SEARCHING FOR PATTERNS OF DISCOURSE IN A SEA OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: PROFESSIONAL LEARNING AND TEACHER DISCOURSE

by

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DEDICATION

To you, the reader of this dissertation, may you not only digest the text but also use your words as tools, and do the work that must be done - whatever it is - through inquiry, respect and passion.

To Cara, Ava, and Fancy, may this dissertation, at the very least, be enjoyed as a doorstop holding the door open for us as we play in the backyard.

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introspection, extrospection, and all the other great “tions” that are out there. Lisa, Nina, Julia, and all of my other highly respected peers . . . good times. In many ways our teachers and children will benefit from our collaborative efforts.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Brian Whitney is committed to the pursuit of balance within a life framed by teaching and learning. He taught fourth and sixth grade in public schools receiving Title I and III funding, various curriculum and instruction courses at Boise State University, and professional development courses with the Boise School District (BSD) and Optimize: Professional Development.

Whitney is currently working as a consulting teacher and coach for the BSD, collaborating with teachers working to integrate the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol into their practice. He has helped launch a peer coaching training program based on the apprenticeship model and works within the BSD to establish communities of collaborative practice.

In 2004, after completing a Masters degree in education with an emphasis on the arts in learning, Whitney founded Optimize: Professional Development, LLC and has since expanded Optimize's consulting and workshop services, releasing their first product, a web-based collaboration management program in the spring of 2009.

Whitney has made both local and national conference presentations on the use of the SIOP in delivering effective classroom instruction and increasing student achievement. He recently co-presented at the California Capital Lesson Study Conference on the Instructional Learning Team model.

Whitney's current professional and academic work is leading him to investigate the role that professional development plays in establishing, supporting, and sustaining communities of collaborative practice which promote inquiry-based professional learning processes.

ABSTRACT

Professional development, like a sea of changing tides, ebbs and flows through a myriad of professional trends. Some of these trends have disenfranchised teachers from the core of professional learning while others have empowered teachers to confront change with passion and courage. As collaboration continues to gain popularity as an empowering and effective route to professional learning, scrutinizing the effects of professional development on teacher discourse will ensure desired outcomes are achieved.

While collaboration holds the power to break down some of the isolation that exists in the teaching profession, talk alone, void of inquiry and reflection, will not necessarily lead to school improvement, pedagogical evolution, or improved learning experiences for students. Working on the belief that these are necessary targets in professional development, this qualitative study investigated what ways, if any, teacher collaborative discourse differed considering various levels of professional development teachers had received.

Four independent focus groups, each consisting of teachers who had participated in varying types of professional learning, collaboratively discussed instruction they viewed of an unknown model teacher and instruction of a peer. Participants' discussions were analyzed using coding tools which provided identifiers for two tiers of data - Statement Types and Discourse Types. These codes helped identify

frequency patterns of inquiry, reflection, and other statement and discourse types within each group, suggesting the need for professional developers and policy makers to provide intentional opportunities in teacher learning for practitioners to engage in inquiry and reflection if these are desired outcomes of professional development endeavors.

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers and students will benefit from improvements in professional development (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Lieberman & Miller, 2001; Fullan, 2001). Hunt (2009) shares his opinion:

> I know of no better way to transform the outmoded factory model of school organization and the egg-crate isolation of teachers than to give teachers the tools and support they need and greater responsibility over what happens in their buildings to ensure that all students achieve. This is an effort that will require – and is worthy of – another decade of school reform. (p. 2)

Having worked in schools as a part-time professional development facilitator while also working as a classroom teacher and more recently as a full-time professional developer focused on establishing a district-wide coaching model, I have seen the consequences of teachers working in isolation, and have, even more significantly, seen the glowing embers of possibility that flare up as we touch on the intersection of useful research, ready teachers, and collaborative synergy. These moments illuminate the exciting possibilities that exist in professional learning as we continuously improve approaches to professional development.

