. Mary prioritized care for students and their relationship with them. Referring to student work, ownership was a word used by Mary, just as it was for Catherine. Mary noted student ownership is a way to indicate that the teaching of writing is seen as successful for students. Mary brought this point up in relation to discussing how students' writing is assessed. Tools, such as peer review and reconstructing school-developed rubrics, were discussed as examples of how Mary encourages student ownership of writing; for example, when addressing district-provided rubrics, Mary shared:

> The rubrics do work on kind of a continuum of building skills, but they're definitely made for adults and not for kids so . . . So I took each thing out, so that they could really focus in on the one skill that they're missing . . . Because otherwise telling a kid like you need to work on your organization they would be like, cool, like I'm 8, I don't know what that means.

Confusion can be a barrier to learning, and in the aforementioned passage, Mary gave two examples of how her pedagogical choices are linked to fostering caring relationships

with students—one about ownership and the other about relating to child-friendly language.

Winona: Relationships

Winona, the eighth-grade ELA teacher, also discussed relationships as a predominant focus of their interactions with students in the classroom. As with the other three participants, data were indicative of strong teachers' values and prioritization of caring relationships, all aligned with the culturally responsive teaching idea of "caring for" (Gay, 2018, p. 58) with students. Winona's social–emotional presence has been further informed by their studies while pursuing a professional psychology certificate. Reflecting on how psychology training might inform relationships with students, they discussed experiences with changes during the year of the study when the COVID-19 global pandemic required distance learning. Winona stated:

> I've always been good at building relationships with students. This year has been trying because I'm not, it's, it's different when you're not in person with them all . . . it's not a normal year . . . Everyone's mental health is struggling . . . It's influenced me as a teacher this year as far as like, do they really need to do one more assignment . . . can I just tell them to like go be a kid . . . go try to do something fun and get your mind off of the state of the world . . . [I'm] more aware of their social emotional state.

In this passage, interview data provided an example of the tension between teachers' focus on students' social–emotional health and instructional goals. Winona indicated preference for caring relationships with their students, showing even with the unique

circumstances of the COVID-19 global pandemic, Winona continued to foster a reasonable level of learning engagement to show awareness of student well-being amid the effects of distance learning. The empathy and attentiveness to student needs, similar to the evidence shown with other participants indicates how the writing teachers all valued and understood the primacy of mutual relationships with their students. In the passage, Winona recalled how relationships come before the curriculum. Later in the interview sequence, Winona gave an example of how greater awareness of social–emotional skills might function in the classroom as they integrate particular skills of social–emotional well-being, saying:

> I was thinking about saying, "Everyone take two minutes to choose your fit like let's do finger breathing together or choose your, I'm going to do finger breathing, you could do mindful breathing or one of the other strategies you've learned before we take the test," just to kind of like "whew," you know, have a focus mindset. So have I done a good job of that yet, no. [Chuckles.] Do I need to, and do I want to, yes, in fact, I'm writing it down.

The breathing and self-care strategies Winona presents to students is experienced as an extension of their teaching role; wherein, Winona combines student social–emotional health with curricular requirements, as in the example given with the test. Winona indicated their students specifically asked for help with these strategies, indicating a symbiotic relationship between role as teacher focusing on curricular priorities and student social–emotional well-being. Winona internalizes and seeks to act on student social–emotional concerns, which substantiated that Winona internalizes student realities.

This listening and response tactic exemplifies a critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015) by taking action after dialogue with students. Winona stated:

> So many kids at the start of the year, just they're like, "I'm always anxious, I'm always stressed . . . not just about school, but about like friends, family stuff going on. What can I do, like we just don't know what to do. I want to learn."

Responding to student interests and what is important to students is in alignment with both critical pedagogy and culturally relevant pedagogy (Gay, 2018). Data showed Winona's classroom focuses on relationships first, meeting the need for their work to be interpersonally relevant.

Findings for Research Question 1, which was constructed to explore the connection between participation in the Pharos community and teachers' perceived role in school-based writing, supported a second finding—that teachers of writing who work with a professional writing organization first see their roles as educators who value and cultivate reciprocal, growth-enabling relationships with their students based on care and empathy. This characteristic, shared by all four educators in the study, seems likely to play a role in the characteristics of teachers who are active about pursuing and inviting professional collaboration to their role of writing instruction.

This section presented two findings regarding Research Question 1. The participating teachers each took their roles as writing instructors seriously. As representatives of writing practice, teachers participating in the study embodied attitudes toward writing practice that showed writing was valued by each instructor beyond its requirement as a school-based skill. The data also showed this positive relationship with

writing was shared and communicated to the students. A second finding regarding the teacher role was the priority for teacher–student relationships. The data showed all four teachers made numerous mentions of how vital relationships were to their teaching, placing it at a higher value than content. These relationships were representative of culturally responsive "caring for" (Gay, 2018, p. 58) relationships, which can result in "improved competence, agency, autonomy, efficacy, and empowerment in both the role functions (student) and quality of being (person)" (Gay, 2018, p. 58).

RQ2: How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's beliefs about the writing that is valued in school-based writing?

Data from the study indicated, when addressing questions related to which types of writing is valued, each of the four teachers in the study acknowledged standards have a place in structuring their curriculum. This finding is important to this study because often in popular discourse, arguments are simplistically framed in either/or terms regarding compliance with standards or individual teacher curricular preferences (Bazerman, 2016; Hillocks, 2008; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Urbanski, 2006; Yagelski, 2012). Data from this study also revealed that types of writing and exercises that correspond to student empowerment were universally valued. As discussed in Chapter 2, this type of writing is what writing studies scholars most often group together to define as *writing process model* (Kirby & Liner, 1988) or *writing workshop approach* (Urbanski, 2006).

For the purpose of the study, the researcher used the term *process writing approach.* The evidence to follow suggested this style is valued as more of an expansive

construct of writing instruction. It is important to reiterate these models of student-centered writing are not separate from, but can encompass genres of school-based writing, for example argument writing. The researcher defined *school-based writing* as tasks explicitly outlined by standards, or writing that follows an autonomous model (B. Street, 2003) of instruction when writing practices are removed from relational contexts. The participant teachers' commitments to the process writing approach were such that even when students were working on school-based writing, whether initiated because of school- or standards-based curricula, the teachers approached the assignments with an expansive view of which writing skills could be addressed to support student interests and expression. This focus on the value of students' expression, in and of itself, was a second finding the data pointed to related to Research Question 2, which asked about types of writing that are valued in school-based settings.

Working with Pharos allowed the teachers represented in the study to show students examples of how professional authors use personal expression in their work and lives. The value placed by the participating teachers on expression from professionals introduced a finding related to the exposure to professionalization of writing; this finding is discussed later in this chapter, when Research Question 4 is addressed; the researcher makes brief mention of it here as professionalization of writing is also related to Research Question 2. Collaboration with professional writers from Pharos using an expansive understanding of writing allowed an opportunity to expand their students' worlds beyond the classroom and their everyday experiences.

Explaining the features of learning that create empowerment, Shor (1992; as cited by Gay, 2018) wrote these features entail:

> [Approaching] individual growth as an active, cooperative, and social process, because the self and society create each other . . . The goals of this pedagogy are to relate personal growth to public life, to develop strong skills, academic knowledge, habits of inquiry, and critical curiosity about society, power, inequality, and change. (p. 41)

Ideas related to student empowerment through writing for the participating teachers is often achieved through what is broadly referred to as student voice. In addition to empowerment, student voice is also the means by which healing begins for some students, which was a topic closely related to empowerment for the participant teachers.

Brandon: Empowerment

One way empowerment is enacted in Brandon's teaching of writing is through the work of his writing workshop class. Brandon explained his role, stating, "I just facilitate it. I have some norms that work and the kids run the group and I do a little bit of facilitation, but just an overall structure." Developed through personal experience, Brandon has created a learning space dedicated to a writing process where students self-select to join a class of students who, as Brandon indicated, identify as writers. This identification results in active participation by students. One example of Brandon's student participatory empowerment is having their work be the focus of feedback on a rotating basis. Students also actively participate in the writing workshop class structure by cooperatively being responsible for managing the class, another form of

empowerment. Brandon described how student growth results from this process of empowerment, which is facilitated by Brandon due to the way the course is structured:

> In the writers group every week, a different author submits. That's a massive assessment. They're super nervous, high stakes. They lose sleep over it, it's a really big deal. So they really put forth their best work and then we're all assessing that in a form together by giving feedback . . . What most kids will find is they learn a lot more giving feedback then receiving feedback. Their practice grows by giving other kids feedback. That's the most powerful growth vector. So that's an assessment to be able to show that you comprehended the piece that you have something critical to say about it, that you can talk about what makes a good story and talk about the elements of the story.

In addition to elements of individual student empowerment, Brandon articulated distinct learning goals, showing evidence of their teacher mindset. The process Brandon has created in the classroom, taken from professional writing process literature (e.g., Goldberg, 1986), is not just superimposed onto his secondary classroom; he has contextualized it for the cognitive stages of his students. Brandon has also made the process cooperative, distinctly taking the self-described role of "facilitator" to make clear that "the kids run the group." Socialization also takes place due to these structures as a third component of empowerment. In addition to the socialization process of group norms, Brandon discussed the lived experience of noticing a pattern of acculturation, as students become socialized to better understand the seriousness of writing. This

socialization is similar to a rite of passage, in that Brandon noticed socialization happens with each new group of writing students.

Catherine: Empowerment

Catherine shared evidence of how they formulate an "active, cooperative, and social process" (Shor, 1992, as cited by Gay, 2018, p. 41) that encourages empowerment by describing how writing feedback is given collaboratively. Catherine noted:

> Sometimes we just sit down together. We both got our computer open when they're – or like right now [during the COVID-19 global pandemic], this is how we're often doing it. We're both looking at their document, they're at home on their screen, and I'm on my screen. We're talking about it as we go and I can see what the student is doing. A student gets stuck and, "I don't know what to do here" . . . What is it you want to say? And sometimes they need help with things like a transition word or yeah a topic sentence.

In this context, the data showed Catherine guiding and modeling the process of revision along with a student, a process that more experienced writers have internalized. Teacher–student collaboration through dialogue and modeling illustrated an example of socializing the student to practice writing techniques of more experienced practitioners. Catherine identified similar approaches as having the goal of empowering the student writer, noting, "I'm trying as much as possible to write the comments [on papers] in a way that they can figure it out and they feel the ownership over their written piece." The use here of the word "ownership" is linked with the idea of empowerment, with the teacher's lived

experience informing their use of techniques for encouraging students to make conscious and self-directed choices in their writing.

Mary: Empowerment

Mary, as with Catherine, also used the word “ownership” to indicate successful experiences promoting student choices. Mary gave an example of how ownership is experienced in class, stating:

> I just really like it when the kids take ownership . . . One of my kids today, I had them share out something their peer feedback partner said they needed to work on and one of my students was like, “yeah, M said that one of my pieces of evidence didn’t match my details, so I need to go back and fix that.”

Mary indicated they have observed the connection between the type of writing valued in their classroom and empowering students in two ways: by making feedback accessible in student-friendly language, and providing examples of professional authors through Pharos. Mary’s project of editing the school-based, district-provided writing rubric is an example of their awareness of the need for clear communication to young writers so they are able to participate in the conversations about writing skills. Mary understands a prerequisite for students to make informed choices in their writing is being able to clearly understand school-based requirements. The language of the school-based objectives represents an example of a disconnect between student abilities and institutional language, resulting in students being disempowered. Mary was clear that for their students, communication is central to successful cooperation required for an empowered classroom focused on writing improvement. Mary said:

> [The rubrics are] definitely made for adults and not for kids . . . I realized that kids have a really hard time setting writing goals when they're just looking at kind of a chunk of text, telling them what they need to do. So I took each [element of the rubric] out, so that they could really focus in on the one skill that they're missing, and that so that I as a teacher know specifically what they need to be working on. Because otherwise telling a kid like you need to work on your organization. They would be like, cool, like I'm 8, I don't know what that means. So instead I can be, 'it looks like you did not have two reasons to support your topic. So you need to make sure that you have those two reasons next time. So really making sure that kids are aware of what they're not quite proficient [in].

As an instructor prioritizing student empowerment, Mary's example of revising a district-provided, school-based resource demonstrated that even with school-based writing tools, a teacher's use of experiential knowledge and student-centered pedagogy requires an "active, cooperative, and social process" (Shor, 1992, as cited by Gay, 2018, p. 41). This supplemental work is done so Mary's students can access the language suggested by the district. Without Mary's intervention, their students would be hindered in participating in the vocabulary of school-based writing. The example of modifying vocabulary for students represented Mary's understanding that their students will not be socialized into a community of writers without being able to work with and possess the language of discussing and improving their work.

Mary associated providing students an example of professional writers with student empowerment for two reasons. First, the Pharos professionals were examples of

the professional possibility of writing as a vocation. Second, these professionals provided exposure to those employed in creative fields for students to see. Mary expressed:

> I had a vision and I was going to make it happen . . . I wanted them to work with an expert poet, because god knows I'm not an expert. And I wanted someone that makes a living creatively. So it can be kind of this role model for kids to see that life isn't always about money, you know, it's about soul and having creative energy and spirit.

Mary then went on to describe an active process with the visiting writers, including coconstructing curriculum:

> The performance task I wanted it to be a poetry night . . . Some sort of community night . . . My goal was to have this poetry night where kids were reading two to three of their own original poems in order to get them there, I wanted them to work with an expert poet.

Mary envisioned this collaboration as a lived encounter of students experiencing a socialization process with a person who represents professional writing. Mary also described observing the student enthusiasm:

> They love Mr. Z [the visiting poet from Pharos] because he is . . . kind of all over the place, so energetic, not the, uh, typical teacher type, and real, yeah, not structured and they, they love different, they love having someone else there. Yeah, good responses for sure.

For Mary, elements of writing instruction that foster greater student ownership include providing students with authentic experiences. Student-friendly rubric language for

assessment is a way of presenting school-based writing tasks in a more authentic structure allowing students to develop a vocabulary to discuss their writing in a way they understand. Inviting professional writers expands student experiences outside of school-based writing practices and dialogue. Finally, community is involved, with Mary extending their lived experiences and understanding of the power of presenting writing in public.

Winona: Empowerment

Winona, the eighth-grade teacher participant, teaches in a district that explicitly expects stronger fealty to standards. Even with this constraint, Winona finds ways to adapt a more rigid writing curriculum so student empowerment is emphasized. Winona noted:

> With argumentative writing in particular. That's usually a pretty ripe opportunity for them to address [writing for a different audience]. If they're writing like a persuasive letter to an organization, like I had a group last year do a letter . . . [to] an aquarium [about animal rights]. So they were writing against an issue.

In situating the occasion of the writing assignment in an authentic context, Winona has improved the focus of the writing exercise to more closely align with an "active, cooperative, and social process" (Shor, 1992, as cited by Gay, 2018, p. 41). Winona's changes have allowed students to participate in civics dialogues, rather than just observe. Another example of Winona modifying an assignment for student relevance and empowerment occurs when they share the collaborative work of planning curriculum with Pharos authors. Winona, who has recently completed a psychology certificate

program and pays attention to her students' social–emotional well-being, worked with professional authors to improve their fear–phobia unit. The unit incorporates research and personal experience and Winona stated:

> They conduct research on, where does it, what are the origins. What are the treatments, etc., etc. How many people are afflicted by it? Then they have to write a narrative that tells a personal story, a personal narrative about a time when [a] fear or phobia impacted them.

Clearly, Pharos provides a resource for a teacher whose vision needs support for execution with students. For Winona, the concept of empowerment is linked with what Murphy and Smith (2020) called "real-world" (p. 6) writing, empowerment has also been termed authentic writing or writing for real purposes (Gallagher, 2006; Graham, 2019; Janks, 2009, 2010). Winona works to include real-world aspects in assignments, whether that means revising school-based curricula or creating their own assignments to situate student work in a familiar and accessible context.

Student Expression

In addition to student empowerment, the teachers in the study all shared data on experiencing connections between the practice of writing and valuing student expression. The data indicated valuing student expression was not a content-neutral idea of valuing any type of expression produced by students. The participating teachers all expressed trying to facilitate curricular opportunities for students to produce written communication relevant to their lived experiences. Among the teachers in the study, one expressed their most valued purpose for writing entailed a structured purpose, with opportunities still

allowing for individual expression and creativity. Whether in their creative writing classes or structured ELA classes, teacher participants described wanting their students to express their identity (or identities) through school-based writing. One concrete way students were supported in expressing their individual identity was teachers allowing for a wide range of topics available for students to explore. Teachers certainly assigned topics as part of their work, but once assignment parameters were established, the available range of what students could consider as topics for writing was modeled after expansive constructs of writing.

Brandon: Student Expression

Brandon did not discuss limiting topics of student writing, which the researcher interpreted as valuing a broad range of available topics; hence, limits were not an expressed value. When student topics were covered with Brandon in interview conversations, the subject discussed largely related to questions and concerns about student safety. Discussing the content of student writing, Brandon stated:

> There's two categories here [about content]. There's, it's outside of school expectations, and it's like, so what, you know, the kids writing, let's just, let's encourage it and get as much out of it as we can, if the kid's tapping into something in their humanity, I want to, I want to help that kid, give it expression. And then there eventually is the line that can and has been crossed where you have safety issues.

Brandon used the words "humanity" and "expression" together. Combining the two words indicated, for Brandon, that a relationship is being expressed. Brandon's lived

experience informs their belief that students’ expression cannot be separated from their humanity. Brandon expressly relegated school-based writing, or what Brandon called “school expectations,” to a less important role than students’ humanity when judging writing content. Brandon’s phrase, “get as much out of it as we can,” also spoke to Brandon’s perception that there is a communal “we,” an entity larger than a single teacher, which can benefit from a student’s expression. Brandon’s understanding of writing having a purpose greater than a particular assignment, and context greater than a single classroom, further indicated value is placed on making space in the classroom for student expression in the school-based writing context that Brandon creates.

Brandon relayed to the researcher two examples on topics of writing that were both issues related to institutional concerns. Brandon is informed by lived experience that societal fears often cause overreaction to student exploration that Brandon often understands as natural adolescent development processes. Often, Brandon has experienced these institutional reactions as causing greater harm. Exploring teachers’ experiences with topics of student writing informed the research question related to what types of writing are valued for several reasons. First, Brandon recalled a particular example of tension between institutional policies (e.g., mandated reporting) and adolescent expression. Second, exploring a teacher’s relationship in the way they manage topics adolescents choose to write about identified a negative experience of inflexible institutional policies. Inflexible institutional policies are a particular concern for a teacher who has decided to work in a nontraditional school, who highly values relationships (which are pliable by nature), in his professional practice. Brandon places the value of

relationship and relatedness at the center of practice, and expressed the reality of their experiences with institutions, commenting:

> I've never had a positive interaction with social services. No matter how bad a kid's situation is, all the hundreds of reports I've filed with social services, the kid stays at home no investigation, it's just super unfortunate.

Brandon also revealed a caution related topics of student writing; namely, valuing student truth can have consequences. In doing so, Brandon's data revealed there are constraints to school-based writing, even with a focus on prioritizing student expression. Through lived experience, Brandon disclosed there are instances of difficult choices when working within a structure such as a public school system. Expressing their most basic principle as first "do no harm," Brandon's lived experience reflected anxiety about managing ethical grey areas, where institutional responsibilities seem incompatible with personal or professional ethics.

In addition to the example of problematic mandated reporting questions, the second issue related to student expression that Brandon discussed involved genre writing; for example, a secondary student might write a type of horror that could be construed as questionable if a teacher was less familiar with a broad range of styles students might emulate. A teachers' effectiveness is evaluating writing content is a question not only of expertise, but also of relationship, which supports Brandon's determination to honor content choices and student expression. When discussing the experience of evaluating a student's horror writing, Brandon asserted:

> If this showed up in any classroom throughout America, I think the teachers' would, the kid would get in trouble. He's really effective at grossing you out [light laughter.] But clearly, it's a genre, clearly he's gifted at it, and, looking at the context of the kid's life, and knowing his parents and his family . . . there's no alarms. He just likes horror . . . Actually, in my own writing practice, I'm stealing some things from him because I've never exposed myself to horror before . . . He teaches me something.

Brandon's evaluation of the students' content was informed by relationship, and was expressed by the noted importance of teacher–student relationship in his analysis of the horror writing. Being guided by relationship informed Brandon of the degree to which they should be concerned about the students' content. Questions of what information teachers rely on to inform them about students' writing content is important to the discussion of what types of writing are valued because, as Brandon noted, ruptures of trust can take place if teachers of writing are not careful and prepared for the wide range of content they can experience when allowing for a broad range of student expression.

Catherine: Student Expression

Catherine noted they have an "anything goes" understanding related to writing that values topic choice in most instances. This perspective aligned with other participants' expressed ideas about allowing a full range of student expression. Catherine was explicit about their views on the purpose of writing, stating, "Writing gives us voice, right?" Elaborating on the purpose of writing, Catherine shared:

> I think another purpose for writing is to process our experiences, so when we write, for example, a poem about our experience or our personal narratives and it can be really healing, also, I think in the process we can discover what was discover something, maybe about the relationship we're describing or about how that experience, what was significant about that experience for us.

Catherine linked student expression through writing to student identity formation and student social–emotional health. Comparing data between Jonathan and Catherine showed different teacher experiences inform how the full range of student expression is valued. Between the two teachers, centering student expression encompassed school-based writing assignments, allowing students to take greater ownership of topics; views on expression can also encompass a broader view of topics, which have less association with school-based writing. These findings point to student expression in writing having an overlapping relationship to the idea of student-centered teaching pedagogy. For these two study participants, student-centered writing pedagogy includes allowing students a broad range of topics as the basis for their writing practices in the classroom. This finding—that a broad range of writing is accepted and encouraged—stands in curricular agreement with an approach to writing that invites collaboration with an outside organization, such as Pharos.

Mary: Student Expression

Mary associated writing with creative expression. Mary shared how they describe the purpose of writing to students, stating:

> When I first introduce [writing], I talk about how writing is a way of getting whatever's in your mind on paper, no matter what it is. So that's one way I feel like I teach a lot of different purposes. Another way is obviously like putting your most creative self on paper. So if you were to show yourself to the world, but you couldn't actually show yourself, there would be this piece of paper you could show someone, and it would demonstrate kind of who you are as a person.

In this passage, Mary spoke to writing being the outward expression of what is internalized on the part of the student; in other words, writing outwardly describes what a student "couldn't actually show." When Mary discussed sample lessons during their interview, they shared examples of revising school-based curricula to include opportunities for students to practice greater expression and creativity. Later, when the interview turned to ideas of objectivity, particularly related to essay writing, Mary positioned their views against the idea that writing can ever be fully objective. To some degree, Mary believed all student writing assignments can have aspects of personal expression; thus, no writing is neutral. Mary's ideas here are similar and echo existing literature on sociocultural literacy (Gee, 2015; Janks, 2009; Lewis et al., 2007; Lewison et al., 2015; Moje & Lewis, 2007) and B. Street's (2003) ideological model. This theoretical connection is important to identify, because while Mary did not use any theoretical language, the overlap here between practice and theory could inform future directions in professional development for Mary as they continue their pedagogical practice.

Expanding on the topic of objectivity in writing, Mary said, "As a human person with the human soul, there's no way to take yourself out of the situation you're writing about. No matter how how hard you try." This value statement expanded the understanding of what school-based writing can be like. Rather than a school-based vision of writing, where "students must bend their language and ideas around the formula" (Christensen, 2021, p. 40), Mary's lived experience, which holds that all writing originates with a student who has agency, expands opportunities in their classroom for school-based writing practices to provide opportunities for wider ranges of expression. This philosophical move to be open to personal perspective in all types of writing also expands standards-based institutional priorities to include student-centered curricular ideas and subject matter. In addition to statements about "showing yourself to the world," and noting that no writing is neutral, Mary also equated the value of expression as a component of writing. Mary discussed how saving writing can be a way to memorialize childhood experiences, saying:

> Your parents, if they're saving school assignments, [odds are] they are saving writing assignments because those are the ones that are going to portray the most about your experience as a kindergartner, your experience as a third grader. I think writing down those stories or looking at just writing assignments from parts in your life are so revealing about different things that you're experiencing, and everyone experiences them so differently. You will never regret writing down a story when you were 8 about that time that the fox ran in front of you as you were riding your bike.

Mary imbues their instruction throughout the subject of ELA with the knowledge that writing is a valuable means of student expression. Whether a research narrative or poetry, Mary considers assignments to be work that should be saved for posterity, as they can express individuality. Adding the purpose of remembrance to writing is another effective means of broadening boundaries of what school-based writing can achieve.

Winona: Student Expression

Winona described writing as an important means of communication as a key priority for their teaching, in addition to a key focus on literacy, noting, "The purpose of writing should also be to convey ideas in the written form in a creative way." The word "creative" stood out, indicating a perception that writing, regardless of genre, should have a component of individuality, or expression. At another point in the interviews, Winona stated, "Writing should also be a catharsis." Foregrounding creativity in their curriculum is a value Winona shared with Mary, as discussed previously. One example Winona presented showed the importance placed in their classroom on student expression and sharing writing with an audience. Winona stated:

> Having a student who's normally really quiet and doesn't outwardly share in class actually raising their hand say, "I want to share my I Am poem with the class," because they finally feel confident about something they've written. Or they just feel like, "Aha! it speaks to my soul, and I want to share this with everybody."

A student who finds their voice, like the story shared by Winona, reflects the importance of a teacher's acknowledgement when students who previously did not participate find their voice and expression. Acknowledgement of the importance of stories such as this in

a teacher's experience shows how expression is valued, not just for the content of what is said, but for the act of students strengthening their sense of self and learning how it feels to be an active participant in the form of public communication. Winona explained one goal of working with Pharos was to expand their set of pedagogical tools when working with students, noting:

> I also know I have my limitations. I have . . . a certain way I teach things and I thought it would be cool for them to see, for me to bring somebody new in with a different level of expertise, you know, professional writers who teach these workshops coming in and giving the kids, just ideas to think more outside the box . . . so it was a way for me to open up opportunities and different possibilities for the kids, and for me as a teacher even.

At the beginning of this section, the participating teachers' beliefs about writing were presented in relation to Shor's (1992, as cited by Gay, 2018), idea of a "critical-democratic pedagogy" (p. 41), which "approaches individual growth as an active, cooperative, and social process" (p. 41). Most particularly, all participating teachers situated writing tasks in larger social contexts, not as tasks for isolated individuals. Addressing writing as a social activity includes what subjects are addressed by students, in addition to the social dialogue that the teachers design to bring writing from students' pages into the greater dialogue of the classroom.

RQ3: How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teachers' ideas about language in school-based writing practices?

For Research Question 3, inquiry focused on two aspects of how participating teachers approached language use in the classroom, particularly with writing practices. The first aspect entailed questions related to uses of dominant language. The second area of data analysis related to the degree to which students were able to use non-English languages related to their identity. How non-English languages are approached by teachers is important, because school structures can, both actively and passively, curtail subject matter students are allowed to address (Hillocks, 2008; Wenk, 2015). Both areas of inquiry present opportunities for teachers to either validate or reject important aspects of student identity (Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016). These language issues can become especially fraught with school-based writing, and can present oppositional questions and opinions by administrators, faculty colleagues, and students (e.g., controversies over bilingualism). Both of these areas of analysis resulted in less overall data on the part of the teacher participants.

Dominant Language and Student Identity

Students with non-English as their home language make up a considerable population in two out of the three districts represented by participant teachers in the study. Brandon and Winona were the two teachers with the most data regarding instruction of students whose first language (L1) was not English.

Brandon: Dominant Language and Identity

Brandon continually returned to a core philosophy that informs his teaching—the idea of safety for students in their surroundings. As complex as a language gap might be, Brandon focused on social–emotional priorities, noting:

> Worst case scenario is you're just trying to be friendly and give the person a safe place to sit and hoping they're picking up some English, because there's no [verbal] communication happening. And that's worst case scenario, and that happens. And then you have lesser degrees of that where there's a little bit of English or maybe it's a Spanish speaker, and so I've got my Spanish. And so there's a little bit of [verbal] communication that can happen. You just create the bar for that particular kid. So if it's a kid that has no English, the bar is be safe and comfortable and pick up some English in this room. If it's a kid with a little bit of English, it's okay, where's the highest I can place this bar for this kid, and how do we get there. And it's just individual like that.