Professional development should be rooted in context and should require reflective, collaborative effort (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Zeichner & Liston, 1996; Schon, 1983; Little, 1999). Hirsh (2009) illuminates this reality:

> For many years Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act has required low-performing schools to set aside ten percent of their

> allocations for schoolwide professional development. Title II funding has resulted in the allocation of more than three billion dollars to professional development. More than 40 states have adopted standards calling for effective professional development for all educators accountable for results in student learning. And several national studies on what distinguishes high-performing, high-poverty schools from their lower-performing counterparts consistently identify effective schoolwide collaborative professional learning as critical to the school's success. And yet as a nation we have failed to leverage this support and these examples to ensure that every educator and every student benefits from highly effective professional learning. (p. 3)

Not only does the research support these necessities in building capacity and generating lasting change in teacher behavior, but simple observations in schools and conversations with teachers paint the picture quite clearly for anyone willing to look and listen.

Chappuis, Chappuis, and Stiggins (2009) share that, "Effective professional development is supposed to foster lasting change in the classroom. When is doesn't, we waste valuable time, resources, and most important, our teachers' trust that time engaged in professional development is well spent" (p. 57). When considering the outcome of professional development as increasing student learning and achievement through improved teacher practices, we must identify improvement at the school, district, and even state level; we can no longer rely on the stories and success of the isolated super-star teacher. When looking at evidence-based school improvement, it takes a community to achieve the lasting change that Chappuis, Chappuis, and Stiggins (2009) are referring to, and based on the groundbreaking study by Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos (2009), within this community there must be reflection and collaboration.

How best are these practices encouraged and sustained? Considering social and situated learning theories (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Kirshner & Whitson, 1997; Vygotsky, 1986), a direct and feasible avenue to supporting teacher learning is through communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) or professional learning communities (Hord, 1997, 2004; DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008) in which teachers work together to construct and deepen knowledge regarding teaching and learning. Might this knowledge be represented in collaborative discourse within teacher groups? The answer to this question might be found delicately balanced on the premise of hope, as it is not overtly common to wander through the halls of schools and hear teachers engaged in inquiry, reflection, and knowledge construction, with the exception of the highly motivated collaborative team or the colleagues working together in a coaching relationship.

Coaching (Allen & LeBlanc, 2005; Gottesman, 2000; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Knight, 2007; Costa & Garmston, 2002), while gaining popularity in schools and demonstrating success in helping teachers implement effective teaching strategies (Southern California Comprehensive Assistance Center, n.d.; Joyce & Showers, 1982), is supported by little evidence of programs which are utilizing coaching as a means to intentionally support and develop levels of collaborative discourse among practitioners.

Teacher talk can lead to change. Call it collaboration, mingling, sharing, or discourse, teacher conversations can have a significant impact on how teachers teach (Zeichner & Liston, 1996; Schon, 1987; Kreckel, 1981); however, “the kind of high-intensity, job-embedded collaborative learning that is most effective is not a common feature of professional development across most states, districts, and schools in the

United States" (Hirsh, in Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos 2009, p. 4).

Current research on the effects that collaboration and coaching have on helping teachers evolve is exciting and vital to school improvement. Considering how professional development, specifically coaching and training in how to coach peers, influences the conversations teachers have would help professional developers focus on transferring strategies of being and interacting within a community of practice to members of learning organizations, leading to broader influence and potentially greater change through the power of collaborative inertia.

A Framework for Teacher Learning

Lave and Wenger (1991) ask, "what kinds of social engagements provide the proper context for learning to take place" (p. 14). Within this quote, there is the underlying epistemological view that learners "acquire the skills to perform by actually engaging in the process, under the attenuated conditions of legitimate peripheral participation" (p. 14). Therefore, teachers should be given authentic opportunities to engage in new and different work with colleagues if pedagogical evolution is to take place. "The common element here is the premise that meaning, understanding, and learning are all defined relative to actional contexts, not to self-contained structures" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 15).

Considering that "leaning is an integral and inseparable aspect of social practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 31) we should see a gradual increase in proficiency as teachers

move from no training in an instructional model to a fully supported relationship between training in the model, coaching, and even coaching training, the later which elevates the level of discourse through Legitimate Peripheral Participation as a “coach”, recognized by their ability to work at a higher level of inquiry and critical discourse.