Brandon focused their reflection on learning and safety, articulating an approach modulated to particular circumstances and with a humanistic lens; they focused on what is reasonable for the non-English speaker to attain. Brandon made no mention of grades or standards, supporting the idea that their goal is for the student to acclimate and feel safe in the new environment.

Mary: Dominant Language and Identity

Mary's example, which related to non-L1 speakers, showed how a participatory experience with Pharos translates to the validation of ideas about use of language in school-based writing exercises. Mary's experience with writers from Pharos, and their student, Marisol (pseudonym), was expressed as a formative experience that increases the scope of language possibility in their teaching. Mary noted:

> When I started working with Pharos . . . I think they were the ones that kind of opened that discussion of, "other languages are beautiful, write in whatever way makes the most sense to you." So I think that was a really important discussion that I wasn't even really a part of, like I obviously supported. But I did have one . . . One student, Marisol, I remember, who is new and who is from Honduras and I remember her really, she didn't know a lot of English, and I do remember saying, like, "you can write in Spanish," and it definitely changed the whole mentality towards poetry and writing, which was really cool.

Mary's experience of allowing professional writers from Pharos to take the lead in their classroom has served as inspiration for reflection and reevaluation. Mary noted they were not directly involved in the conversation, having relinquished power as the final arbiter of what was acceptable work in the classroom. In addition to not resisting an acceptance of writing in other languages, Mary expressed, "I obviously supported" the visiting writers' choices. This coconstruction of writing lessons and classroom teaching has acted as a permission-granting structure for Mary's yet-unthought-of but clear stance on allowing multilingual authorship of work by students. By sharing the story about Marisol, Mary engaged with the idea of multilingual authorship even further in the interview, emphasizing its importance as an informative experience. Mary was aware of the impact of the Pharos writers philosophy, which "changed the whole mentality towards poetry and writing," and expressed a significant shift in what the possibilities of writing could be for both the teacher and students.

Although Research Question 3 yielded less data on teachers' understanding of use of language in their practices, the study data did indicate these teachers are cognizant of practices that support culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students. The teachers, at different times and to different degrees, addressed three claims Kinloch and Burkhard (2016) identified to guide work with CLD students:

- contexts . . . influence the teaching and learning of writing in CLD classrooms;
- students' identities and cultures play significant roles in what/why they write; and
- instructional methods/teaching approaches must attend to the realities of students' lives, histories, and diverse backgrounds in ways that support how writing is taught as a humanizing social activity. (p. 379)

These practices were evident in relation to the participant teachers centering student experiences throughout their teaching. The most applicable data related to CLD practices comprised the validation that teachers provide to their students and their circumstances, which was developed throughout the data on teacher relationships in this chapter and noted in Chapter 5 of the study.

RQ4: How do these experiences of an out of school writing Discourse community integrate to influence pedagogical practices?

Earlier in this study, pedagogical practices were defined as "making intentional decisions based on a set of beliefs" (Breault, 2010, para. 1). When referring to working and collaborating with a professional writing community, study participants used language in a way that related to the practice of writing in professional and scholarly terminology. What is meant by this finding is the Discourse of instruction addressed the practices of writing as a serious pursuit; a pursuit with value outside of school-based

expectations. This finding emerged in contrast to language that positions Discourse around writing as primarily a function of school-based expectations or achievement goals.

Deemphasis of Standardized Testing

One example of shared pedagogical practices among the teachers was the deemphasis of standardized tests and mechanical measures of writing (e.g., grammar).

Brandon: Deemphasis of Testing

Brandon argued tests do not provide the most useful information for pedagogical choices in the classroom, noting:

> I'm not opposed to giving a test or something like that, like I don't see anything wrong with those, they're just not as effective as the relational tools where I'm engaged and I'm feeling a kid like, "Are you safe. Are you comfortable. Do you trust me, are you willing. Are you curious. Are you guarded."

Tests are not comparable to the more holistic, interpersonal information conveyed to Brandon by students with in-the-moment interactions, or in phenomenological terms "find-ourselves-being-in-relation-with-others" (Vagle, 2014, p. 20). Brandon experiences assessment as a relationship, not a review of isolated information. Brandon's classroom experience has resulted in the notion that learning goals are best achieved with a relational observation, saying: "My assessments are most effective when kids don't know they're being assessed." Notably, Brandon's nontraditional school is less driven by testing data. Evidence of this was found, for example, in the ability of Brandon to construct curricula in direct response to student needs.

Professionalization of Classroom Writing Practices

The following section considers how schools in the state where the study took place might define a professional writer and the qualities that make one a professional. This review, in the next several paragraphs, is an introduction meant to support the discussion that follows, which examines how data showed that teachers in this study took part in a Discourse of professionalization in their classrooms.

One indicator of what might be considered professional writing is to review what state standards indicate. Because the state in which the research takes place has adopted Common Core State Standards (CCSS; National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010; State Department of Education, 2010), the standards can be seen to represent an indicator of expectations related to "College and Career Readiness" (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010, "College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards" section). This set of standards provides information on what CCSS considers professional readiness in writing. The College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards for Writing (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010) are divided into four areas:

1. text types and purposes,
2. production and distribution of writing,
3. research to build and present knowledge,
4. range of writing. ("Writing; Grade 9-10, Grade 11-12" section)

The CCSS support an empirical understanding of how progress on achieving these standards are measured; these standards explain the way educators are able to measure

that CCSS are met from what is produced by students. College and Career Readiness Anchor Standard Writing 2 stated, “Write informative/explanatory texts to examine and convey complex ideas and information clearly and accurately through the effective selection, organization, and analysis of content” (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010, “Writing; Grade 9-10” section). In addition to the writing sample produced, classifying what constitutes appropriate achievement levels of skills, such as to “convey complex ideas and information clearly” (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010, “Writing; Grade 9-10” section), are assessed by what is produced by each student. What is not indicated by CCSS are the dispositions of the teachers who teach their students to attain these educational writing goals. Data in this study did address these dispositions, and illustrated that writing teachers who choose to work with an out-of-school writing organization embody a professional view of how the writing process should be presented to their students. In defining the idea of what is considered professional, the researcher took a broad understanding of how professional work is defined. Adams (2013) listed the purpose of professionalization as “greater status, autonomy, and authority” (p. 714).

The teachers in the study are involved with professionalizing the view of writing in the context of their classrooms by working with a professional writers organization. By inviting the support of Pharos writers into their classrooms, the teachers participate in a Discourse community of professional writing. Both students and teachers benefit from involvement in this community. Ways in which evidence from the study suggested

teachers embody traits of professional writing include (a) allowing students to select their topics, (b) interpersonal coaching similar to the work of an editor, (c) experiencing peer review protocols, and (d) modeling the use of professional writing vocabulary.

Brandon: Professionalization of Writing

Within some frameworks, the participating teachers all showed broad flexibility in the topics they allowed their students to pursue for writing assignments, even in ELA classes. Connected to this openness of writing topics was also a mature and more empathetic understanding of topics that, for some secondary teachers, would be considered problematic. Brandon gave two examples of topics that might be concerning to other teachers—one example was about a student writing about guns, and other involved a student writing about murder as part of working within the genre of horror. Regarding the latter example, Brandon explained:

> I have this kid in the writers group who writes horror. That's my least favorite genre. I don't enjoy it . . . But he's really good at it, and he likes writing horror. Like if this showed up in any classroom throughout America, I think the teachers' would, the kid would get in trouble . . . But clearly, it's a genre, clearly he's gifted at it, and looking at the context of the kid's life, and knowing his parents and his family . . . there's no alarms. He just likes horror . . . Actually in my own writing practice I'm stealing some things from him because I've never exposed myself to horror before . . . He teaches me something.

This example is demonstrative of Brandon's commitment to pedagogical practice that honors student voice by not restricting student writing topics. After all, selection of topics

can be related to working with the Pharos organization and within its Discourse, in that working with Pharos further expands (rather than restricts) student exposure to what students are encouraged to write about. Brandon's example of how they approach mature topics of adolescent students evidenced not only treating students with their full humanity, but also reflected back on previous research questions. This was most clearly indicated when the latter student's social–emotional context was taken into consideration by Brandon as part of the analysis of how to address the topic of horror and violence in the students' writing. In fact, Brandon's response was deeply tied to social–emotional understanding, as he noted "knowing his [students'] parents and his family." Rather than a closed rule about writing topics, Brandon professionalizes student agency and allows for individual, holistic consideration of humanistic factors about the student to inform their guidance on writing topics. Further evidence of professionalization was illustrated by Brandon's use of the term "genre," which further contextualized how he has come to the judgement of their students' work. The knowledge Brandon has of the full scope of writing genres has allowed them to understand students' work in a greater context than one concerned about a troubled teen writing about death. Brandon's understanding and consideration of genre shows how writing is not just a practice relegated to Brandon's classroom, but, rather, shows an expansive professional view of writing that exists in the world.

Catherine: Professionalization of Writing

Catherine similarly indicated how the full range of adolescent student expression is fostered in her classroom, which further developed evidence that the teachers in this

study professionalize the practice of writing by viewing it as a skill with value outside of classroom contexts. Catherine indicated that they do take note of topics of concern for their students' writing, but, like, Brandon, also contextualized their stipulations, noting:

> In a creative writing class, the sky is the limit about topics, right, as long it's not excessively, the topics that I feel are not appropriate are drugs and violence . . . and I guess prejudice, anything that would promote drug use, promote violence, or promote prejudice, those would be to me the three things that . . . are not okay, but if they want to talk about a character or a person they know for themselves dealing with drugs and trying to clean up their act, I think that can be useful, productive.

The restrictions Catherine noted are not excessive; they are actually similar to levels outlined by the content rating system for broadcast television programming (TV Parental Guidelines Monitoring Board, n.d.). Catherine noted that in the core ELA classes they teach, topic openness can be a source of connection and motivation for students. Catherine stated:

> If it's something like a persuasive essay or they're writing about a research topic where they chose the topic, I can I try to capitalize on their passion for the topic, let's create a thesis and what is interesting, what do you really care about with this? What did you discover that you'd like other people to know?

This passage again suggested Catherine shares the power of selecting a topic with their students. Allowing their students to generate their own topics is further evidence of Catherine making the pedagogical choice to empower students in their writing process.

Decisions such as this in the classroom extend teachers' participation in professional writing discourse, which was most prominently demonstrated by the teachers' involvement in sharing their classroom with members of a professional organization.

Mary: Professionalization of Writing

Mary's interviews revealed the type of writing in class is connected with individual freedom for students to expand the content of their writing. One way choice, which is related to professionalization, is demonstrated in Mary's classrooms is through poetry. Poetry is where student agency comes first, and not assignment objectives; Mary noted, "For my poetry lesson [that was shared], that's kind of my bread and butter as a teacher is giving kids those opportunities to be authentically creative."

Part 2: Findings Related to Critical Stance

As a process of evaluating and reporting on data, phenomenological research has been described as emergent (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Peoples, 2021; van Manen, 2016). Peoples (2021) explained emergent to mean, "data emerge and change during analysis" (p. 58). One aspect of the researcher's data analysis process was modeled on the "hermeneutic circle" (Peoples, 2021, p. 32–33). Peoples (2021) wrote, during analysis:

> There is an understanding of the whole (the entire transcript) and analyzing the whole as you read it, and then there is an understanding of parts (codes and themes). As you are analyzing data, you break down information into parts and then synthesize, and you look at the whole again (the entire transcript). That is the new understanding. And then as you move through it again in analysis, the parts make sense of the whole and the whole makes sense of the parts, and this hermeneutic circle continues until a new understanding emerges". (pp. 32–33)

One cycle of analysis established findings according to research questions, and were grouped by themes, as outlined in the first part of Chapter 4. The second section of

Chapter 4 was developed by the researcher with data reanalyzed from a perspective of Lewison et al.'s (2015) critical stance framework, named the instructional model of critical literacy. This "new understanding" (Peoples, 2021, p. 33) and the emergent data's connection to a critical stance framework (Lewison et al., 2015) became apparent through additional cycles of coding. Each successive coding cycle revealed findings that were then grouped thematically according to existing references related to available critical literacy frameworks. This data then informed an evaluation regarding a framework that best corresponded to thematic data. These cycles are discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

Although findings related to critical literacy emerged explicitly as a set of theories oriented in action (Janks, 2009, 2010; Lewis et al., 2015; Shor, 1999), emergent data from the findings distinguished between what actions (i.e., theoretical) are done in the classroom and how (i.e., attitudes and dispositions) these actions are done. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009, as cited by Scherff, 2012) explained the distinction, noting, "Critical inquiry stance does not just mean 'getting something done' but considers 'what is to be done, why to get it done, who decides, and whose interests are served'" (p. 203). Scherff (2012) explained, "The critical stance is the core of their instructional model of critical literacy . . . and 'consists of the attitudes and dispositions we take on that enable us to become critically literate beings'" (p. 203). Transactions of critical literacy instruction are illustrated in Figure 2.1. For Scherff (2012), this figure illustrates the reflective and reflexive processes of critical stance, which enable "critically thinking about and inquiring into our own practices" (p. 205).

During the cyclical process of coding and analyzing data (Saldaña, 2016) to report research findings, data indicated Janks's (2009, 2010) synthesis model was represented through the organizational structure of the research questions, as reported earlier in this chapter. During the ongoing cycles of coding, the researcher found teacher stance preceded and then merged with the teaching of writing in the data. The researcher was guided by the steps of Peoples's (2021) hermeneutic circle process, and returned to further analyze and code the research data in additional cycles of coding. Amid reanalyzing data, one cycle the researcher used coded for the four dimensions outlined by Lewison et al.'s (2015) critical stance framework.

The research findings were subsequently expanded to an additional framework of critical literacy based on Lewison et al.'s (2015) model. When justifying the formation of their additional critical literacy construct when several were already available (e.g., Janks 2002, 2010; Lewison et al., 2002; Luke & Freebody 1997; Shannon, 1995), Lewison et al. (2015) explained, "We felt none was sufficient in representing the complexity of what it means to implement critical literacy in elementary and middle school classrooms" (p. xxvii). The results of the additional coding, shown in Chapter 3, revealed elements of the critical stance framework were present in the research data. In short, teacher attitudes and dispositions indicated by critical stance were thoroughly represented in the research data; thus, the decision was made by the researcher to include this set of complimentary findings when reporting research findings. What follows in Part 2 of Chapter 4 is phenomenologically reported data of how examples of each of the four dispositions of critical stance were found in the research data.

Table 4.2

Four Elements of Critical Stance

Domains from Lewison et al.'s (2015) "instructional model of critical literacy"	Elements of domain	Identified strands in Viskanta research
Consciously engaging	• Not just responding to events, but thoughtfully deciding how to respond • Naming (Freire, 1970)–articulating thoughts outside of what commonly viewed as natural and recognizing commonsense power relationships that privilege certain people over others (Fairclough, 1989) • Reframing (Lakoff, 2004) through becoming aware of our unconscious frames and then using new language and new points of view • Paying attention to the language we use and how it supports or disrupts the status quo • Being cognizant of the options we have in interpretation, response, and action	• Not just responding to events, but thoughtfully deciding how to respond • Being cognizant of the options we have in interpretation, response, and action
Entertaining alternate ways of being	• Creating and trying on new or secondary discourses or identities • Risk taking	• Creating and trying on new or secondary discourses or identities • Understanding that parts of what we believe about teaching, learning, and curriculum may not be working

Domains from Lewison et al.'s (2015) "instructional model of critical literacy"	Elements of domain	Identified strands in Viskanta research
	• Understanding that parts of what we believe about teaching, learning, and curriculum may not be working • Using tension as a resource • Understanding the multimodal and multimediated nature of literacies and their relationship to power	• Using tension as a resource
Taking responsibility to inquire	• Asking questions that make a difference, interrogating the everyday, and not viewing knowledge as something static to be learned • Understanding that all knowledge is constructed from particular perspectives • Pushing our beliefs out of their resting places • Engaging in a cycle where new knowledge provokes new questions and where new questions generate new knowledge • Moving beyond initial understandings	• Asking questions that make a difference, interrogating the everyday, and not viewing knowledge as something static to be learned • Understanding that all knowledge is constructed from particular perspectives • Pushing our beliefs out of their resting places • Engaging in a cycle where new knowledge provokes new questions and where new questions generate new knowledge

Domains from Lewison et al.'s (2015) "instructional model of critical literacy"	Elements of domain	Identified strands in Viskanta research
Being reflective	• Being aware of our own complicity in maintaining the status quo or sytems of injustice • Actively and systematically questioning and evaluating our critical literacy practices • Dialogue and debate with others to use ourselves and others to outgrow ourselves • Reframing and retheorizing our assumptions, beliefs, and understandings • Praxis (Freire, 1970)–reflection and action–and theory as intervention (hooks, 1994)	• Being aware of our own complicity in maintaining the status quo or sytems of injustice • Actively and systematically questioning and evaluating our critical literacy practices • Dialogue and debate with others to use ourselves and others to outgrow ourselves • Reframing and retheorizing our assumptions, beliefs, and understandings • Praxis (Freire, 1970)–reflection and action–and theory as intervention (hooks, 1994)

Note. Adapted from 'This project has personally affected me': Developing a critical stance in preservice English teachers, by L. Scherff, 2012, *Journal of Literacy Research* (https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254116553_This_Project_Has_Personally_Affected_Me_Developing_a_Critical_Stance_in_Preservice_English_Teachers).

Critical Stance: Consciously Engaging

One way to describe the importance of the theme of Consciously Engaging is to describe the consequences of its absence. As Lewison et al. (2015) noted, "Without conscious engagement, we simply respond to events using our unconscious, commonsense frames, which make it challenging to assume a critical stance" (p. 15). Features of this construct include the following behaviors, outlined by Lewison et al. then compiled by Scherff (2012):

- Not just responding to events, but thoughtfully deciding how to respond
- Naming (Freire, 1970)—articulating thoughts outside of what commonly viewed as natural and recognizing commonsense power relationships that privilege certain people over others (Fairclough, 1989)
- Reframing (Lakoff, 2004) through becoming aware of the unconscious frames and then using new language and new points of view
- Paying attention to the language we use and how it supports or disrupts the status quo
- Being cognizant of the options we have in interpretation, response, and action. (p. 205)

The reframing exemplified by many of the study participants' experiences related to the purpose the four teachers see in prioritizing relationships with their students. With words such as community, humanity, authenticity, relationship, and safety, the participant teachers expressed the importance of encountering their students as full individuals in all their humanity. For Brandon, the frame he used to consciously engage his students and better understand their lived experiences is the idea of trauma. Catherine, despite acknowledging that trauma is evident in her students, made stronger references to the ideas of empowerment and individualization when relating to their students; both are qualities Catherine finds important for their student populations who have experienced failure. Mary identified the importance of creativity and expression in her discussions of

practice. Winona's interview data revealed the least direct connection to this theme; however, the personal value Winona places on writing informs their conscious engagement in their work with students.

Brandon: Consciously Engaging

For Brandon, their classroom engagement is greatly informed by their lived experience of knowing a majority of their students have experienced trauma. Using the language of psychology and mental health, Brandon uses psychological terminology to name what they witnessed as an almost universal experience among their students. Brandon explained their lived experiences of acknowledging students' mental health by addressing the importance of coregulation. This understanding of student experience was shown by the use of the word "comfort;" Brandon noted:

> A lot of kids, when they get put into certain classroom settings, they're disregulated because of past experience. And coregulation is the way. We in psychology, we talk about using our person to help make another person feel comfortable and safe and regulated.

Brandon returned to this theme in different iterations throughout both interviews, indicating what is an essential understanding of the importance of not only physical safety of students, but emotional safety. The need for their students to feel secure comes before any teaching content. Brandon stated, "Step Number one to all teaching is create a safe classroom, so you're not using shame, so that your students feel safe to learn." The direct acknowledgement that safety comes first was further evidence of a lived experience as a "living moment of the 'now"' (van Manen, 2014, p. 57), or existing in a

type of constant presence. For Brandon, being present with their students requires time and lived experiences of relationship; it is required to establish trust with students and gain the type of vulnerability students will experience when receiving writing feedback. One example emerged when Brandon stated, “It was really obvious from the very beginning that a lot of kids were closed, most kids were closed to the instruction because their feelings and their self-worth, and their identity was coupled with the criticism.”

Brandon expressed how this understanding of trauma experienced by students has translated to actions in the classroom, stating, “I am super, super careful—I might never say anything critical about a kid’s writing . . . It’s going to take a lot of time for me to build enough trust for that kid to trust himself.” Writing was viewed by Brandon as an intimate endeavor. Brandon’s experiences have informed the understanding that trust must be established before addressing any needs for writing improvement. In integrating the need for safety with how writing can be improved, Brandon goes beyond the significance of establishing relationships with students, as discussed relating to Research Question 1. By linking safety with writing instruction, Brandon explicitly defined a certain type of conscious engagement—one of safety, and one necessary for writing feedback to be accepted by students. Using the language developed by Lewison et al. (2015), the data suggested Brandon has not only thought through responding to the writing event(s), but has also engaged an appropriately critical stance through consciously engaging “options . . . in interpretation, response, and action” (p. 15) to students’ written work. Brandon has experienced students who have shut down due to

excessive criticism of their writing; therefore, the data suggested Brandon's response of giving feedback with care and caution.

The need for Brandon to show care to their student writers, for example, was exemplified by their action of finding what works in students' drafting. Brandon stated the goal is to "find one little piece of gold and I'll talk about that gold like it's the, you know, the greatest thing ever." In another reference to the educationally situated task of commenting on writing, Brandon explained they understand even fictional writing to be about the particular student author, indicating all writing content requires what Noddings (2005) referred to as an "ethic of care" (p. xv). Care as an active action of responsibility was also a theme in Gay's (2018) conception of "caring for" (p. 58), which will be discussed at greater length in Chapter 5. Brandon expressed that effective writing instruction requires deep respect for students' lives and is tied to the idea of safety, noting, "They don't realize that you know that everything they write about is them . . . So you learn about what's going on in their home, and you learn that they're not safe." The data discussed showed evidence of Brandon enacting experiences of consciously engaging stance (Lewison et al., 2015). Brandon appeared "cognizant of the options we have in interpretation response and action" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 15) and deliberately chooses to frame his students as survivors of trauma; he also acts with concern for their social–emotional health in the process of teaching writing skills.

Finally, Brandon made a connection to how Pharos directly influences their classroom interactions, which are focused on safety and empowerment. Brandon recalled a story connecting a visit from a Pharos representative to a particularly powerful

experience of student impact. He discussed how the organization focuses on diversity, stating:

> The kids get exposure to different types of people . . . students of color are in the [writing] group. I think they really resonate when somebody walks in the door with an experience like theirs. And I've seen over the years that that's also really powerful to have a role model like that.

Catherine: Consciously Engaging

Catherine has experienced a relationship between the specific needs of her alternative school students, such as their need to experience success and the ability of writing to foster empowerment. The data from Catherine's interviews provided examples of lived experiences enacting a consciously engaging stance. This stance was reflected in connections Catherine made between students' experiences and a particular practice of writing. The teacher recognized writing assignments serve as an intentional, critical practice by providing exercises that encourage self-reflection. Catherine includes both school-based and non school-based creative writing practices to fulfill the goals of student empowerment. Although Catherine does not enjoy teaching informational writing as much as creative modalities, Catherine directly connected improving writing skills with the theme of empowerment, noting:

> It is empowering. Right. That's something I really emphasize with students. To be able to make a point in a persuasive way that other people will listen to, that's some power, right, and to be able to use credible research to back it up, that's some power. I [am] really committed to that.

By using writing as a tool for empowerment, Catherine uses aspects of a consciously engaging stance (Lewison et al., 2015). One way Catherine uses this stance is by acts of "reframing" (Lewison, et al., 2015, p. 15), where Catherine explains to her marginalized students the skill of writing is a tool of power in the world through means of expression, rather than just a school-based task to complete. A second way Catherine shows conscious engagement is by "paying attention to the language we use" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 15), expressing to students the social benefit to their school-based assignments. Catherine prioritizes empowerment rather than privileging the status quo of school-based achievement. Although school-based success exists as an ongoing Discourse for the teacher, Catherine prioritizes authentic applications of the skills being taught, which they experience as a more salient connection for her students than classwork.

Catherine perceives positive connotations from teaching narrative writing and poetry. The word "fun" was referenced a number of times in the interview data. The answer Catherine gave when asked about how writing and fun connect further developed the theme of how they specifically experience the value of empowerment in writing instruction:

> I guess narrative writing and poetry. Those are probably my favorite things to work on with students. Because it's so much about empowering them to bring out their voice and we have so much fun together, you know, playing with words, playing with ideas . . . empathizing with a hard situation and I can let them know "Wow, I'm, I'm really inspired by you, that you have overcome."

When describing the importance of empowerment to the experience of teaching writing, the data showed the link Catherine made between the student experience of "fun" and successful writing practice to what they experience as empowerment on the part of students. For Catherine's students, being able to use the tool of writing—both school-based and creative writing—to become more deeply developed individuals is a way of "connecting with them." In the following example, Catherine made this connection explicit to the student, stating, "You've come through all this and here you are getting ready to graduate." Catherine connected the elements of empowerment and fun directly to achievement, noting, "Fun and empowering . . . go hand in hand to me, like, they both make you feel good as a writer, you feel good as a thinker, you feel successful." By using the preposition "you" here, the researcher inferred Catherine's language explicitly connects their experience to their students. Similarly, the use of "you" indicated a bond of lived experience with students through language. As discussed in the first part of this chapter, writing fosters relationships, which are then beneficial to the instructional aims of the course.

There was an overlap in data points expressing the importance of safety and empowerment between the experiences of writing instruction for Catherine and Brandon. Catherine's student population, like Brandon's, shares similarities in having significant experiences with trauma. Both teachers foreground the relationship of writing so as to not further exacerbate experiences of student trauma. The conscious choice by the teachers not to repeat traumatic experiences for their students can be viewed in the context of being "cognizant of the options we have in interpretation, response, and action" (Lewison

et al., 2015, p. 15). Catherine does not dismiss students' experiences of trauma, but responds with action and makes space for them through writing. Catherine also experiences the practice of certain types of writing as restorative, noting, "There's healing, that's one thing I love about being an LA [language arts] teacher, is that I have the opportunity to help students process some of what they've experienced in life and learn from and grow." As with Brandon, Catherine also emphasized the importance of student writers having a "safe place to experiment, to try things." Catherine designs, through a lens focusing on empowerment and safety, particular experiences that represent critically engaged practices of teaching writing to adolescents.

Mary: Consciously Engaging

A strong feature of a critical stance is the idea educators should be thoughtful and deliberative when working with specific student populations. These qualities are reflected in the dimension "Situating the Model in Specific Contexts" (Lewison et al., 2015, pp. xxxi–xxxii). Although Brandon and Catherine expressed greater freedom in relation to systemic curricular oversight, Mary indicated a constant awareness of their district's more stringent oversight policies. The more rigid aspects of this contextual writing instruction was evident from the data, with Mary noticing negative consequences to their students due to its rigidity. Mary recognized the need for an action-based response from their experiences observing reluctant writers. Mary's response has been to focus on creativity, and they explained:

> In elementary school, something that really is sad is that writing is kind of beat into these kids . . . whenever they have a pencil in their hand, there's like

> automatic dread . . . When we're in school we do a lot of free write, too, so giving kids time with a pencil and paper that's not structured has been really helpful.

Mary directly responded to examples of the autonomous model of literacy instruction (B. Street, 1993) with consciously engaging practices. Expanding their repertoire of writing assignments is a means of purposefully expanding the boundaries of the teaching of writing, and Mary stated, "I want to give as much opportunity as possible for kids to access the creativity . . . I want them to have fun and I want them to be able to share their thinking without any sort of inhibitions." Mary's changes to what Yagelski (2012) referred to as disembodied writing shows the teacher recognizes how student agency can be removed by educators from certain school-based writing practices. Mary's response, a type of critical stance, is to add a greater variety of writing practices to provide opportunity for student expression and agency.

In another example of consciously engaging practice, Mary critically responded by identifying the importance of the Discourse when maintaining student ownership of produced work. Mary related several stories of her experience with these discursive moves. One story involved a student sharing results of peer feedback, with the student stating, in Mary's words, "[M] said that one of my pieces of evidence didn't match my details, so I need to go back and fix that." For Mary, ownership is a word that expresses how writing becomes valued by students.