Might certain approaches to professional development produce observable, measurable results which exhibit discernable characteristics of discourse (Kreckel, 1981; Gee, 2005; Phillips & Hardy, 2002), inquiry (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Dewey, 1910, 1938; Ball & Cohen, 1999) and “knowledge-of-practice” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Schon, 1987, 1991)? Answering this question effectively will require the unpacking of many layers. The first layer, which this study is attempting to illuminate, will provide evidence of the fundamental impact that coaching has on teacher collaborative discourse compared to more traditional professional development models.

An adventure awaits teachers in their everyday work if they are given the opportunity to engage in a community of practice (Wenger, 1998; Hord, 2004; DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008), using an apprenticeship model of coaching (Lave & Wenger, 1991) to negotiate participation that values and develops collaboration skills, an inquiry stance, and “knowledge-of-practice” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Dewey, 1910, 1938; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Schon, 1987, 1991).

Professional Learning: Keep It Real

Definitions of adventure often include some reference to risk. In a learning adventure, I see the risk being that of not evolving, it is that which will be lost by non-

engagement. We can interpret similar sentiment through Schwandt and Marquardt's (2000) description of organizational learning:

> Existing knowledge tends to misdirect inquiry rather than facilitate problem resolution. People and organizations need to learn new ways of coping with problems. Only by improving the learning capacity of organizations can we deal with change dynamics. Thus learning inside the organization must be equal to or greater than change outside the organization or the organization will not survive (p. 3).

This brings me back to life's other adventures - those activities which we choose to engage in for the sake of rejuvenation, enlightenment, or even just excitement. I have never seen why every day, both exceptional and ordinary, should not have some element of excitement – the unexpected through which we must navigate new solutions, the engagement of our attention or emotions in a lively and compelling manner - mixed into that window that we can describe as consciousness. In order for this to happen, we must adjust ourselves, posit our perspective of interpretation in a context within which we can create agreement between the familiar and unknown and adjust our attitude from one of problem-creation to problem-solution. I have learned a lot about this philosophy through personal experiences and trial and error.

Get to the Heart of the Matter: A Personal Example

When I was ten years old I went on my first backpacking trip with my Dad, a two-night exploration of the Sierra Nevada. I was determined that in order to truly be a backpacker I had better look the part. So, as my schema suggested, I began strapping as many extra canteens, shovels, rope, and mugs onto my pack as possible and cinched it all haphazardly into a loose tangle of twine before dragging my seven inch feet along the

dusty trail. About forty-five minutes later things weren't looking too bright. I was sick. Sick of carrying all that weight, which lead to my being sick of walking, which lead to me being sick of my Dad's excitement. A clear memory I have is of one point in the hike when my proud father wanted to take my picture and I pouted, refusing to smile for the shot. I handed all of my extra gear over to my dad, leaving him to carry my over-ambitious vision as only a parent can, and me with only the essentials. A day passed, we ate, fished, hiked, napped, and I finished the trip with a much lighter pack and a lesson learned that has stuck with me since – its not the look, not attempting to recreate an image that one believes defines an endeavor, that really matters, it's the depth with which you take each breath. This is what experience lived authentically and genuinely should be about. Now, whenever I pack for a trip, I follow the famous KIS rule – keep it simple. Settle in, savor the pace, sweat when needed, and smile at all that surrounds you. We must critically evaluate the image that professional development has created of itself and identify the core purposes of professional learning and the most direct avenues to actualizing these purposes. By doing so, teachers might quite possibly settle in to their roles as learners, savor the pace, and smile at all that surrounds them.

Continuous Improvement: Keep It Simple

Smiling does not always come easy, especially when a person is confused, trying to wrestle their way out of two beings – one being the fulfillment of a role expected through schema and the other being the one that truly comprises the essence of who she is, where she is going, and what she wants to be doing. In my opinion, there is one non-

negotiable here. All movement should, even if through recursive, hermeneutic patterns of reflection and action, be forward movement, a constant pursuit of continuous improvement. Marquardt (1996) shares a similar sentiment in regards to organizational learning, “The prospect that organizational learning offers is one of managing change by allowing for quantum leaps. Continuous improvement means that every quantum leap becomes an opportunity to learn and therefore prepare for the next quantum leap” (p. 3).

What I have outlined so far are the two critical components that must be acknowledged before engaging more fully with the detailed literature regarding my argument for using an apprenticeship model of coaching within a community of practice to help teachers engage in deeper levels of critical discourse. First, enjoy the adventure of continuous improvement and second, we must keep organizational learning focused on continuous improvement by keeping it simple and stripped of ineffective routines, rituals, and traditions.

I believe in integrated theory, pouring what matters to us most into every task we initiate and doing so through a network of discourse. By pulling this theory into the context of school improvement, I add emphasis to this point – professional development needs to be personal, meaningful, simple, and in the hands of those who are working head-on with the change.

Just as a child will more fully enjoy a backpacking trip if he is not laden with the physical weight of extra gear and the psychological weight of fulfilling an image, I believe that we can encourage a renewed sense of enthusiasm and activism among those in the greatest position to actualize change in education – teachers – if we drop the

unnecessary baggage of outmoded conceptions of professional learning and get to the point. Schmoker (1999) shares that, “a recurrent theme [in professional development] is an emphasis on principles and practices that (1) are simple and supported by research, (2) are relatively few in number, and (3) have huge but underused potential” (p. 1).

LITERATURE REVIEW

What might be a legitimate goal for professional development? It might be to justify placing professional development in the hands of teachers through a community of practice (Wenger, 1998) that values and develops collaboration skills (Rosenholtz, 1989; DuFour, Eaker, DuFour, 2005; Fishbaugh, 1997), an inquiry stance (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Dewey, 1910, 1938; Ball & Cohen, 1999), and knowledge-of-practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Schon, 1987). I believe, based on current research and experience, that these are the essential networks through which to tap educational change (Fullan, 2001; Lieberman & Miller, 2001; Knight, 2007; Borko, 2004; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Wilson & Berne, 1999). Borko and Putman (1996) suggest the following four professional development truisms to ensure that professional development is meaningful and makes an impact on teacher and student learning: "1) Teachers should be treated as active learners, 2) teachers must be empowered as professionals, 3) teacher education must be situated in classroom practice, and 4) teacher educators should treat teachers as they expect teachers to treat students" (p. 176).

These four points are exciting, as they are manageable and carry significant implications for professional developers. Each truism suggests that quality teacher learning attack the issue of improving teaching and learning head-on, shooting straight for the heart of what it means to be an empowered teacher, in control of your own professional growth. Echoing these 'truisms' and adding to the image of quality professional development are a variety of national educational reform studies (Darling-

Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Corcoran, 1995; Houghton & Goren, 1995; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996). Scribner (1999) shares that, "these studies emphasize the need to (a) integrate professional development into schools through sustained support at the state, district, and local levels; (b) link individual and organizational improvement; and (c) develop organizational contexts that support continuous professional learning" (p. 238). These efforts could save money, time, and, most significantly, could make immediate differences in the learning of students. This represents the concept of Keep it Simple in a few ways.

Keeping it simple tends to bring out the best in most people and scenarios; why not put it to work in professional development? I believe that by keeping professional development simple, i.e. – job embedded, context- and time- based, authentic, and peer dependent, we will see more immediate positive impacts in classrooms than results from traditional professional development in the common form of workshops, trainings, and university coursework (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Guskey, 2003). Lieberman and Miller (2008a) explain the origins of such traditional professional learning:

> Just as the NDEA had placed the schools in a national defense role, the ESEA positioned them as agents of social change. As before, external experts were charged with the development and dissemination of curriculum materials and strategies that teachers were expected to adopt with high degrees of fidelity. In both NDEA and ESEA we saw the establishment of a training model of staff development.
>
> This model has enjoyed a long life. It still flourishes in the form of in-service days, one-time workshops, short-term institutes, and – more