Critical Stance: Entertaining Alternate Ways of Being

One project of critical thought is to "discover alternative paths for self and social development" (Shor, 1999, p. 2), so as to envision goals to "remake ourselves and our

culture" (Shor, 1999, p. 2). Without envisioning possibilities of what results of change look like in the world, it is difficult to discuss specific, critically oriented interventions in abstract terms. How change specifically looks and is put into practice is the central focus of the second of the four areas of Lewison et al.'s (2015) model of critical stance, which they termed "Entertaining Alternate Ways of Being" (p. 15). Two features of this construct were strongly supported by the interview data: "creating and trying on new discourses" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 15) and "using tension as a resource" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 16). Collaboration with Pharos has provided the participating teachers with new writing- and education-related Discourses. These Discourses take place within the context of collaborating with professionals experienced in professional writing. In addition to lesson collaboration, the professional teacher often yields their central role as primary instructor to Pharos writers for select periods of time, and the writers' frames of reference do not include an educational system with state and district standards. This collaboration and centering of professionals from a writing organization provides teachers with situational experiences. These "encounters" (Vagle, 2014, p. 11) bring the tension between school-based literacy demands and more expansive models of literacy directly within the structure of curricular and teaching experience. Inviting Pharos professionals to participate in school-based activities places them partially within a school-based Discourse, while still remaining distinctly outside its structures (e.g., Pharos writers are not responsible for grades). Teachers inviting professional collaboration in school-related writing opportunities represents an example of "alternative paths for self and social development" (Shor, 1999, p. 2). By inviting non-school-based writing

representatives to take part in school-based institutional Discourse (i.e., school-based writing expectations), teachers are creating alternatives to how writing is approached in their classroom. Rather than dismissing curriculum that has been developed within district institutional boundaries and expectations, teachers expand possibilities for student development in writing by expanding exposure different types of writing. These encounters between the teachers and Pharos writers encompass a greater range of experiences and knowledge in the practice of writing.

Brandon: Alternate Ways of Being

Even after what Brandon counted to be “100 different authors” that visited their classroom from Pharos, the language they used to relay the experiences of what takes place during a Pharos author’s classroom visit maintained a strong impression. Brandon described that the transcendental nature of what takes place during these visits is found in its ineffability; he noted, “There’s this magical thing that happens within the kid that is not really explainable or reducible but I’ve seen it happen so much . . . It’s so valuable.” Brandon, the primary teacher, observes the experience; thus, as identified by Lewison’s et al. (2015) critical stance framework, he takes on a secondary identity. Brandon clearly indicated their position as an observer, stating, “It’s really cool to watch.” Brandon then further developed the idea of having a secondary role in their own classroom, noting, “I feel like I get a lot of experience witnessing it and seeing it.” Brandon presented the experience of having a Pharos writer work with their students at a distance, something Brandon observes and “witnesses.”

In contrast to language in other parts of our interview, Brandon did not use "I" in relation to constructing the classroom activities when other professionals are present, nor did they speak of instigating what takes place. Rather than developing the focus of learning as the primary subject, or "I," Brandon inhabits a secondary identity—one different from the teacher in charge. Further establishing the construct of a secondary identity, Brandon expressed they have learned and benefitted from the experience of being exposed to the authors from Pharos; they stated, "I get a lot of experience" from the professional Pharos visits. The language Brandon used when describing the experience of a professional writer teaching in their classroom situated them in a position different than that of principal instructor. During this experience, Brandon becomes a learner but also not a student. To convey this experience, Brandon discussed their experiences from the point of view of inhabiting a secondary, nonprimary instructor identity. The way this description is accomplished is by the use of a secondary Discourse. This Discourse positions Brandon as an observer and learner in the classroom under their direction. Brandon described themselves as a "witness," taking on the role of observer, to undergo transformation:

> These authors will give the kids notes on their pieces. They'll engage them in the critique circle, and, you know, offer a meaningful feedback, and . . . The student transforms in that interaction and goes from being a kid to a writer and yeah, it's really cool to watch.

Brandon also discussed that witnessing such relationships of mutuality humanizes how Brandon sees his students, and ultimately, himself:

> When I'm at my best. I know what's real and I know that what I want to be better at is I want to be better at being present with who I am. I want to be a better witness to my own self, and my own experience, so that I can bring that as a resource and offer that to every kid I interact with. And that's what matters. That's the skill that I'm constantly improving on, and that's what I think about as improving my practice, I want to be better at seeing you. And to do that, I have to be better at seeing me and it's a reciprocal thing, and then all the rest . . . [slight chuckle] the English the writing the reading everything I do on top of that, it's just a platform for me to have an experience with you and to see who you are and help you see yourself.

For Brandon, being in relationship and witnessing their students is the experience of teaching.

Catherine: Alternate Ways of Being

The educational work Catherine is involved with takes place at an alternative school site. As explained earlier in this study, the state in this study has specifically designated the school as an alternative school, which gives it flexibility with curricula and other organizing structures so it can work to meet the needs of its unique population; namely, students who have not been successful in traditional school pathways (State Department of Education, n.d). Data from the study indicated Catherine accepts and incorporates this tension as a tool in their work to individualize the teaching curricula to meet the needs of nontraditional students. This tension was related through experiential stories about how the writers from Pharos have supported the particulars of her student

population. Catherine noted these writers focus on the whole lives of her nontraditional population of students, and structure the curriculum they incorporate into their classroom to manage individual student needs and required standards.

The examples Catherine related to working with Pharos described a resource flexible to collaborate with. Catherine expressed this description as a positive attribute, noting her school has many nontraditional organizational elements (e.g., students attend on various days). Similar to Brandon's experience, the impact of Pharos writers' participation goes beyond support with the writing process. Brandon highlighted Pharos Black authors' participation; whereas, Catherine highlighted her students' exposure to LGBTQ authors, stating, "Two poets come in, one male, one female, and one was LGBTQ, from the LGBTQ community, which is good for my students . . . good for all students."

This exposure represented an example of curriculum that evolves naturally through collaboration with Pharos. Addressing different genres of writing, (i.e., a feature of Common Core and state standards) while personalizing these writing projects has been designed in collaboration with Pharos writers. The experience of interacting with professional authors and their personal writing expands a school-based lesson and allows for participatory culturally responsive modeling. These writing lessons become multidimensional and interpersonal, expanding beyond school-based boundaries.

Catherine described experiencing the work of the writers in their classroom as "empowering and healing." Catherine often repeated the use of these terms, connecting these qualities of resilience with students' experiences of representation. Catherine said,

"Of the three (Pharos) groups that came, two of the three times was somebody who identified as queer. That was powerful, too. They talked about that through their poems." Notably, Catherine did not indicate tension in collaborating and designing curricular content with representatives from Pharos. The collaborative planning appears to have expanded the range of content and experiences that Catherine provides their students. Instituting a wider range of writing practices is significant because literature findings indicated adequate time for writing is a key factor for improving student writing (Graham, 2019; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). In addition to a presenting a wider range of writing practices, the data suggested that for Catherine, working with Pharos is additive, and is not perceived as additional strain on curricular planning. Catherine also related that working with writers from Pharos provides added depth to curriculum already being instituted with their students. When speaking about their collaboration with a writer from Pharos, Catherine shared, "She helped me totally individualize this for my students' needs and my class schedule and everything." Catherine's statement about the personalization of content for their classroom read not as a statement of added work responsibility or taxing limited resources of the teacher, but as support.

The second example of using tension as a resource again shows how a teacher's critical stance can make positive use of tensions inherent in current teaching environments. At their particular site, Catherine addressed institutional mandates and the lived experiences of their student community. Rather than viewing mandates and experiences as oppositional, Catherine described experiences of combining both demands

and addressing them via school-based tasks. Catherine described weekly Multi-Tiered Systems of Support meetings staff take part in to support students at the school (Flatstone School District, n.d.). Using tenets of culturally responsive pedagogy (Gay, 2018), the process of a cross section of school stakeholders meeting to support student needs is an example of an "alternate way of being" (Lewison et al., 2015, pp. 15–16). Meetings of the Multi-Tiered Systems of Support team bring a holistic view to a students' educational experiences, an alternative way of responding to students' scholastic experiences. There is value in quoting Catherine at length, as they explained how school personnel respond to various individual student needs:

> We discuss kids, who's had success with this kid, do we have any details to know, is there something going on that's new and and it's causing the kid to drop off right now? Sometimes it's something like, the family is really struggling financially, and the kid is working a lot of hours. Sometimes it's something like, the kid doesn't have transportation, the kid needs bus passes. Sometimes we had to make sure that the kid has, every Friday [our district] sends home food bags, so a lot of our students rely on those. That's another thing I think that's special about our school, we really look at the whole kid, not just the student.

This litany of items the school staff takes on for their school community suggests a foundational understanding that these barriers are not topics separate and disconnected from student achievement and learning (Gay, 2018). How Catherine framed this work was representative of accepting the tension between academic responsibilities and addressing social–emotional and economic barriers that disrupt student learning. The

topic came up in interviews with Catherine as a response to a question asking about community attributes. The connection seemed to indicate a unified school culture that approaches student success holistically.

At a different point in the interviews, Catherine referred to student support structures again when relating to maximizing time in the classroom; of students, they noted, “They’re not doing work independently, very few of them are.” The language in this passage does not place a hierarchy or separate students’ school and out-of-school life, but indicated Catherine experiences tension as-it-is while working with their school’s student population. Catherine does not make the comment with judgement, but in the context of trying to find alternative ways of supporting their students. Student support services (e.g., transportation and nutrition) were considered part of the educational project at Catherine’s school site rather than separated from it. Tension is resolved by adopting an alternate way of being—seeing students as complex members of a community with struggles that mirror societal challenges.

The third example of using tension as a resource emerged from the way Catherine discussed the ongoing challenge of managing a relationship between standards-based curricular priorities and learning activities that fall outside the scope of the narrowly defined, mandated curriculum. Catherine shared a vignette in the interviews that exhibited how they experience the tension between standards and a more expansive curriculum.

The vignette Catherine presented was about school-based decision making, and they explained the school course structure had to be reevaluated for student requirements

to show standards competency. As a school focused on advancing students through high school milestones in an increased timeframe, school personnel had to manage the tension between compulsory standardized milestones and accelerated classroom learning. Catherine described this tension as a struggle between formative and summative assessment. Limits to compacting curriculum based on standards was indicated by Catherine's example of how faculty at her school struggled between students testing out-of-class content in an accelerated fashion, and practicing required skills with teachers in the classroom. This vignette is an example of how even if individual teachers are able to use tension as a resource, school priorities, such as fostering student attendance in class, can complicate how tension at particular school sites is managed.

As examples of tension within the classroom, Catherine described an example of when they provided numerous choices for how students complete assignments; in terms of the practice of writing, Catherine noted, "It is important to me to build in many, many stages with the writing process . . . they're going to have all this preparation." But tension exists not only on a macro level with school site policies, but on a micro level in class assignments. Catherine described straining to be motivational with a portion of an assignment they described as "prescriptive," and noted the tension between creative writing, which offers more personal choices for students, compared to teaching informational writing. For Catherine, more choice is associated with more engagement:

> It's easier to engage them [with creative writing]. There's more choice. You know, it's less prescriptive . . . It is important to be able to explain your ideas clearly in writing . . . in an informative and expository way as well . . . What I

> don't like about that lesson is . . . One, is it's prescriptive. You know, it's like just da da, da, da, follow this format.

The passage effectively highlighted the tension of standards versus individualized learning in a detailed way with a particular assignment.

Mary: Alternate Ways of Being

Mary's examples of "alternate ways of being" (Lewison et al., 2015, pp. 15–16) were reflective of a teacher who, like Brandon, also alters their primary role and takes on a secondary Discourse and identity through collaboration with Pharos writers. In addition, a shared anecdote provided an example of Mary struggling with the tension of standardized curriculum and adapting that struggle to a resource. Together, Mary's experiences built on Brandon's and Catherine's experiences to further reveal how teaching writing from a critical stance has influenced participating educator's experiences.

The event that drove Mary to seek out support from a professional writing group followed a review of new district curriculum. Mary explained how a personal high school experience of "poetry analysis that I hated, and I felt really stupid because I felt like I never understood the poem in the right way," informed a vision of how they wanted to present poetry to students. Curriculum planning with school-based resources was what originated the desire to work with professional writers, eventually finding Pharos. Mary noted:

> We're going to make these fourth graders love poetry and we're going to do it in a better way than . . . creating three poems based on a specific set of old White

> poets. So I decided to do the performance task, I wanted it to be like a poetry night . . . Some sort of community night. And it was kind of my big dream. So after I left that training, I just started searching on the internet for writers that I could bring into my class.

This account brought to life Mary's experiences finding the district curriculum inadequate. This training spurred them into action to expand cultural representation beyond "old White poets" in the unit. This tension of provided curriculum and teacher vision supported a critical stance because it produced action (i.e., Mary's research to find professional support). Similar to Catherine's experience of how Pharos writers supported existing curriculum, Mary described collaborating with the poet, Z, and how their work together has easily integrated into the existing subject matter of the course:

> Z then broke it down [for the students] . . . how he decided to write it and the parts that he needed . . . Z was actually in the classroom so we modeled how he first thought of all the parts of his story before he actually started writing . . . We're in the midst of story elements, plot, setting, characters. So this tied in really well.

Data suggested the collaborative experience of Mary and the Pharos writer has supplemented and expanded teacher goals. For a teacher like Mary, who noted inadequacies in institutionally provided curriculum, this collaboration has reduced tension between mandated requirements and a more socially just curriculum. Mary and the Pharos writer were able to collaboratively expand classroom writing content that was delivered to students in a culturally responsive manner. Reflecting on the example lessons they were asked to bring to the second interview, Mary further developed the

theme of using tension as a resource. Mary indicated their lesson choices represent negotiating these two realities in her curriculum planning, stating:

> One [lesson] really does cover that kind of formulaic essay writing that is a big standard in third grade. And the other is what I decided to do by myself and fit it into the third-grade standards in some capacity [chuckles]. So I think what it shows about me is that I am committed to teaching these skills the kids that they need in order to advance . . . Me having to– trouble with the conclusion paragraph shows a lot about how I really want writing to mean something deeply to kids every time.

Mary's experience of balancing different aspects of literacy learning is supported by literature; for example, Janks (2009) outlined the necessity for students who are "fluent writers who enjoy using writing to produce meanings and texts that matter to them . . . have a critical social consciousness to produce texts that make a difference . . . [And have] access to schooled literacies" (p. 128). Mary's examples of working with writers from Pharos showed how collaboration can support producing "fluent writers who produce texts that make a difference" (Janks, 2009, p. 128). Examples of students being invested in their text production include practicing conclusions for essays about access to books in different countries. Mary described student writers reacting to the particular lesson about access to books in other countries by "coming prepared" and "excited" because, "They got to write about something that means something to them." Even when noting, "the hardest part for me is the formulaic type of writing," Mary is able to understand value in both traditions, expansive and structured, and understand where the

value in each style resides. Mary also understood the need to balance their different curricular visions; they termed this tension, “my beliefs about writing,” and noted one of those viewpoints comes from “that structured side of me.” This knowledge is important, as Mary was able to articulate broad descriptions regarding the perspectives of each divergent approach to writing.

A second example of using tension as a resource related to standardization; Mary recalled at length how they find solutions to manage district writing rubrics. Mary’s story was informative because it overlapped with another strand of critical stance, “Entertaining Alternate Ways of Being” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 15) specifically, the component of “Understanding that parts of what we believe about teaching, learning, and curriculum may not be working” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 16). By adopting both critical stance and an understanding of culturally responsive pedagogy (Gay, 2018), Mary noted the writing rubric was “not accessible to kids.” The teacher’s lived experience resulted in intervention to change what was not working. In doing so, as discussed previously in relation to another research theme, Mary disassembled a tension between school-based construction of learning and professional experience to find a solution. For Mary, this disassembly entailed revising the rubric and breaking down some of the component parts of writing to smaller skills. Of note, this breaking down of various parts of writing was mentioned by all research participants in different forms during the research process.

Mary’s interviews also focused on the theme of secondary Discourses or identities; they took on a different role than primary teacher, a stance observed earlier with Brandon. Although Mary is in the classroom and possesses a daily knowledge of

students, they expressed an understanding of the expertise of professional writers from Pharos, noting:

> I was just kind of there as they were teaching as support. Usually with the poets from Pharos they were pretty interactive, it was a big coteaching situation anyways, because we were kind of bounce ideas back and forth off of each other, but they were the expert in the room.

Mary used the language of collaboration. A planning discussion happened between Mary and the Pharos writers before their work in the classroom. Mary has offered the writers suggestions about the particular classroom they visit. This step in collaborative preparatory planning is important and further supported the argument earlier in this section that teachers in the study take on a different role than the main learning leader in the classroom. Mary's understanding was they are "kind of there," and "they were the expert in the room," further establishing the idea that they experience a different identity than when they are in the role of the principal teacher managing the classroom.

Critical Stance: Responsibility to Inquire

The third dimension of critical stance is inquiry, with a focus on processes also termed "interrogation" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17) and "investigation" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17). Two central strategies Lewison et al. (2015) suggested for promoting inquiry are "[asking] a lot of questions" (pp. 16–17) in addition to critique of a "consumerist model of education" (p. 17).

To analyze the type of inquiry questions posed by research participants, the analysis for this dimension of critical stance followed two steps. First, the researcher

reviewed interview transcripts for explicit or implicit questions asked by participants (see Appendix K). This list is not meant to be conclusive, but one presented in the data as examples of interviewees revealing areas that relate to "curricular . . . questions that make a difference, interrogating the everyday, and not viewing knowledge as something static to be learned" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17). The identified questions are instructive in that they highlight the extent to which each research participant participated in examining their assumed ideas and understanding as educators over the course of interviews. The questions, as a data point, revealed the participants as conscious of their choices. Data further showed participating teachers often returned to decisions to think through if they were satisfactory or consider how they might be improved. The analysis in this section addressed questions, from each of the four participants that was representative of the types of inquiry suggested by Lewison et al. (2015) in this domain of critical stance. Questions are broken down by participant. Examples from participant data associated with the questioning process often corresponded to the teachers' additional interests and professional duties; for example, Brandon shared a personal challenge related to coping with autism, and how it has impacted his teaching. Mary has taken a role as diversity coordinator at her site, and is responsible for professional development. As such, her questions often included such a perspective. Winona is completing a mental health certificate program, and many of her reflections included ideas related to mental health. These connections support the phenomenologically informed results of this study—that lived experiences of these teachers are imbued with a range of experiences beyond those of teaching and the classroom. This finding informed the reporting of study results;

notably, although this study focused on teachers' experiences collaborating with a professional writing organization, their experiences do not begin nor end with any particular subject they teach or are relegated to teach during school hours.

Data from the participating educators varied according to questions raised in the interviews and experiences that evolved from their life-worlds during and after the interview process. In addition to informing perspectives from which the teachers drew their experiences, the variety of individual experiences explains the discussion of topics that arose naturally over the course of the conversations. This section discusses examples of prominent anecdotes teach of the teachers shared, which revealed how "manifestations come into being" (Vagle, 2014, p. 30).

Brandon: Responsibility to Inquire

Brandon expressed a depth of understanding regarding the question, "What kind of person makes the best teacher?" This understanding was expressed by the language used and importance Brandon places on creating a safe space for his students. This theme undergirds almost all of Brandon's work in the classroom. Even writing, the subject he is perhaps best known for by his students, is "something secondary that we are doing while learning to be in relationship." Still, Brandon noted his lived reality was teaching writing did not come naturally or easily; they stated:

> I track my own growth as a human being . . . How I'm growing as a teacher . . . In the last 10 years as I've become aware and given myself language for the autism my growth has been on that social emotional the EQ [emotional intelligence] stuff . . . I have to teach myself to be emotionally intelligent, it doesn't come naturally

> to me, unless I read it in a book and then go practice it and have flashcards and give myself exercises . . . And so, all the emotional intelligence that I have has come through practice . . . and then, then teaching it to my kids, my students. So, and then bringing that into the teaching practice, because teaching is all about relationships and connecting person to person.

In this passage, Brandon connected questions on improving teaching and providing support for their students as a shared skill. Brandon indicated having had to work hard to improve and reach a level of proficiency. One feature of critical stance is "asking questions that make a difference, interrogating the everyday" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17). Brandon discussed the experience of learning how to effectively teach writing. This process was explained by Brandon via sharing how steps of the process were broken down so each steps could be taught to students. When explaining those steps to students, Brandon has made sure to understand the feelings students can have about their writing, which informs the instructional process. Brandon explained as a teacher, they recognized the relationship students built between their self-worth and observed their writing had been responded to previously.

Understanding this very particular interaction of students sharing their writing revealed an empathetic connection of what it means to be a learner between Brandon and their students. Brandon's understanding of their specific experience as a learner—and the experiences that have made up their journey to ameliorate challenges autism poses for the practice of teaching as they understood it—informed what Brandon notices about their students and their interactions with the learning process. Brandon's learning process to

improve emotional intelligence (e.g., using flashcards, exercises, and practice) indicated an ongoing, continual experience brought to the teacher's classroom. Brandon reflected:

> The most important part of my reflection as a teacher, is learning how to awaken that [emotional intelligence], and I have a lot of autistic students. And what's really cool is I'm teaching them to do the same thing . . . giving them language so that they can expand their relational abilities.

One last example reflective of the depth of Brandon's experiential connection to the relational safety required for learning entails how vividly their growth is still experienced. Brandon noted, "If you would have met me 20 years ago, you would be hard to recognize me . . . socially, emotionally, because of the trajectory I've been on." An excerpt earlier in this study included Brandon's explanation of how they taught themselves to read and write after graduating high school, unable to do either. Brandon's questioning also represented another aspect of Taking Responsibility to Inquire: "pushing our beliefs out of their resting places" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17). By not yielding to the idea that their life would be one without skills of literacy, nor the idea of accepting difficult social interactions, Brandon pushed beliefs of what their learning limits and capabilities were as an adult and teacher. From ideas thought to be settled, Brandon engendered new life-world experiences through learning. Brandon's questioning, and actions taken related to those questions, are illustrative of an educator's journey and the potential impact of "taking responsibility to inquire" (Lewison et al., 2015, pp. 16). This finding was not only evident from their life experiences, but also in the way Brandon creates experiences in the classroom.

Catherine: Responsibility to Inquire

Catherine’s school is designated by the state as a school serving nontraditional learners (State Department of Education, n.d.). Most students at this school were not successful at traditional schools in the district. The information about nontraditional students at Catherine’s school is reviewed here to present context for the common theme of Catherine’s process of taking responsibility to inquire. Catherine’s lived experience as a teacher of a distinct demographic of students, and this demographic’s centrality to their teaching, revealed itself through her recurring self-investigation. This ongoing inquiry seeks to match instruction to the needs of Catherine’s students. Such a type of integration—where knowledge of students informs classroom pedagogy—is also important to culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2013, 2018). The intentionality with which Catherine pursues her process of “asking questions that make a difference” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17) is reinforced by their resulting decisions. Catherine’s interrelationship with the students they serve is the product of constantly asking the question, “What is meaningful teaching for me?” Catherine was conscious of the connection of meaningful teaching to the nontraditional student population, saying:

> I want to teach in a way where I have a lot of creative autonomy and a chance to really get to know my students and work with them individually. I think I came at teaching from that angle . . . I guess it was important to me.

This passage revealed Catherine’s connection to students is experienced as an active and ongoing process. It is possible to understand the relationships with alternative students as a deliberate commitment. Identifying Catherine’s choice of student population is

important because it adds significance to Catherine's engagement with the work of teaching. Catherine's pedagogical questions revealed in the data related to "making a difference" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17) and the additional process of "interrogating the everyday" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17), which is another element of taking responsibility to inquire.

Catherine's lived experiences, and how they relate to their questions, is addressed in the following paragraphs. First, evidence related to Catherine's understanding of relationships of care is discussed. The second paragraph discusses how consciously aware Catherine is of the particular population they serve. Both discussions demonstrate that a central theme of Catherine's questioning involved the significance they place on the experiences of her students.

Both Catherine and Brandon focused extensively on various traumas many of their students have experienced. Catherine demonstrated this focus in two vignettes related to the importance of care and the idea discussed earlier in Part 1 of this chapter about the importance of classroom relationships. One way Catherine has internalized an understanding of their students' experiences with trauma is by explaining that writing feedback is never given in public. Catherine expressed this tactic as something they have "learned" as knowledge gained through personal experience. They noted, "One of the things I've learned is, if I'm going to make a suggestion about a student's writing, it's better to do that privately, always better to do it privately." Emphasis of the privacy repetition indicated a determined belief.

Catherine also shared the discovery of using a critical word, “consider,” further supporting the finding that they value how students perceive teacher support. This word values the independent personhood of students. Catherine explained, “A word I use a lot, and you heard me say it earlier, is consider, ‘Consider changing this in order to.”‘ Use of the word consider during the process of writing feedback invites choice to the student author. The word denotes acknowledgement by the teacher that their student owns the piece of writing. This pedagogical move serves the function of positioning the teacher as a partner with the student in the writing process. In doing so, Catherine is positioned as more than an omniscient knower of a single, often conventional, and school-based idea of good writing. These teaching moves correspond with discussions in literature regarding the importance of treating students in their “full personhood” (Gillen, 2014, p. 20).

Catherine’s examples of using private comments and valuing the word “consider” revealed a type of ‘“caring for’ [which] is deliberate and purposeful action plus emotionality” (Gay, 2018, p. 58). After all Catherine exercises these measures to avoid further hurting students, particularly with writing feedback. This finding was further supported by Brandon’s belief, that their students have experienced extensive “shame” and “pain,” and have negative experiences of how writing had previously been approached in school settings. These examples resulted from Catherine’s and Brandon’s reflective processes of taking responsibility to inquire. The lived experiences that inform their intentional reflective teaching practices are likely familiar to relationally oriented writing teachers like it was for the two teachers in this study.

Additional data revealed Catherine questions knowledge that informs tailoring their pedagogy to lived experiences and needs of the schools' students. Catherine's interview answers suggested tailoring pedagogy is an ongoing and circular questioning process. As students change each year, this process does not provide a final, settled set of information; rather, this approach requires a deliberate and consistent self-inquiry process. This type of cyclical questioning was represented in Lewis' et al. (2015) structure as "a cycle where new knowledge provokes new questions and where new questions generate new knowledge" (p. 17). When discussing the school community, Catherine made a point to emphasize the many "populations, emphasis on '-tions."' Catherine possesses a deep knowledge that student experience is important when making curricular and pedagogical decisions. Catherine said, "They're definitely not all the same [student populations], they don't have the same needs." Catherine emphasized their school has structures in place to serve common educational needs for students in poverty or second language learners, but Catherine's questions of how best to serve students never stop. Due to the COVID-19 global pandemic and subsequent virtual instruction, Catherine also shared how new needs evolve. Catherine shared their thinking on how the school experience could be improved for some populations of her students, stating:

> We do all these one-on-one video conferences with kids. It's really apparent, there'll be some kids work so quick, they'll open up the assignment . . . and it's all very smooth. And other kids, who are taking 3 minutes for those assignments to load, and our time is ticking by, and they're frustrated and embarrassed. There

> are other kids where you try to have a conference with them and there's so much noise in the background . . . I got some kids earbuds for that kind of thing.

Catherine's new experiences teaching during a pandemic have presented new questions and demanded new thinking. This passage reflected a teacher using a cyclical process of questioning and taking responsibility to do what is within their power to support student learning. Notably, the researcher does not provide this example (nor an earlier example similarly discussing a financial expense) to advocate for teachers to personally fund what are systemic and structural responsibilities. The purpose of this example is to provide data from the research on how a particular participating teacher continues to return to the process of questioning in their role as educators embodying critical stance.

Mary: Responsibility to Inquire

Examples from Mary's interviews revealed students' perspectives were a prominent focus of Mary's inquiry questions. Both of Mary's highlighted experiences indicated an "understanding that all knowledge is constructed from particular perspectives" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17). One transformative perspective related to materials for students written at an adult level. The second way Mary invites understanding of different perspectives in the classroom is by allowing students to raise challenging questions. Similar to previous examples from Brandon and Catherine, Mary revealed an internal process of constantly interrogating their practice. Mary interrogates their teaching practice by discussing how questioning experiences result in specific teaching choices made in the classroom.

For Mary, one limiting perspective that complicates student learning are materials provided by the district produced for adults. Questioning the usefulness of district-created rubrics as a tool to improve student writing has resulted in Mary's action to rewrite the tool so her students understand the skills they are applying in their writing. A narrative technique Mary used often during the interview involved using "student voice." For this example about rewriting district rubrics, Mary expressed, "Otherwise, telling a kid, like, you need to work on your organization. They would be like, 'Cool. Like, I'm 8, I don't know what that means.'" This speaking technique has the effect of further establishing closeness with feelings experienced by students. Through the use of this voice, Mary internalizes student perspective of a particular classroom experience. The view Mary expressed seems related to the work they do at their campus overseeing professional development. As with other examples in this section on inquiry, questioning results in classroom changes, and Mary indicated familiarity and awareness of these connections.

The critical perspective that knowledge is produced from different perspectives was shown by the openness students exhibited in Mary's classroom. Related to ideas earlier in the chapter discussing the importance of relationships, allowing students to question and challenge can test educators' limits and unsettle a class. Mary explained their goal is to honor student perspective and encourage conversation. Mary's thinking about managing classroom topics with openness was explained as honoring student inquiry. Mary explained:

> I try really hard when kids bring things up . . . to not be super reactive . . . Kids are super impressionable. I knew I was at that age . . . So I'm trying not to be an adult that molds them into something they're not.

The language of personal experience, "I knew I was at that age," evidenced how experience has informed Mary's choices in the classroom. Mary explained this strategy has the effect of drawing other students out to share their thoughts. The importance of taking responsibility to inquire in the work of critical stance is it positions questioners as democratic participants in the classroom (Freire & Faundez, 1989; as cited by Lewison et al., 2015). Mary placed value on participation, even if imperfectly executed by students, with the intent of "[letting] them speak their truths in whatever way that makes sense to them." Mary's understanding that students' questions should be honored demonstrated how questioning relates to learning, both for the teacher and student. The value of questioning is it is participatory, rather than just passively absorbing as part of a "consumerist model of education" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 17). Fundamental to critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015), Mary's example showed questioning encourages involvement. By encouraging discussion, Mary gave an example of making a pedagogical choice within the critical stance framework that shows how minor resistance to consumerist education might look like allowing students the safety to ask their own questions.

Winona: Responsibility to Inquire

Winona's highlighted questions are expansive and cover a broad range of personal experience. A greater number of Winona's inquiries extended outside the

classroom. Similar to Brandon's lived experience with autism, Winona's questions reflected what it means to be a teacher of writing. Winona's questioning includes a full spectrum of lived teacher experiences. Because they are enrolled in a mental health certificate program, one set of Winona's questions demonstrated how their teaching is viewed through the lens of social–emotional health. In addition to the social–emotional health lens focused on students, Winona reflected on their own well-being while working in the teaching profession during a pandemic. Winona's critical stance served as an example of "moving beyond initial understandings" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19). Winona's experience of what constitutes healthful practices have been questioned with new learning. Winona explained social–emotional health has become a weekly focus of their advisory group class. Reflecting on the impact of greater awareness of social–emotional health to her practice, Winona said:

> [The mental health program] influenced me as a teacher this year, as far as, do they really need to do one more assignment, like, can I just tell them to go be a kid, go try to do something fun and get your mind off of the state of the world.

Questions about the amount of content to assign young students aligns with existing studies regarding excessive homework (e.g., Kohn, 1993); however, the research data did provide specifics about where a teacher like Winona could make changes to current teaching assignments. This area would be an important question to pursue, as Chapter 2 addressed research findings that demonstrated writing teachers do not spend enough time in class teaching writing (Graham, 2019). Winona's questions about social–emotional health illustrated a teacher adjusting, through reflection, their understanding of how to

measure student health. Adjusting their conception of how much independent work is required was an example of “moving beyond initial understandings” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) of how the meaning of student health changes for teachers as new information becomes available and lived experience changes. Winona explained their students are always stressed, “not just about school, but about like friends, family stuff going on, What can I do, we just don’t know what to do. I want to learn.” The questioning that the teacher is addressing, related to mental health, is driven by students, it is not an initiative from adults. As students ask for more skills, Winona responds and alters her class curriculum. Data suggested, at first, Winona’s expertise does not directly match student need; rather, Winona adjusts her conception of what student health is and expands their knowledge by taking responsibility to inquire.

Winona’s personal lived experience likely informs her interest in the topic of mental health. Among the four study participants, Winona was most consistent in speaking to questions of teacher health, tensions of pacing plans, and the particular demands of ELA teachers. In addition to ELA subject questions, Winona interrogated the expectations of colleagues for writing instruction, and questioned if it is possible to raise a family with the particular demands of ELA teachers.

Critical Stance: Being Reflexive

As outlined by Lewison et al. (2015), being reflexive is the last of the four dimensions of taking a critical stance. One central idea has been described as “being aware of how we have our hand in the cookie jar” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 18). One global way study participants exemplified the critical work of this domain was through

participation in the interviews. The data provided by participants illustrated the idea of lived experience, as defined by van Manen (2014), “to explore directly the originary or prereflective dimensions of human existence: life as we live it” (p. 39). Throughout the interviews, the researcher found evidence of participant reflection, who all engaged in the “active and systematic process of questioning and evaluating [their] critical practices” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 18).

Identifying what anchors this fourth dimension of critical stance was important when analyzing the findings. In contrast to the third element of critical stance (i.e., taking responsibility to inquire), which emphasizes an individual component of critical stance, being reflexive focuses more on systems. The word “system,” or “systemic,” appeared in the first two areas of inquiry. Additional ways in which the dimension of being reflexive has a more systemic focus on “dialogue and debate with others” (Scherff, 2012, p. 205). In addition, this domain includes the work of praxis; Freire’s (1970/2018) theoretical understanding that the work of critical teaching requires “the practical applications of what you now believe” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19). The following section addresses where the data identified practical application of putting beliefs into action, or examples of what hooks calls “theory as intervention, as a way to challenge the status quo” (hooks, 1994, p. 60; as cited by Lewison et al., pp. 18–19).

What connected research participants and disrupts common ELA educator practice is their adoption of a model of teaching writing where educators collaborate with a professional writing organization. This collaboration with a professional writing organization also ties together each of the five topics presented in the dimension of

"Being Reflexive" (Lewison et al., 2015, pp. 18); for example, the topic of “maintaining the status quo or systems of injustice” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 18) was featured in interview data from Brandon and Mary. They separately discussed not being sufficiently prepared to teach writing in a school-based setting. Mary has created her own system to teach writing as a new teacher, and Brandon described, early in his teaching practice, “It became clear to me that very few of us [English teachers] knew what we were doing when it came to teaching writing.”

The practice of collaborating with an organization like Pharos and its professional writers creates “dialogue and debate with others” (Scherff, 2012, p. 205) by its very nature. One example in the data emerged from Mary describing how writers from Pharos presented the writing topic of bilingualism to students. Mary noted, “They [Pharos] were the ones that opened that discussion of like, ‘other languages are beautiful, write in whatever way makes the most sense to you.”‘ The process of dialogue and debate was also expressed in the study through dialogue with the researcher about requested sample lessons, some of which are discussed at greater length later in this section. The critical stance element of “renaming and retheorizing our assumptions, beliefs, and understandings” (Scherff, 2012, p. 205) was embodied by all four participants in their views. One shared view in particular was a broad range of different types of writing is not optimal for students to practice in the context of limited school time, but necessary for their students to experience. Finally, reflection by participants about the practice and purpose of school-based writing resulted in praxis, with all four teachers collaborating with Pharos so students could experience writing activities with professional writers. The

rest of this section consists of a discussion of data suggestive of reflective experiences. For the participating teachers, these reflective experiences are embedded with collaborating with the Pharos writers who come to their classrooms.

Brandon: Being Reflexive

Working with Pharos broadens a school-based experience of writing instruction, as increased social interactions expand experiences of the subject for students and teachers. The process of social literacies expanding student understanding was highlighted by the being reflexive principle of “dialogue and debate with others . . . [to] use ourselves and others to outgrow ourselves” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19). The social interactions and experiences cultivated through working with professional writers presents students with empowering experiences that expand possibilities. Brandon experienced these teaching sessions as “transformational” and of “bearing witness,” explaining:

> It is when we’re witnessed when we’re seen—some transformation takes place, and for some reason when they’re witnessed by me their teacher that happens, and it happens on a whole new level when a guest author comes in, because there’s just a there’s a capacity there that makes the transformation unique.

Brandon viewed the diversity Pharos focuses on via writer representation as a great asset to the work of dialogue and debate, with students experiencing “powerful” interactions with “role models.” One such experience that informed the phenomena of “bearing witness” was a visit by a member of The Lady Wu Tangs:

> Lady Wu Tang is what they called her and she played Method Man in the Lady Wu Tangs . . . They toured with the Wu Tang Clan. And they were kind of a sensation. And so to have her in the room like that was like something none of us have ever like, when do you get [to] be with a hip hop artist. And that was really fun. And I remember the impact she had on the kids in that group and that was really powerful.

This vignette was an actionable acknowledgement by the teacher and Pharos professionals of a wide range of role models possible for youth. Brandon explained they started working with professionals "to create a community of writers." Granted, not all groups working with professional writers focus on such priorities. Pharos has the benefit of being associated with a larger organization, which has informed its mission.

Catherine: Being Reflexive

One aspect of Catherine's lived experience as a teacher is centered around the particular student population her campus serves. As a state-designated alternative high school (State Department of Education, n.d.) the students attending this campus have had significant challenges or disruptions to their academic progress. Such adversity is a condition for enrollment in the school, and the state stipulates such schools have "populations that are comprised of at least 90% high risk students" (State Department of Education, n.d., "What students are considered high risk students" section). For example, the school does not accept ninth graders, as they have not yet had a record in a traditional school environment. Many questions Catherine wrestles with relate to properly serving this population, especially from a perspective that acknowledges many students have not

been well served by status-quo schools. In addition, many students who attend this alternative school have experiences with "systems of injustice" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19), such as punitive school discipline policies, police, families, and immigration (State Department of Education, n.d.). Catherine's examples recounted lived experiences that involve curricula, the importance of success for students, and ideas of safety.

Catherine approaches many curricular decisions with a very developed idea of their students. A number of examples were provided in interview data of the link between needs of the nontraditional students and Catherine's questions of how curricular choices can best serve their students' particular learning goals. One way Catherine chooses to be explicit about desired learning goals has emerged from describing stories selected for learning the concept of theme. Catherine explained what each particular story entails:

> Modeling a theme that I want kids to feel in my classroom and our school, which is all about that everybody matters, we're all part of the community, and when we get to know each other, even though we might look different on the outside, we realize we're more alike than different.

In addition to stories with themes the teacher would like to reinforce, Catherine consistently focused on giving students choice throughout all assignments, knowing their diverse learning styles. Curricular choices Catherine has made, such as the outlined examples, are strongly associated with a teaching strategy that considers small successes as vital to students' motivation and learning (e.g., constructivism; science of learning development). During interviews, Catherine showed this by gently rejecting the researcher's lesson feedback in one area; they explained adding advanced learning goals

does not fit with the desired goal for students, which is to "simply finish and have success." Catherine also cited time constraints and the very particular standards they want students to demonstrate. In addition, Catherine noted the lesson on themes is very early in the school year; they reasoned they would keep the lesson the way it is to demonstrate, through "dialogue and debate with others" (Lewison et al., 2015, pp. 18), a clarity of focus regarding the learning objectives they wish to achieve.

Mary: Being Reflexive

For Mary, their actions in relation to the teaching of writing were found to have originated from two curricular focal points. Mary explained they determined, through a reflective process, each of the experiences, preservice trainings, and reviewed district materials to be insufficient when compared to their theoretical understandings and beliefs. This topic led to discussion about the choices made to manage curricular challenges. These two areas of reflection—preservice training and district-provided curricular materials—provided a determinative point from which Mary combined her theoretical understandings of writing and takes action related to how they approach teaching writing in their classroom.

Mary explained one motivation for her choice to create her own writing curriculum is the lack of writing instruction in her undergraduate teaching program. Mary noted the connection between creating her own program and preservice training are fused together, explaining:

> The way that teachers are taught in their undergrad education is not super effective . . . I took a lot of pedagogical classes but I don't I barely use any of

> what I used there. I don't remember any class about how to teach writing. I . . . Yeah I honestly came up with my own system based on the curriculum I was asked to use in my school that I've chosen not to use.

In this passage, Mary combined reflections about their teacher training directly with needing to create their own system of teaching writing amid the insufficient nature of the curriculum they were given by the district. At different points in the interviews, they expanded on the same ideas, indicating their saliency due to repetition. Mary said:

> There was not a separate class for writing, which there absolutely should be. For example, I'm a literacy teacher who's had classical training in how to teach reading, but I feel like I am a much better writing instructor than I am a reading instructor. That's definitely an area that I'm still working on. But I feel like my writing instruction is a lot stronger and that's a system that I've developed on my own.

Together, these passages reflect all five points making up the Being Reflexive dimension of critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015). Mary acknowledged complicity in "maintaining the status quo or systems of injustice" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) in the recognition that their writing instruction needed improvement from lack of initial development. They also questioned critical literacy practices, as evidenced by the transitions made from commenting on their teacher training to its relevance in their current practical classroom work of teaching writing. Mary addressed it is an ongoing mission to gain skills and said there are areas of literacy practice that "I'm still working on."

The topic of “dialogue and debate with others” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) was shown through Mary’s engagement with the researcher and willingness throughout both interviews to stakeout positions about her practice. The element of “retheorizing . . . assumptions, beliefs, and understandings” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) emerged by foregoing the idea that sufficient professional development to support the teaching of writing would be provided. This belief has led to Mary both working with the Pharos organization and creating her own writing curriculum. Mary justified her choice to find district materials inadequate, stating, “If it’s better for the kids, then that’s what I’m going to do.”

The Discourse of self-evaluating lessons surfaced from lived experiences of Mary’s pedagogical teaching choices. Through deliberate reflection, Mary brought their praxis to life through dialogue with the researcher by “questioning and evaluating” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 18) their critical literacy practices. Mary knows their strength is teaching poetry, and called poetry their “bread and butter.” Mary was also clear about challenges to the practice of teaching writing, selecting conclusion paragraphs as a topic of discussion with the researcher. Through specific lesson examples, Mary described the functions of both questioning and evaluating. The study data revealed that for the teacher making an evaluation about their lesson, without follow-up questions that support improving practice, simply makes an identification about the lesson without the important role of making improvements.

Two topics of Mary’s lesson Discourse provided information on how the process of Being Reflective has been experienced. The first topic gave insight into many areas of

concern as Mary asked questions regarding a self-evaluation, wanting to improve the teaching of conclusion paragraphs:

> When you asked me to find a lesson that I thought I could improve on, my mind immediately went to how I teach writing conclusion paragraphs, because I think that that's very difficult to teach at a young age. And I also struggle with it because I don't think that conclusion paragraphs aren't extremely necessary when you start writing for adults . . . I just struggle really hard with conclusion sentences, because I do feel like they can get really repetitive, but it's a writing standard I think from elementary school, all the way up into high school . . . I really want to move it away from, and maybe this is me being a little too lofty in my goals for a first essay for an eight-year-old, but I want to move away from summary into more of a discovery and I think that is something that I'm still struggling with.

This extended quote provides insight on the experience of a participating teacher's thinking through one aspect of improving writing instruction. Mary used the word "struggle" three times in the excerpt, indicating there is clarity on their part that this is an area of difficulty. Mary also knew immediately what they would like to focus on with the interviewer, further indicating this writing skill is at the forefront of their reflection. The selection also identified the many considerations Mary takes into account as they reflect and work to improve their teaching; for example, Mary simultaneously thinks about (a) students' developmental age; (b) necessity of each skill in adulthood; (c) how the skill is reflected in standards, both with her students and across time; and finally, (d) what an

example of greater success with the skill would look like in practice. Although Mary did not address each of these four elements in the passage, the experience of struggling with a skill they want to improve came across as a component of the lived experience of being reflective about the lesson. When considering this passage in the context of learning more about the lived experiences of writing teachers, it becomes evident that improvement to practice is a multilayered process with many recursive thoughts competing for attention. The teacher must manage the paradox that conclusion sentences are both a standard and not very applicable to real world usage.

The second example of Mary's reflective process included sharing information about what elements make up successful lessons. The words "authentic" and "creative detail" were used by Mary when describing values in a lesson experienced as being executed well. This positive evaluation considers the lesson not only pedagogically, but also assesses if it was enjoyed by the students. Mary explained with clarity how they decide if a lesson was successful. As mentioned previously, Mary viewed poetry as:

> My bread and butter as a teacher is giving kids those opportunities to be authentically creative and to use events from their own lives to inspire that creativity, and to let them know anything goes . . . I call them my little poet rebels that things we're doing in class with essay writing and complete sentences, you can just throw that out the window and put words together that sound pretty or be as silly as you want . . . I want them to not feel pressure, I want them to have fun and I want them to be able to share their thinking without any sort of inhibitions.

If critical interventions supported by theoretical constructs are to succeed, as called for by hooks (1994), being reflective requires clarity about pedagogical successes. In the passage, Mary's language identified what they considered a successful writing lesson. The language described a student-centered process. The idea of being "authentically creative" can be understood as a process by which a student internally defines what is considered creative, rather than external standards or an imposed teacher criterion. That Mary values "events from their own lives" is supported by culturally responsive teaching pedagogy (Gay, 2018). Using "my little poet rebels" as a term of affection also indicated a uniquely important status, given to students when they work on poetic writing. By using this term, Mary indicated the work of writing poetry is worthy of special prestige, placing value on the process. Finally, Mary's lived experience was further illuminated by what they do not want as part of the process. Mary does not want student writers to "feel pressure" or have "inhibitions," and hopes students "have fun" in the process of writing poetry. Through immediate language during the process of being reflective, Mary's examples of how reflection and action have informed her praxis allowed for insight on the personal process of maintaining critical stance when teaching writing.

Winona: Being Reflexive

Winona traced discussions about their practice to questions and implementation of professional development. The topic of professional development is discussed in Chapter 2: preservice preparation of ELA teachers. Winona's experiences on being reflexive related to learning how to teach writing; they shared ideas about how collaborating with Pharos would supplement their skills, which related to "questioning and evaluating our

critical literacy practice" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19). Winona's experiences also revealed the influence of status quo fundamentals in the teaching of writing. What emerged from Winona's recounting of lived experiences was the concept of a teacher combining reflection and action to "retheorize" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) understandings of practical realities of classroom instruction and their critical stance. Winona described what they thought about the teaching of writing when they first began working in the classroom:

> When I started teaching, I thought, I just need to teach them writing because that's just what you do, and you just have to learn how to write because you do and I didn't really ever have any valid explanations for them as to why it was such a vital life skill . . . Those beliefs just evolved as a teacher and realizing they need to understand why writings [*sic*] important for the rest of their lives, not just in the classroom. Yeah. To be a literate member of society.

The passage reinforced the strengths of actively engaging in being reflective and suggested both "questioning and evaluating . . . critical literacy practices" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19). Winona's linkage of wanting to have the authoritative reasoning necessary to validate the importance of writing amid a lack of preservice training is supported by existing literature on preservice teacher training discussed in Chapter 2 (Barnes & Smagorinsky, 2016; Graham, 2019; Troia & Graham, 2016; Wahleithner, 2018). The continuing practices of questioning and evaluation, coupled with the action of teaching writing skills, creates what Winona termed the "evolution" of beliefs. Winona explained

their teacher preparation program focused on student skills rather than a more extensive theoretical overview of concepts related to writing instruction. Winona explained:

> I would have expected to have more writing theory than I have . . . I would have loved to have more writing theory . . . my teacher prep program felt more skills based, it would be nice to have more of an umbrella view from a theoretical perspective, for sure.

Winona's instinct is supported by research findings related to departmental questions of university writing research (e.g., Coker & Lewis, 2008). Understanding this lived reality gives support to existing data that secondary teachers of writing lack a broad theoretical perspective on how research related to writing instruction undergoes a shift in secondary grade levels. Winona's actions and decision to work with Pharos, and the way in which these collaborative lesson are evaluated, were influenced by Winona's reported training in their teacher preparation program.

Winona's experiences of teacher preparation provided information about the reasons they searched to find a professional writing organization. Pharos came to Winona's attention through a former colleague and became instrumental in supporting Winona's teaching of a new project-based learning lesson they intended to implement. Winona explained, in addition to the excitement of having a guest speaker, the other main purpose of reaching out to the professional organization was "their expertise would bring a nice . . . new lens" to how the project-based learning lesson was taught. Winona's idea of a "new lens" was in contrast to Mary's expressed reasoning, which was described earlier as enhancing a preexisting vision. In the following passage, Winona's language is

indicative of a stronger view than Mary's—that professional writers from Pharos might augment and expand ideas on how their lessons are constructed. Winona noted:

> [I] thought that an outside organization could maybe add more depth or like even help me give the kids multiple avenues for how to achieve [the goals of the assignment] . . . I have my limitations. I have a nice certain way I teach things and I thought it would be cool for them to see, for me to bring somebody new in with a different level of expertise . . . professional writers who teach these workshops coming in and giving the kids, just ideas to think more outside the box . . . It was a way for me to open up opportunities and different possibilities for the kids, and for me as a teacher even.

Throughout the passage, expanding an existing curricular idea was conveyed through language such as adding "depth," expanding choice, having limitations, and exhibiting levels of expertise. The passage was then summarized with the idea of "thinking outside the box," conveying that a status quo way of thinking gets entrenched for teachers when planning curriculum. The dimension of Being Reflective addresses not only types of reflection, but also implicit and explicit expectations that action is a result of such reflection. The idea teachers would "use ourselves and others to outgrow ourselves" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) relates to an understanding that a cycle of constant learning is embedded in critical stance; thus, Winona's experience in wanting to expand resources and expertise could be related to a desire for growth, in addition to any feelings of ill-preparedness to execute a new lesson to desired expectations. Both ideas, one of "limitations," in addition to expanding "outside the box," could be true simultaneously

within this experience. Wanting to grow as an educator can have many simultaneous origin points.

Winona's lesson on "flash revision" as a lesson representing an area of improvement revealed the multilayered process of how a teacher evaluates implemented curriculum. Winona's examination through dialogue with the researcher during the interview process expanded their praxis and the work of improving their teaching of writing. The sample lesson was modeled after attending a workshop from Kittle (2008), an author of literacy texts *Write Beside Them*, and coauthor with Graves (2005) of *Inside Writing: How to Teach the Details of Craft*. Winona explained this workshop "inspired" the idea of "low stakes writing . . . how come everything they write has to be for a grade." In response to the workshop, Winona purchased notebooks and instituted the practice of short free-writing sessions. Winona then asks students to pick one of their informal writing pieces for the flash revision task, which was modeled in the workshop by Kittle. Winona shared their evaluation of teaching the lesson, which they believed "fell apart," stating:

> I guess I thought . . . I don't know [sighs] I don't think the kids quite . . . I think they were confused, (a) because they're like, wait a quick write like you're the whole point was this low stakes, now I'm choosing one, [chuckles] you're going to take a grade for grammatical purposes, and I didn't fully understand either . . . And then I just started . . . why am I even grading it, why can't it be a flash revision, just to show them that revisions don't have to be some daunting thing . . . I don't think kids quite got it. And I think I stressed them out [laughter].

The selection revealed a charged lived experience of Winona "questioning and evaluating [their] critical literacy practices" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19). Winona revealed the strength of their process of reflection. The passage also revealed how a lesson can become misaligned during the process of implementation; for example, the expressed purpose or goal does not always match instructional choices. Needing to make revisions can be especially true after teaching a lesson for the first time, as was the case of the lesson Winona shared. Winona was clear the lesson did not align with the suggestion of "low stakes" writing. Winona shared, "I think they were confused . . . I didn't fully understand either," aligning her confused mindset about the lesson strategy with that of the students.

Winona even voiced some of the perceived concerns in the mode of student voice, indicating the value of student perspective to their classroom work. The empathetic appreciation of students' point of view was strengthened when Winona shared, "I think I stressed them out." Acknowledging the effect they had on students during the lesson indicated, in addition to the question of whether or not the lesson was successful, Winona is concerned about the well-being of their students, having gone through a process they acknowledged could have gone more smoothly. Winona's reflections during the study interviews was evidence of how multidimensional the process of inward reflection and "dialogue . . . with others" (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) can be to promote critical stance. The reflexive process brings up questions that can span many aspects of the teaching process, including confidence, concern for students, and self-criticism. Each of the previously named reflexive practices were apparent in the excerpts of Winona's process

of discussing her lessons with the researcher. The data provided an example supportive of teachers who are open to vulnerability and are able to sense when their pedagogical footing is challenged. Winona is familiar with vulnerability and expressed the desire to model it for students in writing instruction; they noted, “A success as a writing teacher in general is like, as much as I can model for them the vulnerability I’m looking for in a lot of their writing, the better.” Although Winona sighed at the beginning of sharing that challenging lesson, the indication of laughter in two places of the transcript suggested, for Winona, the experience was not a failure; rather, the experience served as an opportunity to more solidly strengthen critical stance while modeling vulnerability for other educators.

Conclusion

In the interview data, the participating teachers revealed benefits of the research interview process, which is a function of the Being Reflexive domain. Through reflection, lived experience can inform “reflection and action” (Freire, 1970; as cited in Scherff, 2012, p. 205). For Brandon, reflection is the opportunity to express the value of perseverance and importance of safety in the classroom. Brandon described this lived reality, which has informed his work as a teacher:

> When I graduated from high school, I didn’t know how to read. I taught myself to read taught myself to read and write. And then I went to college. And so, that learning process is really fresh. I remember all of it. Like I know exactly the mechanics of what took place in my brain to learn how to read.

By acknowledging that the “learning process is really fresh,” the expression of lived experience brought a more intimate understanding of how Brandon inhabits thinking, and subsequently, reflection, about his teaching. Catherine was direct about her request for the researcher to support her lesson review. Catherine’s determination through the being reflexive tenet of “Dialogue and debate with others to use ourselves and others to outgrow ourselves” (Lewison et al., 2015, p. 19) showed how generative the process of dialogue about one’s teaching practice can feel to those engaged in the skill of critical discovery.

Catherine’s reflections spring from a lived experience of believing they are part of a group of empowered educators afforded discretion to serve a unique population of students. This empowerment revealed itself in the data as a focus on questions of service, and not of process or the structure of their institution. Though Catherine did discuss constraints related to time to cover material and amount of time with students, those constraints are not given excessive power in her management of pedagogical decisions.

Mary has been able to adopt the process of struggling with areas of her teaching with the understanding that work is a process on a continuum of professional experience. Using a process of open reflection, Mary did not simplify her questions about literacy instruction to simplistic dualities of what should be taught, but addressed her thinking from the point of view of what is appropriate for students; this point of view was reflected from the example of her paradoxical experience with conclusion sentences. Winona directly addressed the value of conversation about her teaching, noting, “Going through this process with you, the two interviews, has helped me do a lot of introspection

and being a teacher of writing and has given me a lot of food for thought."

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The problem of practice the researcher sought to address through this study involved the prevalence of dehumanizing writing instruction in K–12 public schools, especially in secondary grades. The limited scope of how writing is taught can be traced to a number of factors, foremost of which are standardized curriculum (Bazerman, 2016; Hillocks, 2008; Urbanski, 2006; Wahleithner, 2018; Yagelski, 2012), a lack of teacher training (Gillespie et al., 2013; Graham, 2019; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Wahleithner, 2018), and the complexity of the writing process itself within the system of schooling (Bazerman, 2016; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c).

The purpose of the study was to better understand the pedagogical practices of teachers of writing who have collaborated with a professional out-of-school writing organization. The organization that partnered with the researcher on the study was Pharos Young Writers Workshop (Pharos; pseudonym). This professional writing organization provides learning and professional development opportunities for both adult writers and youth in a major metropolitan city in the Rocky Mountain region of the western United States. As part of Pharos' programming, teachers can work with professional authors who present a range of content in collaboration with classroom teachers. The research questions for the study were the following:

- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's perception of role regarding his/her role as the teacher in school-based writing?
- How to the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's beliefs of value about the writing that is valued in school-based writing?
- How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community influence teacher's ideas about language in school-based writing practices?
- How do these experiences of an out-of-school writing Discourse community integrate to influence pedagogical practices?