> recently – in training teachers to implement 'scientifically based practices.' . . . the norm was the transmission of knowledge by experts. (p. 7)

Working on the Periphery

We see it time and again in schools, teachers who attend all of the newest workshops, have been teaching for years, love their students as only a committed teacher can, but still fail to deliver educational experiences that help their students learn (Ball & Cohen, 1999). I consider this 'working on the periphery'. As a classroom teacher, I was guilty of working on the periphery on occasion. Working on the periphery refers to those instances when everything looks and feels right, but you have not actually committed your mind, time, and actions to the very simple act of engaging a learner in a learning moment. Professional development has worked on the periphery for years. Ball and Cohen (1999) explain how:

> Reformers routinely invoke the need for professional development; and there is no shortage of in-service workshops for teachers. Although a good deal of money is spent on staff development in the United States, most is spent on sessions and workshops that are often intellectually superficial, disconnected from deep issues of curriculum and learning, fragmented, and noncumulative (p. 3).

Professional developers have worked hard at delivering the latest trends and strategies to teachers and coaches have helped teachers implement a variety of effective teaching practices; however, these efforts are falling short in helping teachers actualize the skills necessary to ensure increased achievement for today's learner. Schmoker (2005) emphasizes this point and provides an argument for the solution:

> Mere collegiality will not cut it. Discussions about curricular issues or popular strategies can feel good but go nowhere. The right image to embrace is of a group of teachers who meet regularly to share, refine, and assess the impact of lessons and strategies continuously to help increasing numbers of students learn at higher levels. (p. xiv)

We must continue to invest committed, passionate work into finding ways to take what we know is best in professional development and put it in the hands of teachers. Let's strip away the glam and flash. Will teachers and administrators miss the exciting trip to Orlando or Las Vegas to receive our free bag and binder full of how-tos? Of course they will. But the rewards of evolving professionally within authentic contexts, working consistently through efficient patterns of reflection, discourse, and action with peers is proving in many schools to far outweigh the loss and will infuse our schools with the inertia necessary to actualize the efforts of many reform movements (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Spillane, 1999; Smith, Wilson, & Corbett, 2009).

Why Bother?

Schools are great places. Teachers lead learners through inspiring journeys every day in the United States. Students are opening the doors to a tomorrow that older generations never even imagined. Hord (2004) shares that:

> Significant progress has been made during this century in opening schoolhouse doors to all, regardless of race, gender, and socioeconomic standing. We have also been in a period of unparalleled focus on accountability, standards, and comprehensive school reform. Yet a remarkable – and often disturbing – variability still exists from state to state, district to district, and school to school in the quality of educational experiences offered to children and youth. On the one hand are schools that are successfully redesigning themselves to become organizations that continually learn and invent new ways to increase the effectiveness of their work – schools that are focused on improving student learning. On

> the other hand are schools that have changed only minimally, applying knowledge and practices that, at best, merely maintain the status quo. (p. 5)

Schwandt and Marquardt (2000), although speaking through a perspective focused on the business sector, provide strikingly aligned insight into the necessities of organizations in general. Through a business metaphor, we can interpret and anticipate the future of schools that change only minimally, and their prediction is bleak: "companies that do not become learning organizations will soon go the way of the dinosaur: die, because they were unable to adjust quickly enough to the changing environment around them" (p. 2).

Glennnan, Bodilly, Gallagher, and Kerr (2004) describe multiple cases of success in schools that have been boosting student achievement for at least the past two decades. There are schools decorating our nation with stories similar to the Central Park East that Meier (1995) so proudly speaks of, a school where "children could and should be inventors of their own theories, critics of other people's ideas, analyzers of evidence, and makers of their own personal marks in this most complex world" (p. 4). Look closely and critically at your local school system and you should be able to identify practices worthy of praise.

Is there room for improvement? Of course there is. There always should be. Schools can be demoralizing, oppressive institutions that serve to advance the inequities of our society (Freire, 2003; Giroux, 1997; McLaren, 2003); however, I am beginning to fear that, just as in biking, driving, or even walking, we tend to head in the direction which we are most focused on, and I believe that a greater power rests in adjusting the

focus of professional development away from these canyons of failure and instead, zooming in on the potential of the pockets of success. After all, we have come a long way.