Four teachers were interviewed twice for 75 minutes each. Transcriptions of data were coded for analysis in a series of coding stages (Saldaña, 2016). Two critical literacy frameworks—one by Janks (2009, 2010) and the other by Lewison et al. (2015)—were used to organize the reporting of the data in Chapter 4. Data findings were then organized into four synthesized findings; thus, the focus of this chapter. These synthesized findings were structured to align with principal themes in writing pedagogy, especially as it relates to the teaching of writing for ELA teachers, discussed throughout Chapter 2.

This chapter first briefly reviews the data analysis process used in the study to support a differentiation between the findings of Chapter 4 and the synthesized discussion of this chapter. The researcher then presents and discusses each of the four general themes that resulted from the process of "theming the data" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 198) during the second-cycle coding process. Each of the four synthesized findings are additionally presented with an Implications section. The three sections comprise (a)

“Caring for” Relationships, (b) Participating Teachers’ Critical Literacy Perspectives, which combines two of the synthesized findings, and (c) The Importance of Writing for teachers participating in the study. Discussion of the four themes is followed by a section discussing how the findings address central pedagogical themes of writing: the Purpose of Writing and Beliefs and Knowledge About Writing. The organizing principle for grouping themes is to highlight how the findings address the most important strands of research present in existing literature on teaching secondary writing. Following these three sections on synthesized findings and a section on the two principal pedagogical influences is a section with recommendations and areas for future research.

Review of Data Analysis Procedures

To bridge the reporting of findings in Chapter 4, and the development of synthesis findings discussed later in this chapter, this section of the study reviews the process of data analysis for the study. A more detailed research process overview was discussed in Chapter 3.

To address and investigate the problem of practice, identified as the limited scope of dehumanizing writing instruction in schools, the researcher interviewed four teachers who have worked with a professional out-of-school writing organization, the Pharos, abbreviated throughout the document as Pharos. The researcher received Institutional Review Board (IRB) authorization for the study in August 2020. After the researcher secured a formal partnership agreement and received formal IRB approval, the two codirectors of Pharos were responsible for sending out recruitment letters via email to a list of potential participants. Potential participants who indicated interest in taking part in

the study were provided informed consent information, which was agreed to and signed before research commenced.

Each of the four participant teachers—Brandon, Catherine, Mary, and Winona—took part in two 75-minute interviews conducted via Zoom due to COVID-19 global pandemic safety precautions. The interviews were audio recorded by the Zoom software. The researcher used a semistructured interview protocol (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Kim, 2016), which is available along with other IRB documentation, in the Appendix (see Appendices F–I). Each of the interviews were first transcribed using Zoom software technology, and then the researcher individually reviewed and revised the audio for accuracy. Member checking (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Saldaña, 2016) consisted of providing each participant a transcript to verify for accuracy no more than 7 days after their interviews were completed. The member checking process was open to any general comments the teacher participants wished to share with the researcher regarding their interviews. Member checking also included allowing each participant to review research findings and provide comments, should they have wished to do so.

Coding data does not take place as a single process of analysis; rather, coding is an "interpretive act" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 5). Coding takes place heuristically, which Saldaña (2016) defined as an "exploratory problem-solving technique without specific formulas" (p. 9). Data analysis took place using a phenomenologically situated coding methodology. Saldaña outlined the following steps, which were used by the researcher for data analysis:

> Themes serve phenomenology . . . Butler-Kisber (2010, pp. 50-61) advises that the phenomenological process consists of extracting verbatim "significant statements" from the data, "formulating meanings" about them through the

> researcher's interpretations, clustering these meanings into a series of organized themes, then elaborating on the themes through rich written description. (p. 199-200)

Data were coded through several cycles of data analysis. The coding process consisted of a two-cycle methodology (Saldaña, 2016). Saldaña (2016) described the purpose of the coding process as being "in service to thinking. The insights . . . about social phenomena emerge . . . from the analytic connections . . . [constructed] and [reported]" (p. 80). First-cycle coding was described as "fairly direct" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 69). Two in vivo coding (Saldaña, 2016) methodologies were used by the researcher for first-cycle coding. The etymology of the term "in vivo" for coding methodology name means "that which is alive" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 105). The origin of this term helped support the alignment of the in vivo coding methodology with phenomenological inquiry, which seeks to analyze "understanding experiences as lived" (Peoples, 2021, p. 3).

The two in vivo coding methodologies used by the researcher were processes of initial coding and concept coding. During the initial coding analysis, the researcher "breaks down qualitative data into discrete parts, closely examines them and compares them for similarities and differences (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 102)" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 115). It is an "open ended" approach that provides the researcher with "analytic leads" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 115). The second round of in vivo coding (Saldaña, 2016) used a concept coding approach. A *concept* was defined by Saldaña (2016) as "an idea" (p. 119) and that which "symbolically represents a suggested meaning broader than a single item or action – a 'bigger picture'" (p. 119). Concept coding fit the goals of the research study to identify aspects of participating teachers' pedagogical choices in relation to theoretical constructs of critical literacy. Saldaña (2016) wrote, "Concept Codes are appropriate for

studies focused on theory and theory development" (p. 120), further supporting the appropriateness of using this coding methodology for the study.

The multilayered coding process resulted in an initial set of data, which were reported in relation to the research study questions in the first section of Chapter 4. Subsequent cycles of coding revealed data that aligned with a conception of teacher stance; thus, these data were reported in Part 2 of Chapter 4. Together, the researcher presented both an initial picture of findings and "bigger picture" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 119) findings to support a "thick description" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 245) of research data. *Thick description* has been defined as "narrative [which] "presents detail, context, emotion, and the webs of social relationships . . . [and] evokes emotionality and self-feelings . . . The voices, feelings, actions, and meanings of interacting individuals are heard" (Denzin, 2001, p. 100)" (as cited by Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 245).

The researcher then grouped synthesized themes through a process of "themeing the data" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 198). Saldaña (2016) placed "theming the data" (p. 198) at the end of their discussion of first-cycle coding, as the process has elements overlapping with second-cycle coding. Second-cycle coding is analytic and refines the coding process with methods of "reorganizing and reconfiguring . . . transformed work" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 212). Organizing the previously coded study data into themes aligned with the overall process of this research, because "themes serve phenomenology" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 199). The process of theming the data, Saldaña (2016) wrote, "Organizes a group of repeating ideas" (p. 199) before having been processed by reflective understanding on the part of participants. Reorganizing data findings according to synthesized themes allowed the researcher to further link data findings to existing themes in existing studies of secondary

writing pedagogy, and thus, more closely align findings reported in Chapter 4 to recurring themes discussed in the literature.

Synthesized Data Themes

The purpose of "theming the data" (Saldaña, 2016, pp. 198–200) was to order findings from Chapter 4 into synthesized commonalities shared between participants. This ordering was not meant to disregard individual participant differences; rather, this order helped organize common participant experiences related to existing research on writing pedagogy. Research findings in Chapter 4 were organized to most closely align with emergent themes driven by the study. In contrast, findings are organized in this section are done so in relation to larger topics that more concisely match findings with existing literature and vocabulary that discuss the teaching of writing. In other words, findings of Chapter 4 presented research findings within the language of existing critical literacy frameworks, with data findings reduced through concept coding (Saldaña, 2016). Concept coding was appropriate for early data reporting because of its focus on how terminology and language used by participants "symbolically represents a suggested meaning broader than a single item or action" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 119). Further, Saldaña (2016) wrote this methodology can be used to "transcend the local and particular of the study to more abstract or generalizable contexts" (p. 120). These contexts include the two critical literacy frameworks used in Chapter 4. For this chapter, through a cycle of "theming the data" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 198), the researcher presents how the research findings detailed in Chapter 4 inform particular ongoing discussions and debates in the study of teaching and pedagogy of secondary writing, organized to align with broader themes in the literature.

The synthesized themes address the research questions and present additional data related to teachers' lived experiences on how writing is approached—not only by teachers in secondary schools, but also by systems and structures that work with teachers of writing. Findings touched on systems that prepare and support these teachers before and during their pedagogical work in their classrooms, in addition to nonschool structures, such as Pharos, that can be also accessed for collaboration with teachers. Through a phenomenological process of "clustering" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 200), common experiences of the participant teachers emerged, informing the researcher of commonalities that addressed the central questions of the study. The intertwined thinking of these particular English language arts (ELA) teachers and their pedagogical approaches to teaching writing in school-based settings suggests findings can be further organized into synthesized themes. The synthesized findings are as follows:

- All participating teachers prioritized a relational lens for working with students. This lens views students as individuals and values their individual identities and subjectivity. This lens was embodied by each teacher embodied before content, meaning regardless of subject, the teachers first centered relationships and student well-being.
- Whether consciously or unconsciously, the teachers in the study all displayed significant examples of embodying critical literacy practices in their teaching, practices which were embedded in their work. Specifically, the teachers embodied elements of both Janks' (2010) synthesis model of critical literacy and Lewison et al.'s (2015) instructional model of critical literacy.

- All teachers, particularly the three secondary teachers, addressed a lack of training and professional development on how to specifically teach writing.
- All participating teachers placed high value on a broad understanding of writing as both a means of communication and an art form. They valued this position regarding writing as being at least as important as teaching standards, with several teachers indicating this view of writing comes before standardized curricular requirements. The teachers also saw their strengths (and leaned into them) when supporting the practice of using writing to support students' reading skills.

Synthesized Finding: "Caring for" Relationships

All participating teachers prioritized a relational lens for working with students. This lens viewed students as individuals with "full personhood" (Gillen, 2014, p. 20), and valued their individual identities and subjectivity.

Three resources, in addition to Friere's (1970/2018) original analysis on dehumanization, supported the researcher's understanding of teacher–student relationships. Each lens from Gay (2018), Gillen (2014), and Noddings (2005) supported and informed data identified throughout Chapter 4. These four conceptions of care and relationship also all share the premise of applying ideas associated within the moral sphere. Evidence from both evaluative frameworks in Chapter 4 showed how the four participating teachers develop relationships, which extends the foundational humanization Freire (1970/2018) first addressed with "representations of inside and outside of consciousness, or '*in* the world, not *with* the world"' (p. 75). Freire (1970/2018) named this concept the "teacher-student contradiction" (p. 72) and called for

the dissolution of teacher–student hierarchy. Communication was the tool Freire (1970/2018) identified for generating solidarity with students to enable their growth, calling this tool "authentic thinking" (p. 77). Friere (1970/2018) also noted:

> Only through communication can human life hold meaning. The teacher's thinking is authenticated only by the authenticity of the students' thinking. The teacher cannot think for her students, nor can she impose her thought on them. Authentic thinking, thinking that is concerned about *reality*, does not take place in ivory tower isolation, but only in communication. (p. 77)

Two factors can be identified in the research literature supporting this study with evidence found by the researcher. The first factor is participating teachers see their students as having "autonomous identities" (Gillen, 2014, p. 20), and they treat them as subjects in their own right. The second factor is mutual communication as a pillar to enacting consciousness-enabling relationships. Both of these research findings can be seen as evidence that study participants view students as possessing the consciousness of creators, individuals "with the world" (Friere, 1970/2018, p. 75), relationships in which teachers work to enable the consciousness of their students.

Examples of consciousness enabling relationships were found throughout data analysis in Chapter 4. For the purpose of adding specificity to the discussion in this section, the researcher selected highlights of this trait from the previous chapter so as to more explicitly make the connection between this synthesized discussion of the finding and classroom praxis. Brandon made their focus on care explicit; when describing the direct connection between scholarly success and relational care, they noted, "Relationship first—my relationship opens the door to teach them something intellectual." Research data also showed the paradoxes that can develop for a teacher in school-based settings when institutional mandates, such as mandated reporting policies, conflict with student

care. Brandon expressed this tension by indicating the failure of institutions tasked with protecting youth; they noted, “I’ve never had a positive interaction with social services . . . hundreds of reports I’ve filed.” Brandon linked how a caring-for relationship can support making these determinations when discussing a student who writes horror, evidence that was presented in more detail in Chapter 4. In this context, data indicated such a relationship was not only a result of Brandon’s 3-year knowledge of the student, but also emerged from familiarity with the student’s extended family through a “very close relationship.” This relationship supports Brandon’s determination about written content that would typically cause unnecessary concern, or even harm, in other circumstances.

Gay (2018) listed the actions of “seeing, respecting, and assisting diverse students from their own vantage points” (p. 58) as actions indicative of culturally responsive caring. Data from one of Catherine’s interviews showed how they fostered an introductory reset and worked to enable student consciousness with a returning student who was “really frustrating, you feel like you’re working 3 times as hard as he is.” Catherine explained how their initial reintroduction focused on the qualities in support of the student’s “self-confidence and self-reliance,” both additional aspects of culturally responsive caring Gay (2018) identified. In her conversation with the returning student, Catherine tried to make the point that “It’s good to see you back in school” in addition to identifying to the reluctant learner, “Look what you just figured out to do.” Catherine shared they wanted to “give him the benefit of the doubt” and “trying to show him too, that, ‘Hey, I’m here for you.’ I always have thought with him that he feels like it’s hard to trust teachers.” These messages provided evidence of how ‘“caring for’ is practice or

action" (Gay, 2018, p. 58); Catherine verbalized specific, humanistic goals while in conversation with a returning student with whom Catherine wished to be positive with and focus on accomplishments.

Catherine also shared another message they wanted to make explicit when acknowledging what the student has achieved; they recalled telling the student, '"I remember how you earned all your credits in my class last year, that took a lot of work. It's pretty cool that you did that."' This vignette identified an example of a teacher not only fostering a caring relationship with a student, but how the teacher's intent was geared toward the culturally responsive actions of "seeing, respecting, and assisting" (Gay, 2018, p. 58) the student in achieving their goals. The evidence here shows examples of Catherine working to enable the students' consciousness.

Mary promotes their students' consciousness of being "in the world" (Freire, 1970/2018, p. 75) as participatory actors; Mary noted success with what they call "confidence pose." Gay (2018) outlined the messages that are communicated by the teacher when establishing classroom practices such as Mary's "confidence pose," the rituals communicate, "I have faith in your ability to learn, I care about the quality of your learning, and I commit myself to making sure that you will learn" (p. 57). Repeating the mantra-like statement as a class, as Mary does, identifies to the students that the teacher has an investment and stake in their learning; learning is not the students' task alone. This belief highlights the active nature of the relationships revealed by interview data, this is not the work of simply getting along without differences and "feelings of empathy and emotional attachment" (Gay, 2018, p. 58), but are commitments of teacher investment. Mary shared the experience of "confidence pose," noting:

> The kids stand up on their chairs, they put their hands on their hips, and we have a mantra. So the community leader will say it, now repeat it. And it's, "I am a scholar, I have a kind heart. I have a strong spirit. I have a giving soul. I am determined. I will always do my best. Ms. Mary believes in me. I believe in me. And I believe in you."

Gay (2018) wrote the message of such practices is "partnership" (p. 57). Returning to Freire's (1970/2018) idea of being inside and outside of consciousness, Mary's mantra joins the students and teacher together in an active project for which all have an obligation. With confidence pose, the students are brought inside the realm of responsibility to share the work of learning with the teacher. The encircling and bringing forth responsibility does not stop with just the roles of teacher and student; the final "and I believe in you" statement presents a communal chorus of promise for everyone in the room, regardless of role. This is dissolution of hierarchy and a practice of enabling consciousness.

One method by which Winona demonstrated an understanding of student perspective and conveyed that their students are seen and respected was through the use of a "student voice" modality. As discussed in Chapter 4, the researcher defined Winona's use of "student voice" as "talking in the role of a student." Similar to an actor speaking their lines, this student voice modality allows Winona to embody the role of student. Use of student voice allows Winona to exhibit understanding and validation by repeating student thoughts through their voice, merging the roles of student and teacher. Winona used this student voice modality when sharing their lessons with the researcher; for example, in one instance Winona uses the modality to convey a students'

metacognitive thinking about contrast, noting, “Oh, the first sentence says successful, the second one says they lost money, that’s contrast, that’s different.” Later during the interview, Winona used student voice to express what they hope students learn from the lesson, explaining, “Oh, yeah, okay, now I actually understand that transitions are about figuring out the relationship between sentences and using the right words to connect them.”

The goal of the examples discussed in this synthesized findings section was to present concrete examples of how the participating teachers embodied relationships that reflected consciousness enabling attributes. These consciousness raising attributes are also matched by the researcher to ideas of Noddings’s (2005) “ethic of care” (p. xv) and Gay’s (2018) notion of “caring for” relationships. By presenting this extended synthesized data finding, the researcher’s goal has been to extend the discussion of consciousness enabling relationship practices found in the study.

Earlier in this section, two factors were highlighted as necessary for caring relationships. The first was Gillen’s (2014) idea of “autonomous identities” (p. 20). Autonomous students practice and learn their roles, and, in Gillen’s (2014) view, should be afforded a “crawl space where these forms of address may be tried out and practiced without the constant threat of rupture and disintegration” (p. 146). In this view, the student writing about murdering students or another students’ lack of follow through during an earlier semester should be viewed with a grace that Gillen (2014) attributed to an idea from Bob Moses: “a generosity of spirit . . . expectation of what is best, rather than what is worst, in the other” (p. 11). This idea of a “crawl space” (Gillen, 2014, p. 146) as part of consciousness enabling relationships can especially impact work with

marginalized student populations. The two examples provided by Brandon and Catherine are examples of enabling “crawl space” in relationships, where students are allowed adolescent growth.

The second connection that consciousness enabling relationships provide in relation to existing pedagogical literature relates to the importance of communication. Noddings (2005) combined ideas related to student agency and the importance of communication to achieving such goals in a structure they termed “Themes of Care” (pp. xxiii–xxvi). The sphere of influence Noddings (2005) addressed expands outward like concentric circles to include: “Caring for self; Caring for strangers and distant others; Caring for animals, plants and the earth; Caring for the human-made world; and finally Caring for ideas” (p. vii). Noddings (2005) identified dialogue as an essential feature of caring relationships, important for both broader community relationships in addition to those more personal. Noddings (2005) argued dialogue applies to important thinking skills, noting:

> What is learned in dialogue is interpersonal reasoning–the capacity to communicate, share decision making, arrive at compromises, and support each other in solving everyday problems. The school presently puts tremendous emphasis on logical-mathematical reasoning but almost none on interpersonal reasoning. (p. 53)

In prioritizing relationships with students, the teachers modeled what Noddings argued was a neglected practice. Similar to the grace discussed by Gillen (2014), Noddings (2005) indicated one influence of dialogue could lead to a more nuanced understanding of what it means to human, noting, “Part of what children need to learn is that groups need not be accepted or rejected wholly” (p. 54). The connection to morality for Noddings (2005) is student “capacities must be filtered through and filled out by a

consideration of differences that are associated with race, sex, ethnicity, and religion" (p. 62), and one of the means by which this is accomplished is through dialogue.

Implications of Teachers' "Caring for" Relationality

The implications regarding the synthesized finding of teachers' qualities of relationality is a topic that intersects both critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015) and the more extensive idea of teacher disposition. Teacher disposition is defined as, "Professional dispositions are the principles or standards that underpin a teacher's success in the classroom. They are the values, commitments, and professional ethics that govern how a teacher acts with students, families, colleagues, and communities" (Washington State University, n.d., "Professional dispositions" section). Whereas dispositions encompass a wide range of professional behavior, critical stance is more circumscribed, defining a set of theoretical perspectives within the values, commitments, and ethics that teachers can practice within a wider range of dispositions. The reason this distinction is important in addressing the implications of findings related to teachers' relational practices is because the relational practices of the participants is a topic that is present within critical literacies and critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015) but also a more expansive set of practices that crossover to a wide range of teacher dispositions (Washington State University, n.d., "Professional dispositions" section). What this implies for study findings is that the data about teacher relationality extends beyond the studies' theoretical constructs of critical literacies and critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015).

Ideas from both Noddings (2005) and Gay (2018) supported a more expansive understanding of the aspects of relationality found in study. Within this more expansive

finding related to the construct of relationality, it is not simply the teacher who participates in Noddings's (2005) idea of the ethic of care. Because this concept is relational at its core, it requires mutuality different from the teacher solely adopting one particular way of acting. Noddings (2005) defined the idea of an ethic of care as a particular type of being-in-the-world, noting, "An ethic of care embodies a relational view of caring; that is, when I speak of caring, my emphasis is on the relation containing carer and cared-for . . . Both carer and cared-for contribute to this relation" (p. xv). Data discussed in Chapter 4 showed the importance of relationships for all four participating teachers. Care is also a component of culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2018). For Gay (2018), one determining difference of culturally responsive caring (also an ethic) is defined as the difference between "caring about" (p. 58) and "caring for" (p. 58). Gay (2018) stated, "While caring about conveys feelings of concern for one's state of being, caring for is active engagement in doing something to positively affect it. Thus, it encompasses a combination of concern, compassion, commitment, responsibility, and action" (p. 58). The importance of action to the concept of "caring for" also connects to critical praxis. For both frameworks, action is a central component of how theory is brought to life in classroom experiences.

This underpinning was important to study findings because there could exist a relationship between how prominent ideas about an ethic of care relate to writing teacher's willingness to collaborate. Questions regarding how close a relationship exists between care and collaboration for writing instruction can inform not only work with professional writers, but other instances of professional cooperation as well. As a future area of study, research related to ELA teachers' dispositions early in their careers,

specifically related to their ideas about how relationships are developed, could illuminate possible connections between particular teacher dispositions (Washington State University, n.d., “Professional dispositions” section) and approaches best suited to support methods of strengthening skills related to teaching writing. Those responsible for writing teachers’ professional development (e.g., professors, administrators, curriculum leaders) could identify distinctly suitable professional development trajectories for individual ELA teachers according to their dispositions.

Moreover, a model could be developed that uses research to inform educational leaders of common characteristics for writing instructors who have attributes that support collaboration. Using such a model could support using a collaborative instructional model for writing earlier in teachers’ careers; this model would provide greater assurance that collaborative involvement could be successful. The researcher is not proposing an exclusionary system, but rather, one that enhances professional development styles that match most strongly to particular teaching styles. Research promoting connections between teaching styles and different instructional methodologies for literacies could help direct teachers to programs that best suit their strengths and interests. Dispositional traits (Washington State University, n.d., “Professional dispositions” section) for secondary ELA writing teachers could be expanded with more research to identify and analyze in depth how traits such as relationality benefit the teaching of writing. Further research would be useful in questions regarding literacy teachers’ areas of strength.

Winona was particularly inquisitive about the different roles of ELA teachers and the differences between teaching reading and teaching writing, not to mention additional, less-traditional literacies. Brandon also addressed this split, noting it is “bad pedagogy;”

to separate the teaching of writing and reading; yet, Brandon explained their teaching schedule necessitates some separation of reading and writing content. The researcher does not believe it would be detrimental to literacy work as a whole to further explore how secondary teachers perceive and approach different pedagogical tasks and what it means for student learning that some teachers experience differences in expertise among different strands of literacy teaching. In fact, Mary's participation in the study is an example in the elementary grades of dividing teaching duties, as their school used a model in which literacy teachers and math teachers do not teach the same class of students.

Synthesized Finding: Critical Literacy Perspectives

The second and third synthesized findings are grouped together in this section, which discusses teaching pedagogy. The rationale for combining the two synthesized points is due to their overlapping focus on teacher training and pedagogical knowledge. Both findings addressed questions relating to the training teachers receive, both as beginning teachers and those in the early years of the profession. In addition to questions of training and development, the two synthesized findings questioned the mechanisms and Discourse of how transparent teachers are about their pedagogical conceptions and influences, as well as those who work with them. The lack of Discourse about pedagogical principles within institutional schooling can be attributed to education policy and emphasis on accountability (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Wahleithner, 2018). As noted earlier, "the 'ends question' in education (i.e., debates about the purposes of teaching, learning and schooling) is closed" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009, p. 9). The

two synthesized findings, resulting from evidence discussed in Chapter 4, are the following:

- Whether consciously or unconsciously, the teachers participating in the study all significantly embodied critical literacy practices in their teaching, practices which were embedded in their work. Specifically, the teachers embodied elements of Janks' (2010) synthesis model of critical literacy and Lewison et al.'s (2015) instructional model of critical literacy.
- All teachers, particularly the three secondary teachers, addressed lack of training and professional development on how to specifically teach writing.

After examining each of the two points, the following section discusses how the study's findings suggested additional models of professional development are needed that focus on how to teach secondary writing. These models of professional development should specifically develop secondary writing teachers' pedagogical knowledge of writing concepts and principles more thoroughly, and be available as an ongoing resource for teachers directly at school sites.

Teacher Beliefs: Critical Literacy and Critical Stance

Earlier in the study, research findings were presented supporting the conclusion that teachers' beliefs about writing influence their classroom pedagogies (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham, 2019; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013; Wahleithner, 2018). Throughout both sections of Chapter 4, data identified practices of the participant teachers that aligned with two existing critical literacy frameworks (Janks, 2010; Lewison et al., 2015). The data indicated these are instinctual lenses by which the study participants organize their teaching, as none of the teachers directly identified a framework during their interviews.

Phenomenologically, this finding can be equated to lived experience, because “lived experience is experience that we live through before we take a reflective view of it” (van Manen, 2014, p. 42). Equating this finding related to critical literacy frameworks with lived experience means the evidence from participants in the study did not provide reflective details about what frameworks or theories animate their teaching. van Manen (2014) noted one question of phenomenological investigation is, “How does this experience present itself as a distinguishable phenomenon or event?” (p. 39). Vagle (2014) presented this question another way, noting, “phenomenologists . . . are not primarily interested in what humans decide, but rather how they experience their decision-making” (p. 21). Findings from the study indicated, prereflectively, the four teachers in the study experienced their decision making through individually experienced iterations of frameworks that aligned with critical literacies. For these teachers, their teaching experiences, and, particularly, writing instruction experiences, present themselves in alignment with phenomena and events that map onto ideas of critical literacy.

Teacher Knowledge: Gaps in Writing Pedagogy

In contrast to the prereflective experiences related to critical literacies, three of the four participants in the study were direct about their experiences of teacher training. The evidence provided by the teachers indicated experiences of frustration and discouragement with a lack of more comprehensive preparation for teaching writing. Brandon discussed how he recreated the steps of skills needed for secondary writing through a self-study. Mary also created her own writing curriculum, noting:

> I did take pedagogy classes and how to teach reading, how to teach math. I think I took one and how to teach science and how to teach social studies, but there was not a separate class for writing, which there absolutely should be.

Winona identified her experience as one that leaves them doubtful that they have all the necessary information for their work, noting, “I spent 8 hours grading those paragraphs . . . this is not okay. There has to be a better way to do writing instruction and feedback and assessments and I swear, I just can’t figure it out.”

The data from the study were supported by research literature. Secondary teachers across disciplines (e.g., language arts, social studies, science, and math) self-reported in a study by Gillespie et al. (2013) that 45% received “minimal” preparation (p. 1051) and 11% reported they received “no formal inservice preparation . . . on how to use writing to support learning” (p. 1051). Wahleithner (2018) reported:

> Despite the complex knowledge needed to teach writing, most teachers have few opportunities to learn much about writing instruction during their preservice preparation. . . . In fact, opportunities to develop knowledge of writing instruction vary widely, with many preservice programs providing little preparation at all. (p. 5)

These writing-specific data were also supported by a study of three teacher education programs by Barnes and Smagorinsky (2016), who concluded “pedagogical dissonance” (p. 339) results from a variety of influences in teacher preparation programs. The authors found this result across programs, regardless of the model of teacher preparation. Barnes and Smagorinsky (2016) also presented a strong example of language arts preparation:

> TCs [teacher candidates] were required to take far more courses (8-15) from the Department of English–housed in the College of Arts and Sciences–than in English/Language Arts Education, a College of Education program. As Addington (2001) has documented, these two distinct disciplines are based on

> different epistemologies (humanities for English, social sciences for English/Language Arts Education). (pp. 349–350)

Lack of pedagogical coherence in teacher preparation programs recalls the academic "rift" (Coker & Lewis, 2009, p. 242) that Coker and Lewis discussed in their *Writing Next* analysis. Coker and Lewis (2009) discussed how differences in where writing studies originate, and their types (quantitative and qualitative) can translate to "confusion and lack of coherence" (p. 242) regarding communication about writing for K–12 educators. To some degree, the issues in teacher preparation and the "bifurcation in the literature about what constitutes effective research on writing" (Coker & Lewis, 2008, p. 233) are obstacles for ELA writing teachers that originate from similar and overlapping sources. These issues originate with how the teaching of secondary writing is studied and reported.

The two synthesized study findings, the first about critical literacy and the second about teacher knowledge, both fundamentally addressed conceptions of teaching. The first findings addressed types of teacher knowledge, that being the finding that teachers in the study used elements of critical stance (Lewison et al., 2015) and tenets of Janks' Synthesis Model of Critical Literacy (2009, 2010). The second identified gaps in teacher training programs. Combined, these two synthesized findings suggest needed developments in the fields of literacy and ELA, in addition to changes to secondary ELA teacher preparation programs so that they give more attention to the breadth of existing information about the teaching of writing. The discussion of the two findings presented in this section also address the link between education policy, its conception of teachers and teaching, and how those constructs particularly affect the study findings.

Implication of Narrow Views of Teaching Pedagogy

This section shows how a rigidly constructed "technical transmission model" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009, p. 62) of teaching, stemming from educational policies, impacts both sustained Discourse about teacher pedagogical viewpoints and improvements to the design of teacher preparation programs in the area of writing. Studies have shown education policies impact teacher training programs and the teaching that takes place in the classroom (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hendrix-Soto, 2019; Hillocks, 2008; Wahleithner, 2018).

In a study of No Child Left Behind, Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) argued the education policy establishes a constrained view of teaching that has broad implications. One such implication from Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) included:

> Teachers are being compelled to reduce their practice to teaching a narrow set of skills that increasingly bypass the kinds of professional judgements about the knowledge of students and communities that many regard as the distinguishing features of excellent practice. (p. 73)

Such limitations impact teacher Discourse and teachers' ability to discuss status quo conceptions of schooling; for example, in a review of 26 studies of critical literacies addressed in preservice teacher programs, Hendrix-Soto and Wetzel (2019) found barriers to enacting critical literacies included factors related to "Discourses of literacy" (p. 208) and "Discomfort with and fear of controversy" (p. 210). These examples suggest a degree of pushback that hinders open teacher discussion about practices that can question assumptions of institutional choice. Similarly, study findings touched on what Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) called "assumptions about teachers" (p. 63). These assumptions proceed from the "astonishingly comprehensive" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle,

2009, p. 62) federal education policies that began with No Child Left Behind Act and have arguably continued even following revision of Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA; 2015). Ravitch (2020) concluded ESSA "retained many of the failed assumptions and policies of its predecessors" (p. 122), particularly as it "continued to require annual testing" (p. 25). While the present study does not address the participating teachers specific backgrounds in teacher certification, the study data does distinctly indicate that it provided inadequate training for all four of the teachers in their desire for pedagogical foundations in the teaching of writing.

Synthesized Finding: Importance of Writing to Teachers

The fourth synthesized study finding showed all participating teachers in this study placed high value on a broad understanding of writing, both as a means of communication and an art form. The participating teachers held the position that writing as a creative act was at least as important as its school-based functions (i.e., as required by teaching standards). Two participating teachers, Brandon and Mary, even expressed this comprehensive view of writing came before its function as a curricular requirement.

In discussing the fourth synthesized finding, this section first briefly reviews earlier discussions from Chapter 2 on how the teaching of writing came to segment the production of text into modes, or "forms of discourse" (Hillocks, 2008, p. 13). This section also discusses how those ideas continue to influence instructional hierarchies before addressing existing research that has problematized conceptions of writing that strictly divide writing into formulaic genres, especially school-based genres. Finally, the section discusses how evidence from the study identified a potential way to subvert

limited school-based writing opportunities to provide greater support for ELA teachers in providing students with more real-world (i.e., authentic) writing practice.

Context in the historical development of how writing was organized in institutions of learning helps with understanding how writing instruction has developed and continues to be conceptualized in K–12 schools. Hillocks (2008) traced this evolution to research by Berlin's (1984) 19th-century changes in rhetoric. One change related to the field of rhetoric, as understood in U.S. universities, is, "Rhetoric becomes concerned with adapting the message to faculties of the audience" (Berlin, 1984, p. 8; as cited in Hillocks, p. 313). Hillocks (2008) likened this 19th-century transition to "forms of discourse" (p. 313), a nod to Berlin (1984), who noted:

> Managerial invention [took] the shape of forms of discourse–description, narration, exposition, and persuasion. Rhetoric, it is asserted, cannot teach the discovery of the content of discourse, but it can teach students to manage it, once found, so that it appeals to the appropriate faculty. (p. 29)

Hillocks (2008) also summed up the consequences of the changes, noting:

> Invention, as management, then, had the effect of divorcing instruction in writing from the examination of the content of writing so that writing courses come to be focused on the form that writing is to take rather than the content that will make it up. From the colleges, these conceptions of writing migrated straight to the high school. (p. 313)

Invention, one of five traditional parts of rhetoric, is broadly defined as the "art of discovering new arguments and uncovering new things by argument" (McKeon, 1987, as cited by Jasinski, 2001, p. 59). Rather than such a broad view of invention, as traditionally intended, the process becomes formulaic. In short, particular writing forms matching specific purposes began to predominate. Urbanski (2006) described such a view as a presentation of "writing as something that can be nicely broken down into neat

categories and structured steps and therefore passed on to students as absolute knowledge, a solid framework in which to plug in thoughts, and never to be deviated from" (p. 13).

The aforementioned explanation recalls two themes in the study. First, using modes, or Hillocks's (2008) term, "management" (p. 313) of content, again brings to mind Freire's (1970/2018) conception of inside and outside of consciousness, with formulaic structures evoking being "in the world, not with the world" (p. 75). The use of forms are dictated, and originate outside of the student in communication with the world. Second, throughout the study, the researcher has returned to the idea of the academic rift as outlined by Coker and Lewis (2008), who suggested one source of "confusion" (p. 242) regarding developing K–12 teachers' writing expertise is the different theoretical domains (e.g., education psychology and composition), and different types of studies (e.g., qualitative and quantitative) that inform teacher's professional development of writing.

Existing literature related to the teaching of writing most significant to this fourth finding consists of two main topics. The first topic is there are models related to writing that support expanding what is taught in required ELA courses of all types, beyond just creative writing courses. The second area, which can be found throughout existing literature on improving writing, is adolescents must write more often for authentic purposes (Gallagher, 2006; Graham, 2019; Janks, 2009, 2010; Murphy & Smith, 2020; Yagelski, 2012). The teachers in the study illustrated these strategies were accomplished by collaborating with an outside writing group and its professional writers.

Implications of the Importance of Writing to Teachers

If additional research supports the finding of this study that teachers who work with an outside professional writing organization have a relationship with more expansive notions of school-based writing, there are suggestions that can follow for both those organizations and professional teacher communities. Each of these two areas (i.e., outside-of-school organizations and professional teacher communities) are addressed as implications of their corresponding synthesized finding. Although the implications section does discuss some suggestions, the following component of this chapter combines suggestions into a separate section of implications of the study.

Implications for Professional Writing Organizations. With more data providing greater understanding of the potential of additional positive educational outcomes from collaboration, professional writing organizations can better prepare collaborating writers. For example, professional writers could in the future be provided with focused materials on ways in which writing exercises can be developed for a range of classes. With further research, a more developed understanding could be shared with professional writers collaborating in secondary classrooms with ways to communicate the importance of different writing strategies. Leaders of professional organizations can also inquire about supporting a wider range of a teacher's classes, should the organization be invited to work in a creative writing class. With purposeful inquiry, organizations working with their professional writers can discuss expanding relationships with teachers. Professional writing organizations working with teachers could also develop focused research questions regarding the particular types of impact that previously might not have been considered when working in school environments.

Study Implications for Principal Pedagogical Questions

In Chapter 2 of the study, analysis of existing research literature on the teaching of writing found that two primary areas of influence exist in establishing how teachers view the teaching of writing. First, what teachers know and believe about writing influences their pedagogical beliefs about the subject (Bazerman, 2016; Graham, 2019; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006; Wahleithner, 2018). If teachers believe writing should primarily serve an academic function, it will be taught with a focus that is "largely product-centered and print-based . . . focused on the finished exemplar of student work with little or no attention to the purpose or process of producing it" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p. 19). Second, as the previous quote also indicated, studies have shown teachers' perceptions of the purpose of writing also inform teachers' pedagogical choices (Bazerman, 2016; Graham, 2019; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013; Wahleithner, 2018). The following sections discuss these two important influences on how writing pedagogy is practiced in relation to study findings, with synthesized discussion on findings and implications.

Pedagogical Theme: Teacher's Beliefs and Knowledge About Writing

Two main ideas were presented in Chapter 2 regarding research related to the teaching of writing. Existing literature indicates teachers' conceptions about the purpose of writing and teachers' beliefs about writing are two of several factors that influence, inform, and "inhibit" (Graham, 2019, p. 277) the teaching of writing in K–12 classrooms (Graham & Harris, 2018). Use of the word "beliefs," coupled with the more precise word, "knowledge," are appropriate, as Graham and Harris (2014) noted the prevalence of what they call "teaching lore" (p. 92). Graham and Harris (2014) also described teaching lore

as: “Based on practices that teachers may have experienced when they were taught to write, practices they developed and applied in their own classrooms, practices they see other teachers apply, and practices actively promoted by others as effective” (p. 92). Retaining the use of both terms, belief and knowledge, is helpful in this section to indicate that “the scientific testing of writing practices using high quality research is incredibly slim” (Graham & Harris, 2014, p. 93). Although earlier in the study, the researcher discussed their philosophical differences regarding quantitative and postpositivist approaches to research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018), it does not discount the importance of both types of research. In fact, Graham and Harris (2014) acknowledged, “Today’s lore will become tomorrow’s EBP’s, [evidence based practices] as more practices are scientifically tested” (p. 93). The authors also acknowledged the importance of context—both physical space and that of the teacher’s writing background.

Although there is a category of research related to the teaching of writing that discusses a wider range of practices, studies have had competing or overlapping ideas about the primacy of focus; these ideas have ranged from teaching discrete skills (e.g., Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin 2007a, 2007b, 2007c) to a broader range of literacy ideas, such as those from proponents of sociocultural literacy (e.g., Bazerman, 2016; Janks, 2009; Lewis et al., 2007; Lewison et al., 2015; Moje & Lewis, 2007; Shor, 1999). Teachers who lack particular subject background and are unable to make such choices on their own are at a great pedagogical disadvantage. Not being able to choose from a wide range of available writing pedagogies is a type of powerlessness. As addressed in the literature review of Chapter 2, there is agreement between these different philosophical

viewpoints that teachers do not have the background necessary to make skillful choices in the teaching of writing (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Graham, 2019; Graham & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008).

ELA teachers must have a stronger foundational grounding related to the teaching of writing; for example, Gillespie et al. (2013) found teachers self-reported not having enough training in the teaching of writing, and Troia and Graham (2016) found teachers did not feel prepared to implement Common Core writing and language standards. Additional study across programs would be beneficial to further inform researchers on foundations of teaching writing that preservice teacher coursework covers or should cover. Notably, proposed suggestions made by the researcher are likely to be in tension with the focus of many teaching programs on how to develop coursework according to regimented standards. The tension between the recommendations resulting from this study further supports the suggestion that robust and easily accessible alternate pathways for teachers to improve skills for the teaching of writing are necessary. Writing teachers must be better informed of the pedagogical choices they potentially have the power to make in the classroom. The study data suggested there is a distinct subset of teachers—those who seek collaboration with professional writers—who have developed practices that could be nurtured and expanded with proper supports. This subset of teachers also presents a rich resource for future research regarding successful pedagogical moves in the teaching of writing.

Many of these teachers' practices have support and are validated by studies of teaching writing (see Chapter 2). One of those possible supports involves professional writing organizations, like Pharos. Other avenues exist as well; one example includes

professional development trainings that specifically provide necessary background and context to different choices writing teachers can make. The view of the researcher is these trainings would have to be provided in out-of-school contexts. The reasoning for this view is any professional development associated with school-based Discourse will change the orientation regarding the premises and purposes of writing in school contexts. Professional development within school structures will undoubtably focus on school-sanctioned curricular projects. Out-of-school professional development would be less constricted, and would have greater autonomy to include school-based literacy development, in addition to more expansive ideas about adolescent writing. Pedagogical flexibility to address a broad scope of teaching methodologies would be less possible for institutionally sanctioned professional development, when school-based criteria predominate, both explicitly and implicitly.

The point is teachers do have unprocessed beliefs and knowledge about the teaching of writing, known as "teaching lore" (Graham & Harris, 2014, p. 92), as introduced earlier in this section. Providing more foundational background regarding different schools of thought could empower writing teachers to have a greater depth of pedagogical resources to draw from in their teaching.

Pedagogical Theme: Purpose of Writing

An important understanding of writing instruction in secondary grades is the premise under which most writing is taught: writing it is a school-based discipline (Bazerman, 2016; Janks, 2009; Lewis et al., 2007; Lewison et al., 2015; Shor, 1999; B. Street, 2003). Researchers have found informing writing instruction are teachers' beliefs

about writing and their conceptions of its purpose (Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2018).

Beliefs, which Graham (2019) and Graham and Harris (2018) both identified in their research, is not interchangeable with knowledge. According to Webster's Dictionary (n.d.) knowledge relates to facts, whereas beliefs can be both opinions and factually based. Too often, the purpose of school-based writing is limited to school-based factors. Broadly, the purpose of writing is related to questions regarding what the desired goal or outcome is of a particular writing occasion. A school assignment is a particular type of writing occasion. Often, there is more than one goal to a school-based writing assignment, and often, these goals can be in tension. A student writing a senior essay required for college admissions, for example, may be simultaneously writing for personal discovery and achieving a particular purpose of writing a compelling college admissions essay that will draw the attention of a particular and specialized audience.

When considering the purpose of writing for secondary ELA teachers, there are a range of positions possible for teachers to take. These positions can change contextually (e.g., schools, districts, states) depending on the populations being taught. The understanding of school-based writing purposes is further complicated by shifts depending on which courses are being taught; for example, three of four teachers participating in the study had recently taught a class specifically devoted to creative writing. Purposes of writing can range on one axis from completely personal, to the extent no other audience is assumed for the work. The far left opposite point of the axis could be represented by writing strictly for school purposes, and the value of the endeavor for the teacher is narrowly school based.

Presenting the purpose of school-based writing on a continuum is done here to more clearly identify that teachers' management of these questions could, in the view of this researcher, potentially be distributed among a much greater axis of possibility. This axis seeks to communicate a broader range of writing practices that are available to teachers of writing than the range that exists in teacher practice (Bazerman, 2016). This study indicated secondary writing teachers do not need to view secondary school-based writing in binary terms. As outlined in Chapter 4, all four participating teachers were committed to improving their students' writing skills. What was distinct about the experiences of the teachers in this study was they expanded boundaries of school-based writing curriculum so it included and valued the personal, in addition to valuing—rather than excluding—support of students' school-based writing skills.

Conceptualizing Improvement

Regarding a problem of practice, Buss and Zambo (n.d.) wrote, "When the practitioner addresses the problem there is potential to improve understanding, experience, and outcomes associated with the matter. The key words here are persistent, contextualized, and improvement" (pp. 5–6). Having defined the persistent problem of practice as the teaching of writing in the context of secondary schools in the United States, and presenting data from a study of practicing teacher participants, it is important to discuss how improvement could be conceptualized, and explore how critical practitioners might actualize findings of this research.

Shields (2018) developed tenets of change that address the current societal strains presenting themselves in the educational arena. These were addressed in relation to "naming the moment" (Kumashiro, 2018, para. 13) in Chapter 1. To manage what

Shields identified as challenges of volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (i.e., VUCA), the eight points outlined in their text are not prescriptions or rules; rather, they read like intentional principles by which transformative leaders should guide their decision making. Shields (2018) wrote:

> *Transformative leadership* is a critical approach to leadership grounded in Freire's (1970) fourfold call for critical awareness or *conscientization*, followed by critical reflection, critical analysis, and finally for activism or critical action against the injustices of which one has become aware. (p. 11)

Several tenets in Shields's text specifically addressed how language shapes reality, an important move in critical literacy and critical writing; for example, Shields (2018) argued for "the need to deconstruct and reconstruct knowledge frameworks that perpetuate inequity and injustice" (p. vii). This study has argued that change in K–12 education, specifically the teaching of writing, cannot be "technical reforms" (Shields, 2018, p. 6), but, rather, "critically reflective educators [which] help students understand that their world is made up of multiple and often conflicting perspectives, of numerous historic and cultural interpretations, of shades of gray, and of contextually determined truths" (Shields, 2018, p. 7). Teachers of writing, especially those who work with professional writing organizations, occupy particular educational spaces that can show how such transformative leadership is lived in relationship with their students. If it is systemically difficult to change "ideologies of schooling" (Bazerman, 2016, p. 17), then bringing non-school-related influences into teaching spaces can expand writing possibilities, especially with "real-world" (Murphy & Smith, 2020, p. 6) writing ideas, as writing is "often self-sponsored" (Murphy & Smith, 2020, p. 6).

The next sections, which discuss recommendations responding to data presented in the study, present suggestions related to policy, professional development of teachers, and conceptualization of secondary writing. The section on conceptualized improvement ideas will close by addressing future research questions.

Teacher Certification Policy

Throughout the literature informing the study and from participant data, teacher training has been scrutinized. Specifically, teacher training lacks attention to teaching of writing, particularly for secondary school personnel (Wahleithner, 2018). Wahleithner (2018) suggested, "Most programs . . . embed attention to writing within methods courses" (pp. 5–6). As presented by existing literature in this study, secondary writing is complex. In their review of preservice education, Barnes and Smagorinsky (2016) identified examples of preservice teacher course structures, where university students' classes were situated more in the English department than from education faculty. The current study data found three of the four teachers, Brandon, Mary, and Winona, specifically discussed their experiences with lack of instruction on how to teach writing. Finally, regarding teacher preparation, the study presented how, beyond the teaching of writing, preparing preservice teachers with critical teaching practices is an added challenge in teacher preparation programs.

Because teachers are certified by state boards, changes to policies overseeing how secondary teachers are trained requires a focus on change at the state level. Policy language requiring a specific course on teaching writing for teachers receiving a secondary ELA credential would push schools of education to specifically address this content. With literature suggesting reading is often prioritized over writing (Chandler-

Olcott, 2019, p. 5), and the particular difficulty of teaching writing, mandating that teaching of writing is specifically addressed on its own could begin to prepare secondary ELA teachers with basic foundational knowledge of writing pedagogy. In this study, three of the four teachers in the study experienced writing pedagogy training as inadequate.

This recommendation is made with the understanding that state boards of education are challenged with making policy that must balance being too broad and too specific; however, the study supports existing literature addressing this particular challenge of teacher training, so teachers who work with students are better prepared for the complexity of teaching secondary writing. It is true federal policy impacts how states define subject expertise, with subject-matter knowledge being a strong component of No Child Left Behind (Cochran-Smith, 2009); however, federal legislation is interpreted differently by individual states; thus, it is at the state level, rather than nationally, where greater specificity about the requirements to teach writing can be codified. Major legislation related to education is addressed too infrequently to promote changes needed in the area of secondary writing.

An additional policy measure that could begin an incomplete transition to a mandate for schools of education could be an independent state certificate in the teaching of writing in secondary schools. Using a model for other competencies, such as cultural or gifted experience, state leaders could first introduce required competencies for teachers of secondary writing with a separate course structure as a means of signaling the value of additional expertise in this area. This course structure could be situated as a professional development alternative to a more time-consuming and, at times, cost-prohibitive

master's degree focusing on writing. Initiation of this certificate would also have the benefit of being an informational tool.

As teachers present the certification of teaching secondary writing, this training would present opportunities for teachers and administrators to address how writing is taught in professional conversations. Models for course structure could be based on successful programs focused specifically on working with teachers of writing, such as the National Writing Project, which already has data regarding curricular success and has relationships with university faculty (Kaplan, 2009; Murphy & Smith, 2020; National Writing Project and Nagin, 2006; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2005). Arguably, National Writing Project's success is based on its lack of systemic affiliation, and the researcher is not suggesting a change to National Writing Project or for the organization to take on any systemic responsibilities. The researcher suggests any proposed certificate or additional class constructed by states is constructed with the resources and research already available and affecting the teaching of writing in secondary schools.

Curriculum for Teachers of Secondary Writing

Prompting the creation of clearer courses to train teachers in teaching writing, and subsequently, the creation of a semistandardized body of knowledge, would have the added benefit of providing a more accessible, strongly researched, and curated body of knowledge available to organizations outside of educational institutions. As this study has presented, knowledge of writing is dispersed between educational psychology, composition, and teacher education departments (Barnes & Smagorinsky, 2016; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Hillocks, 2008). What Coker and Lewis (2008) addressed has not fundamentally changed in the structures of how preservice teachers are informed about

writing; they noted, “When teachers complete their training and enter the classroom, they may begin teaching without the breadth and depth of understanding needed to carry out effective writing instruction” (p. 243).

A group of syllabi and standardized course-style readers that align with broad-based and research-based knowledge of teaching writing would have the benefit of supporting non-school-based organizations (e.g., Pharos) in their collaboration with practicing teachers. Leaders of organizations would benefit from preparing professional writers with information regarding the Discourse structures they are becoming involved with when collaborating with school-based writing teachers. This researcher remains unable to point to a single text that would inform a visiting professional writer of a broad, critical, literacy-oriented, pedagogical Discourse of secondary school-based writing instruction. Though there are excellent resources, the lack of a single, textual destination for information is an obstacle for visiting writers in schools to improve their impact when working with secondary teachers.

In addition to more focused pedagogical material for organizations (e.g., Pharos) that collaborate with classroom-based teachers, developing stronger support and benefit of high school writing centers would serve as an imbedded, structural tactic of supporting pedagogical knowledge of teaching writing. These spaces, though school-sponsored, are also marginally outside of classroom structures, as a “hybrid role” (Fels & Wells, 2011, p. 4). Similar to research related to work of National Writing Project, successful models and research of high school writing centers is available; notable examples include *The Successful High School Writing Center* by Fels and Wells (2011), and a previous text by Kent (2006), titled, *A Guide to Student-Staffed Writing Centers: Grades 6-12*. This area

can also be expanded. Issues with both disseminating existing writing research (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006) and circulating existing information about high school writing centers is also addressed as a future research question in a later section.

Inquiry-Driven Writing Instruction

One conceptual change secondary teachers need to pedagogically incorporate is a move from process-oriented writing to writing as social interaction. This move was foreshadowed in Chapter 2 of the study, when the literature review introduced Hyland's (2016) organization of writing theories. The "Writer Oriented" (Hyland, 2016, p. 12) theories have been followed by "Writing as Social Interaction" (Hyland, 2016, p. 22). Conceptually, the theoretical move from "Writer Oriented" (Hyland, 2016, p. 12) methodologies to a more expansive view of "Writing as Social Interaction" (Hyland, 2016, p. 22) is the pedagogical move that secondary writing teachers need to be coached into making in their classroom-based practices, especially with academic discourse.

Although inquiry-driven writing instruction is not a unifying answer to the multifaceted nature of secondary writing instruction, it does foster a necessary pedagogical move to expand socially constructed aspects of writing, especially school-based discourses. Inquiry-driven writing instruction focuses on "two kinds of procedural knowledge: Inquiry strategies for developing the content of writing, and strategies for producing various kinds of written discourse" (Hillocks, 1995, as cited by National Writing Project and Nagin, 2006, p. 23). Inquiry-driven writing seeks to directly respond to traditional 5-paragraph essay formulas and "Common flaws [which] are use of a 'chain of unsupported claims'; unclear support for an assertion; feelings masquerading as reason and evidence; and argument by assertion" (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006, p.

23). Chandler-Olcott (2019) believed inquiry-driven writing “contrasts starkly with the fill-in-the-blank, overdetermined writing tasks” (p. 59). Inquiry-driven writing instruction is also what Graham and Harris (2014) called an evidence-based practice; this practice is supported by some research, though certainly not enough (Chandler-Olcott, 2019; National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). Chandler-Olcott (2019) also framed inquiry-driven writing instruction as a more appropriate pedagogy for “diverse, inclusive classrooms” (p. 59).

Although inquiry-driven writing strategies are not a single solution for secondary writing teachers, shifts could be made in the Discourse of teaching secondary writing if combined with an expanded pedagogical background and increased focus on practicing critical literacies in teaching, not just reading about theory, as Hendrix-Soto and Wetzel (2019) suggest happens too often.

Future Research Questions

The future research questions listed in this section of the study were informed by both existing literature and reporting of study data. These future research questions are organized into three general strands. First, more research must be done to accurately and broadly report what current ELA teachers know about teaching writing. Second, more research needs to be designed to explore the beliefs of ELA teachers before they make more developed choices about their pedagogical choices when teaching writing. Finally, because of the broad nature of the field of writing, more evidence needs to be gathered about humanizing writing pedagogies.

Quantify What Secondary ELA Teachers Currently Know

As a review of the state of the profession, research should be done to accurately assess what secondary writing teachers know and believe. The suggestion is a broad survey for the purpose of documenting change in the profession. Without more information on what secondary writing teachers know (or do not know) at particular point in time, changes to the field, such as those suggested in this study, will be hard to quantify and assess. After careful construction of questions, the researcher suggests a survey that could be broadly and easily shared across districts and states so changes in particular beliefs and attitudes over time can be supported and documented by the field.

Study Teachers Before Collaboration

A significant finding from the data posed a question this study was not structured to interpret—the question of what shared qualities or beliefs teachers who self-select to work with an outside writing organization share before seeking out collaboration. Vagle (2014) addressed this distinction, which informed how this study was constructed by differentiating phenomenological investigation from understanding "qualitative properties" (p. 21); they stated, "Phenomenologists . . . are not primarily interested in what humans decide, but rather in how they experience their decision-making" (Vagle, 2014, p. 21). Future researchers should seek to investigate if their research is able to identify these "qualitative properties" (Vagle, 2014, p. 21) of teachers who are open to collaboration with writing organizations or writing centers before they proceed to collaborate. Identifying common characteristics could benefit teacher preparation programs by informing literacy instructors of how to potentially select particular teachers' for a growth trajectory through a match with corresponding values or

dispositions particular teacher–practitioners of writing share. District literacy coordinators or school site leaders could more easily and efficiently match opportunities to work with ELA teachers who fit mutual understandings and dispositions about the teaching of writing. Professional writing organizations, such as Pharos, could, with the work of such future studies, use more specifically targeted language to define and distinguish teachers who fit their model of collaboration; thus, they could more successfully target educators for maximum effectiveness of collaborative professional development and growth.

More Empirical Evidence Regarding Humanizing Writing Pedagogies

This study provides evidence of the wide-ranging and complicated understanding required to discuss teaching writing in secondary schools. In addition to the more comprehensive goal of broadening the general scope of writing pedagogy, the researcher particularly believes critical writing strategies play a particular role in supporting adolescent students with culturally responsive teaching pedagogies (Gay, 2018). More focused research that defines an accessible set of humanizing writing pedagogies needs to be conducted. Once those pedagogies are identified, empirical evidence of their outcomes needs to be developed. This focus is important, not only because currently information about the teaching of writing is dispersed among different departments and methodologies, but because the precedence of systematic curriculum and the influence of accountability movements (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009) do not appear poised for fundamental changes in the next 5 or 10 years. Teachers need practical and accessible resources to manage changes they instinctively understand, as with the participating teachers in the study. A beginning set of clearly articulated, humanizing writing

pedagogies that combine research and teacher practice is absent from the tools practicing teachers need to support adolescent writers, especially those whose voices status-quo structures are not currently built to support.

Summary of Study Conclusions

This study was not undertaken to provide data simply to discuss and point out necessary changes in the pedagogy of teaching writing. Implementing and successfully fostering change should be intentional and strategic. Addressing the process of expanding application of critical literacy—namely, why interventions they have been involved with have not been sustained—Grenfell (1996, as cited by Janks, 2010) reflected on the idea of "pedagogical habitus" (p. 200). *Habitus* is defined as "Bourdieu's concept for explaining our ingrained, unconscious way of being that embodies beliefs, values and ways of doing" (Bordieu, 1991, p. 57, as cited by Janks, 2010, p. 200). Janks (2010) also struck a cautious tone about change, noting:

> Our pedagogic habitus is hard to change . . . Our pedagogic habitus is formed by years spent in school as students, by the teachers who taught us, the books we have read, the education departments and schools we have worked in and the colleagues we have worked with. (p. 201)

Sustaining change should be central to the goal of future work by this researcher and research emerging from this study. Secondary writing pedagogy is influenced by a complex network of institutional, personal, and organizational determinations which require focused attention within a "rich and flexible" (Janks, 2010, p. 207) practice of critical literacies.

The research findings indicated there are concrete actions that can be taken by existing organizations and experienced educators to improve and expand secondary

writing pedagogies. The research also showed there are teachers who value one set of literacy practices (i.e., those related to writing) over others in K–12 schooling. Identifying teachers who prefer teaching writing early could benefit teacher training and improve expertise. Knowing which ELA teachers value writing practices, particularly those informed by critical literacies, could allow for more opportunities to draw them into successful collaborations with professional writing organizations early in their teaching careers. These early matches could then result in stronger resources for successive cohorts of ELA teachers, who could act as embedded school-based resources to improve writing instruction while working alongside other colleagues.

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APPENDIX A

COMPARISONS OF CRITICAL LITERACY CHART

Paul Viskanta

Citations are attached with "Follow-up Questions" document

The purpose of this chart is to help support that the critical literacy elements outlined in Janks (2009) are common across different theorists' views of critical literacy. It is also to contrast it with examples of non-critical pedagogy.

Janks Interdependent model of critical Literacy	POWER	ACCESS (Different literacies)	DESIGN (includes writing and multiple literacies, for example blogs) ***This is an action***	DIVERSITY (Social Difference)
Janks (2009) (Cited from Proposal Document pp. 60-61)	In Janks (2009) model, power is related for to position and perspective. (p. 60 of proposal)	Who has access in different situations is context dependent and this includes access to different types of language (Janks, 2009). For Janks (2009) this category includes linguistic difference and the hegemony of the English language.	Janks (2009) uses the term design as "the concept used to refer to multimodal text production" (p. 130). "In this project, older women were given the opportunity to use writing to frame their subject positions differently. According to Lakoff (2004), this act constitutes social change" (p. 128).	Diversity addresses the idea that communities have different perspectives regarding the value of literacies. The language practices of those who are privileged have their practices valued more than those who are less privileged. (p. 61 of proposal)

Kirkland (2004)	Challenges dominant suppositions. "If teachers of writing fail to turn to [critical] pedagogies, then students will either perform poorly in school or will find themselves marginalized even in their cultural and social communities" (Au and Jordan; Irvine; Ogbu; Suskind; as cited in Kirkland, 2004, p. 84)	Multitextual and multisensual. "Present students with a dynamic texutal tooklit, which draws equally from traditional teaching models and new ones that emphasize the relevance of students' language and lives" (Kirkland, 2004, p. 84)	"Writing tasks or practices are tied not only to knowledge production but also to social and cultural reproduction . . . writing is . . . a mechanism for production; in that, it is a cultural and social apparatus for producing, organizing, and distributing knowledge and culture" (Kirkland, 2004, pp. 86-87).	"There are issues surrounding writing pedagogy that are less about writing than they are about language rights and representation" (Kirkland, 2004, p. 86).
Au (2018)	critical consciousness . . . relationship with the world	"consciously aware of [their] context and [their] condition as a human being"	transformation	
Kincheloe & Maclaren (2011) "critique of instrumental or technical rationality"	"Critical enlightenment" (p. 288)	"language is not a mirror of society. It is an unstable social practice whose meaning shifts, depending upon the context in which it is used" (p. 291)	"From a critical perspective, linguistic descriptions are not simply about the world but serve to construct it" (p. 291) "Critical researchers have argued that culture has to be viewed as a domain of struggle where the production and	"Discursive practices are defined as a set of tacit rules that regulate what can and cannot be said, who can speak with the blessings of authority and who must listen, whose social constructions are valid and whose are erroneous and unimportant" (p. 291) POWER & RULES

			transmission of knowledge is always a contested process" (p. 292)	"multiple meanings of language" "discursive closure" meaning of language shifts, language in not a neutral and objective conduit" (p. 291)
Shor	"*critical literacy* is understood as 'learning to read and write as part of the process of becoming conscious of one's experience as historically constructed within specific power relations' (Anderson and Irvine, 82)" (Shor, 1999, p. 2)	Access is not limited. "All participants in a critical process become redeveloped as democratic agents and social critics . . . There is simply no universal teacher authority uniformly empowered in front of standard students" (Shor, 1999, pp. 13-14).	"How can we teach oppositional discourses so as to remake ourselves and our culture . . . critical literacy is language use that questions the social construction of the self (Shor, 1999, pp. 2-3)	Various approaches "Diverse paths to critical literacy represent it as a discourse and pedagogy that can be configured in feminist, multicultural, queer, and neo-Marxist approaches" (Shor, 1999, p. 12)
Non-critical pedagogy	Power is shared between teacher and student (Janks, 2009; Kirkland, 2004) "Language use . . . is the vehicle for making knowledge and for nurturing democratic citizens through a philosophical approach to experience. For Dewey,	Dominant discourse determines what is valued (Janks, 2009; Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016; Kirkland, 2004; Shor, 1999; Yagelski, 2012)	Text creation (Yagelski, 2012) Little communicative purpose (Shor, 1999)	Audience doesn't matter or limited to teacher or test (Coker & Lewis, 2008; Janks, 2009; Kirkland, 2004; Shor, 1999)

	language use is a social activity where theory and experience meet for the discovery of meaning and purpose. In this curricular theory and practice, discourse in school is not a one-way, teacher-centered conduit of class-restricted materials" (Shor, 1999, p. 10)			

APPENDIX B

RECRUITMENT INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN STUDY - SENT VIA EMAIL

Dear [insert name],

As Pharos Young Writers Program Co-Directors, we know the excellent work you do in supporting your students in their writing. We are proud to work with you (or to have worked with you in the past), and now, we are excited to partner with Paul Viskanta, a doctoral student at the University of Denver, on a research study looking into the teaching practices of those of you who work with Pharos and are secondary (grades 7-12) teachers of writing in a public school. We invite you to take a moment and consider if you would like to participate in the study below.

Through this partnership, Pharos is making the initial contact with classroom teachers. Pharos will not be involved in any other aspects of the research process. Pharos will be provided with de-identified data from the research study; this means that no identifying names or places will be used in transcripts. In addition, the final dissertation document, with de-identified anonymized data, will be shared with Pharos Writers Workshop. This dissertation document will also contain de-identified research results.

The information from Paul about how to participate is below! Please let us know if you have any questions.

Warmly,

[Pharos Young Writers Workshop Co-directors]

Greetings! My name is Paul Viskanta, and I am a doctoral student from the Curriculum & Instruction department at the University of Denver.

I'm reaching out to discuss your potential participation in my research study. This is a study about secondary school teacher experiences related to the teaching of writing who also teach or have taught writing outside of formal school organizations, in this case in their capacity with Pharos Writers Workshop. You are eligible to be in this study because you are a secondary (grades 7-12) school-teacher and work with [Pharos] teaching writing.

Your contact information was obtained through your work with Pharos.

If you decide to participate in this study, you will participate in two 75-minute interviews in person or on a web platform such as Zoom. I would like to audio record our discussion and your answers. The information will then be used to identify themes related to your teaching practice which will then be reported in the research results section of a dissertation project. You will be assigned a pseudonym, and no identifiable information will be used in the study that reveals your personal information.

There is no funding related to this research and there is no compensation being provided.

Remember, this is completely voluntary. You can choose to be in the study or not.

If you'd like to participate, please follow the link below or cut and paste it into your browser.

It will first inform you of consent information regarding your rights as someone who is interested in participating in the study. Following review of that information you will be asked to voluntarily provide the following information: Last Name and First Initial; Self-Identified Gender; Non-work Email; Non-work Phone Number; Years Teaching; Name of Current School; Race. This information will be used to identify a diverse range of research participants on a first come basis accounting for a diversity of potential participants.

Please follow the following link to indicate interest in participating:

https://udenver.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_1SNOW9DVPT62MDj

You can also cut and paste this link into your browser:

https://udenver.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_1SNOW9DVPT62MDj

If you have any questions about the study or about informing the researcher of your interest in participation, please e-mail or contact me at Paul.Viskanta@du.edu or [Telephone]

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,
Paul Viskanta

Faculty Sponsor:
Dr. Norma Hafenstein
Daniel L. Ritchie Endowed Chair in Gifted Education
Clinical Professor, Teaching and Learning Sciences
Morgridge College of Education

APPENDIX C

PARTNERSHIP AGREEMENT LETTER

April 10, 2020

Paul Viskanta
Doctoral Student
The University of Denver
1650 Wewatta St. #1228
Denver, CO 80202

Dear Mr. Paul Viskanta,

RE: Community Partnership for Doctoral Project

It is our pleasure to engage in a community partnership between you and [redacted] for your proposed University of Denver Doctoral Project: *Secondary Teacher's Relational Practices in the Teaching of Personal Student Writing*.

We look forward to supporting your research. For research to begin, Paul Viskanta must obtain official proof of approval for the project by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Denver, which will include researcher responsibilities that must be adhered to during the research process.

Once we receive the decision of the IRB, we will support you by:

1. Providing feedback on the IRB approved semi-structured Interview Protocol Questions, to support contextualizing (Buss & Zambo) your research and supporting the goals of the *CPED Framework* to support collaboration.
2. Disseminating the Request for Participants letter to [redacted] teachers and instructors for the purpose of recruiting interview subjects for research.
3. Allowing you to proclaim partnership with [redacted] on this project.

Although we cannot officially commit to attending your Doctoral Research defense, we will review your Doctoral Project and provide feedback from our perspective in the spirit of the *CPED Framework's* goal of "generation, transformation, and use of professional knowledge."

It is our understanding that your research is completely independently funded, and that we are not required to provide additional funding for your participation or completion of this project.

We look forward to working with you on your project.

APPENDIX D

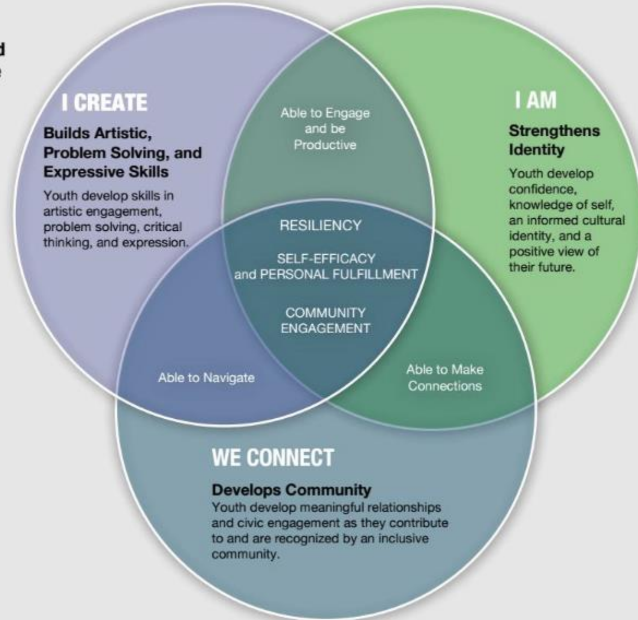
BYAEP’S FRAMEWORK FOR OUTCOMES IN YOUTH ARTS PROG**RAMS**

BYAEP's Framework for Outcomes in Youth Arts Programs

Quality Youth Arts Programs provide Opportunities, a Positive Climate, and Connections* to create change in the lives of youth.

THEORY OF CHANGE

If youth participate in high-quality arts programs, then they will develop specific skills and competencies (I Create, I Am, We Connect), which lead to a set of intermediate outcomes** (able to engage and be productive, to navigate, and to make connections with others), which in turn lead to a set of long-term outcomes (resiliency, self-efficacy and personal fulfillment, and community engagement) that together constitute life success.



Boston Youth Arts Evaluation Project (BYAEP) Collaborators:
Raw Art Works, Hyde Square Task Force, ZUMIX, The Theater Offensive, and Medicine Wheel Productions. BYAEP website: www.byaep.com
* Adapted from The National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2002. *Community Programs to Promote Youth Development*.
**Adapted from *The Community Action Framework for Youth Development*, 2002. Youth Development Strategies, Inc., and the Institute for Research and Reform in Education

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APPENDIX E

BYAEP’S LOGIC MODEL FOR HIGH QUALITY YOUR ARTS PROGRAMS

BYAEP’s Logic Model for High Quality Youth Arts Programs

INPUTS OF PROGRAM QUALITY*	SHORT TERM OUTCOMES		INTERMEDIATE OUTCOMES**	LONG TERM OUTCOMES
Opportunities: Challenges and experiences that increase innovation, expressive skills, self-efficacy and fun in the lives of youth.	**I CREATE: Builds Artistic, Problem Solving, and Expressive Skills** • Increases **Artistic Engagement** in focus, skills, and in one’s authenticity and passion in the arts. • Uses **Problem Solving/Critical Thinking** to be reflective, analytic and creative in finding solutions to challenges. • Develops **Expressive Skills** and the ability to convey feelings and thoughts artistically and verbally.	**Short Term Outcomes combine and lead to Intermediate and Long Term Outcomes**	**Able to Navigate** • Takes responsibility in diverse settings • Navigates risk-taking • Responds effectively to challenges and opportunities	**Resiliency** • Adapts and learns to thrive with change, challenges, and even failure • Is respectful of laws and/or works to change those that are unfair • Strives to be physically and mentally healthy • Engages in positive activities that brings one joy, pleasure, and captivation
Positive Climate: Meaningful structure that is youth-centered, safe, inclusive, engaging, and challenges youth to see, reveal, and strengthen who they are.	**I AM: Strengthens Identity** • Builds **Confidence** with self-assurance arising from one’s belief in one’s own abilities or qualities. • Increases **Knowledge of Self** through: *self-awareness* of characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses; honest *self-reflection* into one’s history, cultural influence, and one’s current thoughts, feelings, and actions; and *self-regulation* of behavior to increase the likelihood of a desired end goal. • Understands how one’s identity is informed by **Cultural Identity** (place, gender, race, history, nationality, abilities, language, sexual orientation, religious beliefs, ethnicity, class and aesthetics). • Develops a **Positive View of the Future** by internalizing optimism about the outcomes for one’s life (“possible selves”) and increasing one’s ability to set short and long-range goals (especially in education and/or employment).		**Able to Engage and be Productive** • Displays commitment (dedication shown in school/employment) • Strives for achievement (effort, courage, skills in progress toward goals) • Possesses a positive sense of one’s own uniqueness and potential (differentiation) • Displays a character that is genuine, empathic, and is connect to one’s cultural identity (integration)	**Self-Efficacy and Personal Fulfillment** • Education level • Economic self-sufficiency • Job satisfaction • Self-actualization (the desire and efforts that lead to realizing one’s capabilities) • Continues to take steps towards dreams
Connections: Opportunities to belong, contribute, and build supportive relationships with peers, adults, and community.	**WE CONNECT: Develops Community** • Increases **Support and Belonging** where one develops positive bonds, empathy, respect for others, and an increased ability to communicate and work with a diverse set of people including those with cultural identities and experiences different than one’s own. • Builds **Contribution** by finding opportunities, exchanging ideas, and working together to create something in the community. • Gains **Recognition,** appreciation and/or acknowledgement for an achievement, service, or ability in the eyes of others/community.		**Able to Make Connections** • Connects with family • Connects with peers/significant other(s) • Connects with adult mentors • Joins groups/organizations • Respects and is respected by others	**Community Engagement** • Has dependable networks • Has significant relationship(s) • Involves oneself in social groups (PTA, unions, support groups, religious groups, etc.) • Votes, volunteers, works to create social change

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APPENDIX F

STEP-BY-STEP DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH PROCEDURES

(IRB Attachment C.2)

1. Pharos Writers Workshop Young Writers Program Co-Directors will email recruitment letter (Recruitment Email) out to subject pool who fit the criteria of 1) having taught Young Writers Program workshops and 2) currently have a teaching related assignment with a public school district as of September 11, 2020.
2. Interested potential subjects will complete "Statement of Interest" form via URL included in Recruitment Letter. The URL will be a non-identifiable URL Qualtrics is able to generate.
    a. The link for the form is
       https://udenver.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_1SNOW9DVPT62MDj
       Use password: 123
    b. There is Informed Consent information provided (Informed Consent Interest App) The form will ask for the following information: Lastname and First Initial; Self-Identified Gender; Non-work email; Non-work Phone Number; Years Teaching; Name of Current School and grades served; Race.
    c. Upon submitting the form the following message will be displayed: Your answers have been recorded. Thank you for your interest in this research. You will be contacted via the email provided no later than October 1, 2020. Your consent documents and copy of your submission will be emailed within 72 hours. Should you have any additional questions please contact the researcher at: Paul.Viskanta@du.edu
3. As potential participants completed forms come in, the researcher will send them a copy of their submission of interest and next steps information within 72 hours confirming their expression of interest and that further contact will be following by the indicated date of October 1, 2020.
4. Potential participants will be entered into a table to help with selection diversity. The table is attached here.

	First Initial	Last	Gender	Personal Email	Personal Phone Number	Race	Years Teaching	Grades Served	Current School
Name 1									
Name 2									

5. Co-Directors from Pharos Writers Young Writers Program will send a follow-up email to the same group of potential respondents 7-10 days after the initial email inviting participation. Should the response rate be low, researcher will request Pharos Writers Workshop Co-Directors to send an additional email (again to the same pool of potential respondents) 14 days after the initial letter. Pharos Co-directors will make introductory phone calls only informing potential participants of recruitment email, and will not discuss any other information about the research.

6. Researcher will not close recruitment until at least 6 respondents have expressed interest. Closing of recruitment window will be posted via the Qualtrics sign-up page with contact information for the researcher and will remain posted for 30 days after closing date. The text will read: "Thank you for your interest in the study. The recruitment window has closed as of [INSERT DATE HERE]. Should you have questions regarding the recruitment process, please contact the researcher, Paul Viskanta at Paul.Viskanta@du.edu or 323-810-5477. Thank you!

7. Upon the closing date (After 6 or more respondents have expressed interest or October 1, 2020) for respondents to express interest, researcher will move down the table in order of response and select as diverse as possible a group of participants and inform them of their acceptance between October 3, 2020-October 6, 2020. The acceptance email will include introduction information regarding the study and an initial copy of the informed consent document. The email will include a link to easily schedule a time for a brief introductory call with the researcher to go over the consent documents and to schedule the two interviews.

8.The brief introductory phone call will consist of a short introductory informational conversation and completion of the consent documents. The researcher and participant will schedule two times for interviews, at least two weeks apart within the months of October - December. The brief introductory phone call will also ask the participants to identify two examples of writing related lesson plans to share with the researcher. The researcher will state the following: "During our second interview, I would like you to share and discuss two of your school-based writing related lesson plans. Please select one that you feel is successful and is an exemplary model of the kind of teaching you believe is of high quality, as defined by you. For the second lesson plan, please share a lesson plan that you feel is less successful or requires improvement. I would like copies of these lesson plans. Please indicate whose intellectual property they are, and a year of , if possible, so I may properly cite these sources. These lesson plans can be your personal work, the school or school district's, or commercial product. If you are not sure about making the selection, bring several and we can discuss privately or make it part of the research conversation. These lesson plan documents will become part of the research material, and will be credited and cited according to APA guidelines. I am also available via email or phone [Paul.Viskanta@du.edu / xxx-xxx-xxxx to help as needed with this process if you have questions." This text will also be included in the follow-up email to the phone call.

9. Upon completing the brief introductory phone call and scheduling the two 75-minute interviews, the researcher will email the participant a confirmation email with their dates

and times clearly indicated, copies of the consent agreement, and information regarding Zoom link information. The possibility of in-person interviews as a secure location on the DU Campus (for example, a private library room or room in Morgridge College of Education will only be considered should COVID-19 protocols allow as indicated by official IRB information. Only locations at DU or interviews over Zoom will be considered.

10. The day before scheduled interviews, the researcher will contact the participant via phone and/or email to remind them of the appointment and information to contact me should there be need to reschedule. During the first reminder phone call the researcher will also remind participants of the researcher's request for lesson plans to be shared. This opportunity during the second interview session will also be used to remind the participant that they should finish reviewing the transcript that was sent to them via email for transcript review.
11. At interview: Before commencing interview, researcher will ask participant if they have any concerns or questions about the process, which was outlined in the brief initial call. The researcher will briefly review the interview protocol and remind the participant of their rights to end the interview at any time. Upon completion of the first interview, the researcher will confirm the date, time and location of the second interview. Upon completion of both first and second interviews the researcher will inform the participant that they should expect a transcript to review via email within 5 days. Instructions for transcript review, the focus of which is statement accuracy, will be enclosed within the transcript review email. Transcript Review Instructions are provided as a seperate IRB document. (Transcript Review Instructions 08112020)
12. Interviews will be digitally voice recorded or recorded via Zoom software for transcription. Transcription will first be done digitally through the Trint or Otter digital apps. Recordings will be deleted from any digital apps once recordings have been transcribed and copies are received by the researcher. After the initial digital transcription, transcript documents will be corrected for accuracy and de-identified of any personal data.
13. Transcript Review: Researcher (with the aid of software) will transcribe and check transcription for accuracy within 5 days and send transcript to participant via email with instructions for review. Participants will be asked to complete reviewing their transcript by the end of the day prior to their second interview. The researcher will remind them of this transcript review in the session reminder phone call (see number 10) and contact regarding member checking (see number 13).
14. This interview process will be repeated without changes for the 4-6 participants.
15. Because there is not a follow-up interview after second transcripts are shared with participants, participants will be informed they have a choice to provide their transcript review digitally with Word document or on paper with pre-paid mailing information provided via U.S. Post or FedEx so there is no cost to the participant. Participants will be asked to return transcripts within one week of receipt.
16. Researcher will send reminder emails to participants at the 5-day and one week dates regarding returning the requested transcripts. The text will read: "Dear Research Participant, Your participation in the research project is greatly appreciated. This is a reminder to return the transcripts you have received, as this will allow me to make sure

that your words and thoughts are represented accurately. You may return the document via email or with the pre-paid postage information provided with the packet. Please let me know if you have any questions! Paul Viskanta Paul.Viskanta@du.edu The researcher will leave phone messages or speak to participants with the same message text no more than 3 times during the transcript review process as well at various times during the available windows, dependent on participant interview scheduling.

17. Member Checking (Analysis of Data): Member Checking process will consist of providing participants with excerpts of textual findings and supporting quotes from interviewee's transcript for purposes of "confirmation, modification, verification" (Walter, n.d.) of participant ideas.

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/304356584_Member_Checking_A_Tool_to_Enhance_Trustworthiness_or_Merely_a_Nod_to_Validation

17. Researcher will inform University of Denver IRB of any necessary issues during the ongoing research window.

APPENDIX G

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Study Title: Pedagogy of Multiple Space Secondary Writing Teachers

IRBNet #: 1569202-1

Principal Investigator: Paul Viskanta

Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Norma Hafenstein

Study Site
Interviews will take place at DU facilities, for example private Library Room; or over video-conferencing technology such as Zoom.

You are being asked to participate in a research study. Your participation in this research study is voluntary and you do not have to participate. This document contains important information about this study and what to expect if you decide to participate. Please consider the information carefully. Feel free to ask questions before making your decision whether or not to participate.

You have been asked to participate because of your involvement with Pharos Writers Workshop and are a public-school teacher.

Pharos has provided membership contact information. Pharos Writers Workshop will not be involved in any other aspects of the research process.

The final dissertation document, with de-identified anonymized data, which will contain results of the research, will be shared with Pharos Writers Workshop. Pharos Writers Workshop will also be provided with de-identified data, in this case interview transcripts, from the research study. When data is de-identified it means that pseudonyms are used for any identifiable information, including names of individuals, and those of identifiable places and locations.

Partnership
Pharos Young Writers Program is making the initial contact with classroom teachers. Pharos Writers Workshop will not be involved in any other aspects of the research process. Pharos Writers Workshop will be provided with de-identified data from the research study, this means that no identifying names or places will be used in transcripts. In addition, the final dissertation document, with de-identified anonymized data, will be shared with Pharos Writers Workshop organization to support the mission

and future goals of the organization. This dissertation document will also contain de-identified research results.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine the critical influences of participation in an out-of-school community (Pharos Young Writers Program) on the teaching practices and ideas of secondary school writing teachers. The purpose of the research is to learn about the experiences of teachers of writing who teach outside of their formal school role. The research aims to learn about teachers' views of writing in different contexts in addition to teachers' understandings about the purpose of teaching and learning writing practices.

If you participate in this research study, you will be invited to participate in two 75-minute interviews regarding your experiences in teaching writing both in school and outside of school formats. The researcher will also request examples of two lesson plans you use in the teaching of writing. In addition to these two interviews, you will be asked to review the transcripts for accuracy. You will also be allowed to comment on findings related to your interview contributions and the statements used attributed to you. Your name and school and any other identifiable data will be de-identified, meaning that no one will be able to identify you from the information used in the study.

The purpose of the research project is to learn more information about how teachers with out of classroom expertise approach the important work of teaching writing, especially regarding what is learned from teaching writing in both formal and informal spaces.

Your interviews will be audio recorded, and will take place either at a secure location on the University of Denver campus, such as a private library room; or over Zoom video conference technology. During the study, you will be allowed to skip or not answer any question, for any reason, if you so choose.

Additional Research Steps

In addition to the two 75-minute interviews, you will be provided with transcript copies to review for accuracy. In addition, you will be given an opportunity to review and comment on text that includes findings and quotes attributed to you.

Confidentiality of Information

Only the researcher and faculty sponsor will have access to identifiable data.

Risks or Discomforts

Potential risks, stress and/or discomforts of participation may include negative feelings regarding work-related stressors or memories.

Potential risks, stress and/or discomfort might include negative feelings associated with concerns about potential privacy breach due to your participation in the study being connected to you. Measures are being taken to secure your information from privacy breach including dis-identifying the data so it cannot be connected with you, however the is no guarantee that a privacy breach will not occur.

Audio recordings will be made of our interviews. Once transcribed with no personally identifying information, the recording will be deleted from any equipment on which it is contained.

There is no indication that the stress will be more than that encountered during daily activities.

Limits to confidentiality - Technology

All of the information you provide will be confidential. However, if we learn that you intend to harm yourself or others, including, but not limited to child or elder abuse/neglect, suicide ideation, or threats against others, we must report that to the authorities as required by law.

Researcher will use Zoom videoconferencing technology due to COVID 19. Before you begin, please note that the data you provide may be collected and used by Zoom as per its privacy agreement, which has been reviewed with you by the researcher. You have also been given a copy of the most recent Zoom privacy policy.

Please be mindful to respond in private and through a secured Internet connection for your privacy. Your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties.

Your responses will be assigned a pseudonym. The list connecting your name to this pseudonym will be kept digitally in an encrypted and password protected file. Only the research team will have access to the file. When the study is completed and the data have been analyzed, the list will be destroyed.

With your permission, I would like to audiotape this interview so that I can make an accurate transcript. Once I have made the transcript, I will erase the recordings. Your name will not be in the transcript or my notes, you will be assigned a pseudonym.

Because of the nature of some of the data, it may be possible to deduce your identity; however, there will be no attempt to do so and your data will not be reported in a way that will identify you.

Information collected about you will not be used or shared for future research studies.

Government or university staff sometimes review studies such as this one to make sure they are being done safely and legally. If a review of this study takes place, your records may be examined. The reviewers will protect your privacy. The study records will not be used to put you at legal risk of harm.

<u>Data Sharing</u>
In addition to de-identified data being shared with Pharos Young Writers Program Co-Directors, de-identified data from this study may be shared with the research community at large to advance science and health. We will remove or code any personal information (e.g., your name, date of birth) that could identify you before files are shared with other researchers to ensure that, by current scientific standards and known methods, no one will be able to identify you from the information we share. Despite these measures, we cannot guarantee anonymity of your personal data.

<u>Benefits</u>
The benefits which may reasonably be expected to result from this study are insights that might benefit and support future professional teaching methodology and the feeling of supporting research improving future teaching methods and understandings.

We cannot and do not guarantee or promise that you will receive any benefits from this study.

Your decision whether or not to participate in this study will not affect your work with the Pharos Young Writers Program in any way, nor is this research involved with any aspect of your employment.

<u>Incentives to participate</u>
No incentives, monetary or otherwise, are being offered for this study.

Consent to video / audio recording / photography solely for purposes of this research
This study involves video/audio recording. If you do not agree to be recorded, you CANNOT take part in the study.

______ YES, I agree to be video/audio recorded/photographed.

______ NO, I do not agree to be video/audio recorded/photographed.

Questions
For questions, concerns, or complaints about the study you may contact:

Paul Viskanta, Student Researcher Paul.Viskanta@du.edu

Dr. Norma Hafenstein, Teaching and Learning Science Faulty, Research Sponsor
Norma.Hafenstein@du.edu

If you are not satisfied with how this study is being conducted, or if you have any concerns, complaints, or general questions about the research or your rights as a participant, please contact the University of Denver (DU) Institutional Review Board to speak to someone independent of the research team at 303-871-2121 or email at IRBAdmin@du.edu.

Signing the consent form

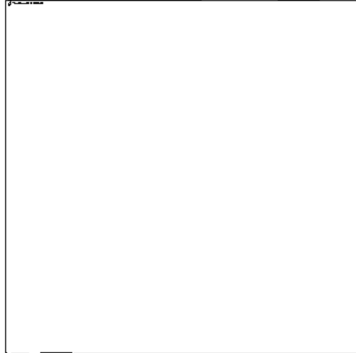
I have read (or someone has read to me) this form, and I am aware that I am being asked to participate in a research study. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have had them answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

I am not giving up any legal rights by signing this form. I will be given a copy of this form.

Printed name of subject	Signature of subject	Date

APPENDIX H

QUALTRICS "INTEREST TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH" FORM



Q1 Consent to Indicate Interest to Participate In Research
Study Title: Writing Pedagogy of Multiple Space Secondary Writing Teachers
IRBNet #: 1569202-1
Principal Investigator: Paul Viskanta Paul.Viskanta@du.edu
Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Norma Hafenstein Norma.Hafenstein@du.edu

You are being invited to provide information to indicate interest in participating in research about the teaching of writing. You have been asked to participate because of your involvement with the Pharos Organization* and are a public-school teacher. (*Pseudonym)

To indicate interest in participating in the research study, you are being asked to voluntarily provide the following information: First Name and Last Initial; Self-Identified Gender; Years Teaching; School of Most Recent Employment; Race; Personal (Non-work) Telephone Number; Personal (Non-work) Email Address.

Your participation in this recruitment stage of the process is voluntary and you do not have to participate. Your decision whether or not to participate in this study will not affect your work with the Pharos Organization in any way, nor is this research involved with any aspect of your employment.

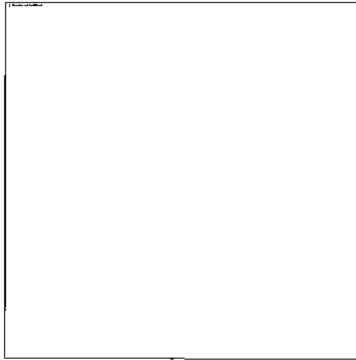
Providing the requested information is voluntary, and only indicates your interest in participation. After acknowledging interest in participating in the study by completing the brief attached questions, you may or may not be selected for participation in the study. Information regarding selection will be provided no later than October 1, 2020.

Confidentiality of Information

Only the researcher and faculty sponsor will have access to any identifiable data you provide indicating your interest in participating in the research study.

The data is being collected using the Qualtrics software program. The link you have been provided is anonymous, which means identifying information about you cannot be tracked. Your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties.

Once recruitment selection is completed for the study, the collected information will be de-



identified. The researcher will remove or code any personal information (e.g., your name, race) that could identify you. This means that by current scientific standards and known methods, no one will be able to identify you from the information. This de-identified data will be kept in a secure locked location for recordkeeping during the duration of the study. When the study is completed and the data have been analyzed, the de-identified list will be destroyed.

If selected to participate in the research study, the researcher will provide you with information regarding more detailed Informed Consent documentation which you will have opportunity to review, and accept or reject, before deciding to participate in the study.

Should you wish to remove yourself from consideration after completing the form below, you may contact the researcher at Paul.Viskanta@du.edu at any time and ask that your data be removed.

By submitting this form and the information below you are indicating that you have read the description of the study, and that you agree to the terms as described.

If you are not satisfied with how this study is being conducted, or if you have any concerns, complaints, or general questions about the research or your rights as a participant, please contact the University of Denver (DU) Institutional Review Board to speak to someone independent of the research team at 303-871-2121 or email at IRBAdmin@du.edu.

Signing and receiving a copy of the Interest to Participate in Research Consent Form (this document)

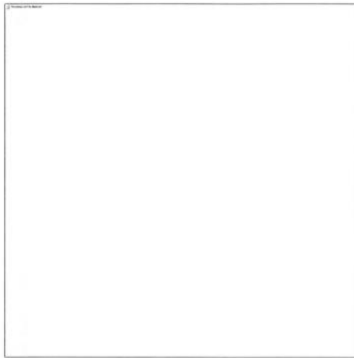
I have read (or someone has read to me) this form, and I am aware that I am being asked to indicate voluntary interest in participating in a research study.

I understand that completing the information below is an expression of interest, and that I may or may not be chosen to participate in the study. Should I be selected for potential participation, I understand that I will have the opportunity to ask questions and receive more detailed Informed Consent information before agreeing to participate. Should I agree to participate, I understand that my agreement will be voluntary and that I can withdraw consent at any time.

I am not giving up any legal rights by signing this form.

I will be sent a copy of this form.

- [ ] I understand the above information and wish to continue



◯ I do not wish to continue, and wish to exit this page

Skip To: Q16 If Q1 = I do not wish to continue, and wish to exit this page
Skip To: Q2 If Q1 = I understand the above information and wish to continue

Q2 By submitting this form and providing your electronic signature you are indicating that you have read the description of the study, and that you agree to the terms as described.

◯ Print your name as electronic signature ________________________________

◯ Enter Date ${date://CurrentDate/FL} ________________________________

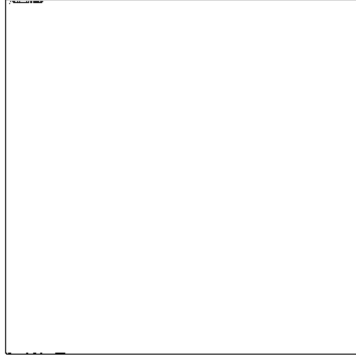
Q3 Please click on "Submit" to submit the form below, or select "Exit" to withdraw from completing this form and decline to submit interest of participation in the study.

◯ Submit and Continue

◯ Withdraw and Exit

Skip To: Q4 If Q3 = Submit and Continue
Skip To: End of Survey If Q3 = Withdraw and Exit

Page Break



Q4 **Thank you for your interest in participating in research related to secondary writing instruction.**
Please answer the following brief questions to complete your Interest in Participation form.

Please enter your first name and last initial.
For example: Charlie B

____

Q5 Please indicate your gender identification.
Possible answers include but are not limited to Male, Female, Non-binary, or Trans.

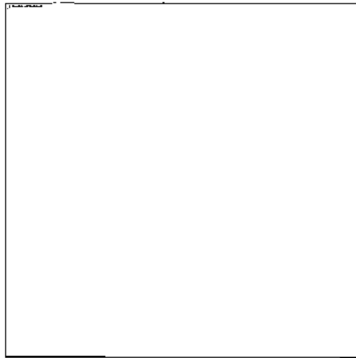
____

Q6 How many years have you been teaching, <u>not including</u> the current 2020-2021 school year?

____

Q9 Please enter the name of the school you currently teach at.

____



Q11 Are you of Hispanic. Latino, or of Spanish origin?

Yes

No

Q10 How would you describe yourself?
You may select more than one answer.

White

Black or African American

American Indian or Alaska Native

Asian

Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander

Other

Q12 Please provide contact information

◯ Non-work Telephone Number ____________________

◯ Non-work Email Address ____________________

Q14 Thank you again for your interest in participating in this research study.

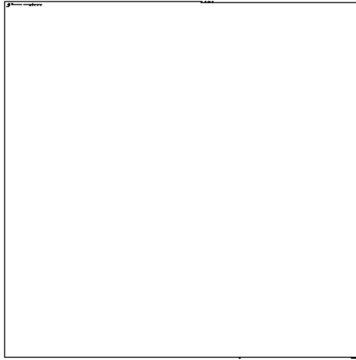
By selecting the "Submit" button below, your Statement of Interest will be submitted and you will be provided with a copy of the application at the Email address you entered on the application within 72 hours.

Should you wish to exit the Statement of Interest form without submitting it, please select "Exit" and your application will be voided.

◯ Submit

◯ Exit

Skip To: End of Survey If Q14 = Submit
Skip To: Q16 If Q14 = Exit



Q16 You have exited the survey, and no information will be recorded.

End of Block: Default Question Block

APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL QUESTIONS - FINAL DRAFT

How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing discourse community influence teacher's perception regarding his/her role as the teacher in school-based writing.

THEME	QUESTIONS/PROMPT	FOLLOW-UP AREAS	PURPOSE	LITERATURE SOURCE (Proposal page)
General teaching pedagogy and disposition	Please describe your teaching style when teaching writing.	• Tell me more about what a less successful class looks like. • Tell me more are students individually working? • Can you tell me about how groups are assigned? • Tell me more what is movement like in class.	To ease into conversation and warmup regarding subject thinking. To learn about general philosophical leanings and begin to learn about amount of influence philosophy has on thinking about teaching.	*Defining pedagogy p. 11 (Breault, 2010; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Janks, 2009 Kirkland, 2004; Scherff & Piazza, 2005; Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Grahami & Perin 2007b; Grham & Perin, 2007c; Yagelski, 2012)*

Purpose of writing	*Please share your ideas about the purpose of writing.*	• Tell me more, do you discuss this with students? (*purposely makes assumption)* • How did you come to these ideas?	To understand what teacher believes is primary purpose of school-based writing and who drives that purpose.	*Writing as a social act p. 54 (Graham, 2019; Hyland, 2016; Yagelski, 2012)*

Teaching writing in professional context	*Please describe how your school (or district) approaches writing.*	• Tell me more about any grade differences. • Tell me more about what information about writing is given to a new teacher	To understand the degree of influence the professional context has on teaching choices (Curriculum Maps, Writing Texts, Assessments, Senior Essay)	*Social constructionism theory of writing (Handsfield, 2016) p. 59 Two visions of standards (International Reading Association, 1996; Kirkland, 2004; National Governor's Association Center for Best Practices, 2010) p. 47 Students must write often and for variety of purposes (Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Graham & Perin 2007c; Janks, 2009)*

To what degree is student voice empowered?	*Tell me about what roles the teacher and students have during the in-school writing process.*	• How is this different from out-of-school process? • Are students allowed to choose their own prompts?	To discover how power-sharing arrangements are conceptualized in the teachers' class.	*(Janks, 2009; Kincheloe & Maclaren, 2011; Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016; Kirkland, 2004; Shor, 1999; Yagelski, 2012)*

How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing discourse community influence teacher's beliefs about the writing that is valued in school-based writing.

THEME	QUESTIONS/PROMPT	FOLLOW-UP AREAS	PURPOSE	LITERATURE SOURCE (Proposal page)
Assessment of writing	*Please tell me about the assessment of writing.*	• How does assessment of writing differ between discourse settings? • Tell me more about what information is given to students about assessing their writing. • Expand on who the writing audience is.	To understand how teacher assesses writing produced in different contexts and elicit potential differences in school and non-school contexts. Characteristics of writing or genre? Different rubrics by assignment?	*Standards as driver of school-based writing pp. 45-46 (Kirkland, 2004; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013; Ravitch, 2010; Yagelski, 2012) Teachers need to write often for multiple audiences and purposes (Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Janks, 2009)*
Conflict between dominant discourses and non-traditional, non monocultura l writing expressions.	*Can you tell me about writing where students use non-standardize d or multilingual text?*	• Tell me more about the tension between personal and school-based literacies .	To understand the degree to which authentic student voices writing that "emphasizes the relevance of students' language" is allowed/accepted/invite d in school-based writing.	*"Teachers that use only logocentric pedagogies of writing endorse almost exclusively standardized and monocultura l writing expressions"*

				(Kirkland, 2004). (Benson, 2010; Janks, 2009; Lopez, 2011; Shor, 1999)

Are students who might not fit traditional school-based ideas of 'being a writer' invited?	*Tell me about what happens when student writing topics or interests don't fit school expectations.*	• Tell me more about ways that teachers expand the idea of writing? • Can you tell me about a piece of non-traditional writing you encountered?	Are there ways that non-traditional writing is given permission or space in a school-based structure?	*"Teacher's examples influence what a student chooses to write about . . . Modeling must be more extensive than offering a few examples to jog memories . . . what is possible to write also must come from the teacher's explicit instruction" (Wenk, 2015, pp. 112-113). (Benson, 2010; Janks, 2009; Shor, 1999)*

How expansive is the conception of literacy? Does it	*Tell me about multi-modal writing opportunities for students in both the Pharos*	• Can you tell me about multi-modal examples of literacy that you use in	How broad is the view of literacies? Are students who conceive of	*(Graham, 2019; Janks, 2009; Kincheloe & Maclaren, 2011;*

depend on which discourse is involved?	*organization and school-based assignments.*	class? • Can you tell me more about the challenges to incorporating multiple-literacies? • Tell me more about some multiple-literacies projects.	different literacies (digital, video, visual) given opportunities to work with those modalities?	*Kirkland, 2004)*

How do the experiences of an out-of-school writing discourse community influence teacher's ideas about language in school-based writing practices?

THEME	QUESTIONS/PROMPT	FOLLOW-UP AREAS	PURPOSE	LITERATURE SOURCE (Proposal page)
How does the teacher manage multiple home languages?	*Please tell me about the writing of students whose L1 might not be English in school-based writing.*	• Can you tell me how you work with writing that incorporates examples of multilingual texts in the classroom?	To understand how teacher incorporates multiple linguistic backgrounds in the teaching of writing.	(Benson, 2010; Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016; Lopez, 2011)
Role of "cultural production" (Kincheloe & Maclaren, 2011) in teaching writing.	*Can you tell me about what happens when a student wants to use popular language – slang or what they might hear in music or see on social media –in their writing?*	• Tell me more about how often you have to address questions of language. • Can you tell me about how this might be addressed differently when working with the Pharos Organization?	"The music of language – rap, rhythm, and rhyme – becomes significant features of a text and is, therefore, put to use in the critical teaching of writing" (Kirkland, 2004, p. 92)	(Akom, 2011; Benson, 2010; Haddix, 2018; Kincheloe & Maclaren, 2011; Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016; Kirkland, 2004; Moje & Lewis, 2007)
Are students who	*Can you tell me about the challenge of*	• Can you tell me about an experience	How public are conversations	*(Au, 2018; Kincheloe & Maclaren,*

might not fit traditional school-based ideas of 'being a writer' invited?	*teaching the rules of dominant discourse to students'.*	where a student challenged the idea of a dominant discourse? • Tell me more about the experiences of student's challenging language use.	about language use in the teacher's classroom? Do they accept power is dispersed with questions of language?	*2011; Kirkland, 2004; Moje & Lewis, 2007; Shor, 1999; Wenk, 2015)*

Teaching writing in different spaces	*How would you describe the difference between school-based writing and what you do for the Pharos organization?*	• Tell me how much change takes place for you between these two contexts? • Tell me more, does one context feel more natural or easy to work in?	To begin to learn how subject manages teaching writing in different contexts	Teachers' beliefs are central to how they teach writing (Benson, 2010; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013; Graham, 2019) p. 51

Follow-up Interview Protocol Questions

Subject will be asked to bring lesson plan or unit example to follow-up interview.

Theme	**Questions/Prompt**	**Literature Source**
Writing Pedagogy What is the experience of being in this teacher's classroom like? What do they focus on and value?	Please share the exciting and challenging lessons you brought.	*Beliefs of writing teachers p. 50 (Breault, 2010; Graham, 2019; Graham & Perin, 2007b; Lacina & Block, 2012; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013)*
Beliefs about Writing	Tell me more about how this lesson represents your teaching beliefs.	*Beliefs of writing teachers p. 50 (Au, 2018; Janks, 2009; Kirkland, 2004; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013; Graham 2019)*
Social Difference (Janks, 2009)	Tell me more about different populations you experience when teaching writing.	(Benson, 2010; Haddix, 2018; Janks, 2009; Kincheloe & Maclaren, 2011; Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016; Kirkland, 2004) [See below]
Critical Consciousness What relationship does the teacher have to "dominant suppositions" (Kirkland, 2004) about writing instruction.	Please tell me more about the tension between curricular choices and imposed plans and standards.	(Au, 2018; Appleby & Langer; as cited by McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013; Coker & Lewis, 2008; International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 1996; Kirkland, 2004; National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010; Ravitch, 2010; Ryan, 2016; Yagelski, 2012)
Teaching writing among different discourses.	How might a high achieving or gifted students' writing be assessed differently when working with the Pharos Organization?	"'When labels such as *English learner, learning disabled, underachiever,* and *gifted* are consistently used across contexts and institutional discourses, the terms become tools to

		shape students identities' (Lee & Anderson, 2009; as cited by Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016, p. 385). "Difference as not a cause of risk but as a resource" (Lee & Anderson, 2009; as cited by Kinloch & Burkhard, 2016, p. 386)
Teaching writing among different discourses	Tell me more about how teaching with Pharos Organization is different from school-based teaching.	(Benson, 2010; Garcia & Gaddes, 2012; Kirkland, 2004)
Critical consciousness and dominant language expectations	Tell me more about what struggles you have about teaching school-based writing.	*(Au, 2018; Coker & Lewis, 2008; Freire, 2000; Janks, 2009; Gillespie, et. al., 2013; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Graham & Perin, 2007b; McCarthey & Mkhize, 2013; Kirkland, 2004)*
Writing as a social act	Tell me your favorite experience about teaching writing.	(Handsfield, 2016; Hyland, 2016; Lopez, 2011; Yagelski, 2009; Yagelski, 2012)

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APPENDIX J

SECOND CODER INSTRUCTION NOTES

- You can write on the excerpts.
- There will be duplicate excerpts. They might or might not differ in selections of where

  beginning or end is. Code them as you would any non-duplicate.

- I italicize where I as the interviewer “Paul” speak. All non-italicized text is that of a

  subject being interviewed.

- Interviews are one-on-one, so each excerpt is one person.
- Different subjects are randomly interspersed so as to attempt impartiality towards

  who might be speaking as the second coder might begin to notice subject

  personality speaking traits.

- You may code each excerpt with as many (or as few) codes as you find applicable.
- You may not code an excerpt if you do not feel it represents any of the codes from

  the codebook.

- Each page (or in the case of a few, two pages) represents an excerpt and a single

  speaker being interviewed.

- Feel free to comment on any of the excerpts or write questions if need be, but this is

  not necessary.

1

INTRODUCTION

This approach takes as its premise that consistency in where coders choose to start and end quotes is of minimal analytical significance: more important is ensuring that when given a certain segment of text, similar codes are applied.

In this method, one researcher first approaches the transcript, segmenting it as they see fit and applying relevant codes. Campbell et al. (2013) suggest this should be the principal investigator or person most familiar with the subject area, who is therefore more qualified to determine the 'meaningful conceptual breaks' (Campbell et al., 2013, p. 304).

Once the first coder has saved the coded transcript, they can then create a second document where the data segments are visible but the codes removed . . . The second coder then uses their own judgment to code the segments they have received. (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020, pp. 6-7)

2

CODEBOOK

3

IDENTITY AS TEACHER	Excerpt indicates relationship to teacher's particular self-identity as a teacher, a distinct and separate identity.
POWER INTERPERSONAL POWER WITH STUDENTS	Excerpt shows teacher attention to interpersonal and social-emotional aspects of relationships in working with students. Interpersonal relationships are valued and are indicated by a purposeful enactment between student and teacher. Teacher perceives or identifies relationship/s as valued aspect of working with students. Power is not held by teacher, but is "acquired, appropriated, resisted, or reconceptualized" (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 19) in exchanges and relationships between students and teacher.
POWER POWER WITH STUDENTS	Excerpt indicates example of explicit or implict power distributed between teacher and student. Power is not explicitly held by teacher or dictated by teacher, it is shared or relational, and student/s have some type of voice or ability to express subjectivity or agency.
POWER POWER WITH WRITING CURRICULUM AND RELATIONSHIP WITH PHAROS	Excerpt indicates example of teacher negotiating or navigating a power relationship with writing curriculum, where the curriculum is not the source of all power. This is often negotiated through planning lessons or classroom activities, in addition to control of the identity which predominates for the teacher in this negotiation. For example, is the teacher negotiating the curriculum as educator first or writing teacher first?
POWER POWER WITH SCHOOL INSTITUTION	Excerpt indicates example of teacher having some power in relationship with school or district institution. This power is often taken by an action on part of the

	teacher, and the relationship of the institution is relational in that it selects where to police, hinder, or stifle this power. The power can be perceived or actual.

POWER (As ongoing negotiation)

"Meanings are ultimately rooted in negotiations among people in different social practices with different interests, people who share or seek to share some common ground. Power plays an important role in these negotiations. The negotiations can be settled for the time being, in which case meaning becomes conventional and routine. But the settlement can be reopened, perhaps when a particular company introduces a new element into its social practice and into its sausage. The negotiations which which constitute meaning are limited by values emanating from 'communities' or from attempts by people to establish and stabilise . . . enough common ground to agree on a meaning" (Gee, p. 27). "Meaning is something we negotiate and contest socially" (Gee, p. 27).

"Power is produced and enacted in and through discourses, relationships, activities, spaces and times by people as the compete for access to and control of resources, tools, identities" (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 17).

4

IDENTITY ENACTMENTS (AGENCY)

"Learning shapes subject formation, which shapes identity enactments that allow for different types of agency" (Moje & Lewis, p. 20).

"Agency might be thought of as the strategic making and remaking of selves, identities, activities, relationships, cultural tools and resources, and histories, as embedded within relations of power" (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 18).

"Lave (1996) and Gee (2001) have argued that learning can be conceptualized as shifts in identity; that is, one learns to take on new identities along with new forms of knowledge and participation. Deep, participatory learning involves learning not only the stuff of a discipline – science content, for example – but also how to think and act something like a scientist, even if one does not enter the profession of science . . . Awareness of discursive practices as distinct across communities is a key ingredient to the ability to strategically enact an identity of [one's] choosing" (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 19).

"Learning thus involves . . . an act of subject formation, that is, identification with particular communities. These identifications can be demonstrated through the enactment of partucular identities one knows will be recognized as valuable in particular spaces and relationships . . . That is, as people acquire, appropriate, resist, or reconceptualize skills and knowledge within and across discourse communities, they continue to be formed as acting subjects (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 19).

"The process of people navigating across discourse communities also has the potential to change the discourse communities themselves. Learning is thus not only participation in discourse communities, but is also the process by which people become members of discourse communities" (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 20).

5

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6

APPENDIX K

EXAMPLE LIST OF QUESTIONS ADDRESSED BY RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

FOR CRITICAL STANCE "TAKING RESPONSIBILITY TO INQUIRE"

Participant	List of questions
Brandon	• How should I teach writing? • What are the needs of my students? • What is assessment for? What is the most authentic way to assess students and promote their social-emotional wellbeing? • How does vulnerability relate to learning? • What curriculum content will engage my students, and what questions are they asking in their world? What are the curricular needs of my student population? How do I expand my content knowledge to fit these needs? • How do I best fully challenge each individual student? • What do gifted students need? • How is relationship most fundamental to teaching and success with students? • How do I grow as a person to best promote mutual relationships with my students? How to I learn social-emotional skills necessary to build relationships? How to I continue to support being present in my teaching practice? How am I able to be most authentic with students? To what degree is personal and professional • How do I support my student writer's transformation to more professional understanding of the craft of writing? • What is the best way to teach in a pandemic? • How do I manage the constraints of distance teaching and my expectations for teaching writing? What is the balance between harm and neglect? • How do I speak truth about my profession? • How can I structure a class or lessons so students experience writing most authentically? • To what degree do I address the social-emotional needs of my students in the classroom? How do I respond to student trauma in the classroom? • Can I bring my students to question and reflect on their perceived certainties? What type of content is most effective for these questions? • To what degree do I address the content of student writing?

Participant	List of questions
Catherine	• What is meaningful teaching? Under what circumstances can I be a meaningful teacher with some autonomy? • How do I protect a student's feelings and agency when giving writing feedback? • How do I focus on the most engaging and purposeful content to teach my alternative track students? • How do I create lessons that challenge the broad learning levels of my students? How do I create lessons that contribute to student success? • How can I best educationally serve all of the different communities of my school? • What non-scholastic needs are not being met for my students that I can support, and how? • What qualities make writing fun and safe for students? • What is a meaningful response to compelling student stories and writing? • How can I support students writing about a topic that is important to them, yet maintain some boundaries on topics that are inappropriate for a school setting? (Brandon also) • How do I best empower my students? What is required for my students to feel empowered? What is required for my students to feel safe? • How much curricular freedom do I have at this particular school site to do what I think is professionally best? • What professional input is helpful in improving my lessons? • How does the school serve our immigrant communities? • How do I make sure GT or high ability students are challenged? • What is the most important content for non-traditional students at my alternative school to master? What content should be prioritized? • How do I manage my limited time with students, especially when many lack out of school resources?
Mary	• How can I infuse more creativity in all of my lessons and teaching? • How do I use my personal professional expertise in writing to improve the teaching of writing to the students of my age group? • Why has English-language Arts (ELA) been structured in schools in its current iteration? Why is the teaching of ELA so taxing?

Participant	List of questions
	• What is the place of non-English languages in assignments for the ELA classroom? • How do I allow for student questions and inquiry on any topics without being reactive or diminish their curiosity? How can I be most respectful to my student's questions? • How do I solicit feedback and support for expansive lesson ideas? • What do writers from Pharos need to know before working with my students? (Catherine too) What is the most important feedback to give Pharos writers after our collaborative wotk together? • How do I serve the Gifted & Talented (GT) population, especially the "non-traditional" GT students? • Where do I go in my school/district to get background information on my students? • How do I balance competing curricular demands? • How can I reflectively share my day-to-day teaching experiences with colleagues, especially teaching partners? How can I be of support in these conversations? • Of what value was teacher education? What aspects of teacher preparation program best supported my current work? • What is the best way that people learn? • How can I involve the larger school community in my students' writing work? • How do I support and motivate reluctant writers, (often GT students and/or boys) that have profound ideas? • How do I present the reality of my professional teaching truth accurately? • How am I fair to the content I want to teach and need/should teach, according to the district and standards? • How do I affect improving teacher preparation for the teaching of writing? • How do I prepare if my curricular choices are challenged by the school administration? • How do I incorporate personal content expertise (for example in professional writing) and make it appropriate for my students' learning stages? • How can I be most authentic with my students and treat them as having agency? What is a responsible relationship respecting student personhood? • How can I expand curriculum with input from writing content area experts? • What role does theory play in my practice at this time?

Participant	List of questions
	• How do I participate in continuing to transform educational systems to serve students? • As an organizer of professional development, what type of presentations best suits my teachers' needs? • *How do I promote higher order thinking, especially with the use of questions?*
Winona	• What do experts in the discipline of teaching of writing say about it? • How do I adapt a professional development idea for use in my classroom with my students? • What does the practice of writing mean to me? • How would I have liked to have been prepared for the teaching of writing? • How do I balance student instructional needs and social-emotional wellbeing, especially during this unprecedented year with COVID-19. • How could or should district curriculum change? Is the district outline a set of standards or a curriculum? • How do I extend curriculum and make an effective large unit with many components? Are there outside-of-school organizations that can support and improve my project? • How do I properly evaluate and modify the lessons I teach? • How do I respond to skill-based writing expectations from colleagues for the students we share? • How was the purview of the content ELA teachers are responsible for established? • How do I manage learning priorities with limited time?