Comparative History: Looking at Others and Looking at Ourselves

The Third International Mathematics and Science Study ([TIMSS], 2003) throws in our face the fact that "U.S. students performed quite poorly compared with their peers in most Asian and many European countries" (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999, p. 5) and A Nation at Risk (1983), "the most influential school reform report of the 1980s" (Tyack & Cuban, 1995, p. 13), inspired fear and doubt in Americans' faith of their public school system. Stigler and Hiebert explain that, "The results from TIMSS have garnered a great deal of media interest and have caught the attention of politicians, policymakers, and the general public. The results are dramatic, and they do not paint a flattering picture of American education" (p. 6). However, Meier (1995) adds to this picture:

> Until World War II the average American did not graduate from high school. Most teenagers were expected to leave school for unskilled or semiskilled work; even many highly skilled jobs could be aspired to without a high school diploma. On the eve of World War II, the average American had attended school for only nine years, and 12 percent had attended for fewer than five. (p. 70)

While considering where the American education system is today and what students are achieving, we cannot let these facts overshadow the more energizing truths. Meier continues to illustrate that:

> Researchers in an eminently respectable federal study released in 1993 by the Sandia National Laboratories were startled to conclude after two years

> of research that 'on nearly every measure we found steady or slightly improving trends' over the past three decades. (p. 70)

This is good news . . . but we often do not hear about the good news. "Not only were these findings not heralded, but the report was, in fact, suppressed" (Meier, p. 70). We could analyze reasons for this suppression and others like it; however, this would disrupt our celebration.

The fact is, regardless of the reports we hear and findings that certain studies bring to light, schools are growing and shifting, and education professionals are learning new ways of doing their work (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2006). This might not be happening as quickly as we would hope and there are certainly some substantial shortcomings in the education children receive across our country, but focusing down this path of failure obscures the awe and excitement that overflows many classrooms every day. Why not look more intensely down the road we would like to travel? To begin this journey, I believe we must make some adjustments to the 'grammar of professional development.'

The Grammar of Professional Development

Tyack and Cuban (1995) discuss the 'grammar of schooling', or "the ways that schools divide time and space, classify students and allocate them to classrooms, splinter knowledge into 'subjects,' and award grades and 'credits' as evidence of learning" (p. 85). Tyack and Cuban claim this grammar of schooling is a product of history and has been controlled by those groups with the greatest lobbying power (p. 86). This grammar

impedes change, innovation, and experimentation. Unfortunately, “the standard grammar of schooling has proven remarkably durable” (Tyack & Cuban, p. 87).

So how then might one define the ‘grammar of professional development’? When digging to the root of this question, I must clarify that I believe it too lies in a historical context. In other words, the grammar of professional development does not represent many of the exciting trends that have recently garnered more attention in classrooms, schools, text, and conferences. A few examples of these would be action research (Sagor, 2005), reflective practice (Schon, 1983, 1987, 1991; Zeichner, & Liston,1996), professional learning communities and collaboration (Hord, 2004; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fishbaugh, 1997), and instructional coaching (Knight, 2007).

In contrast to these teacher-centered avenues to continuous improvement, the *grammar of professional development* represents the notion of how teachers come into contact with outside expert knowledge. This grammar includes such traditions as separation of researcher and practitioner, workshop models of knowledge/theory transmission, a general perception that schools need to be fixed and teachers need to be taught how to do their job better (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). It is my own theory that because of this perception of schools as needing to be fixed, professional developers have become fixated on identifying the problems within schools, only diverting energy from the exciting work waiting to happen, eroding public support for education in general, and this undermines relationships between professional developers and teachers.

Shifting the grammar of professional development, even in the smallest of ways, may place more power, enthusiasm, and inspiration in the hands of practicing teachers –

those people who are actually in classrooms everyday, looking children in the eyes and speaking the words that make or break the future of America's learners, thinkers, doers, and makers. What would this shift that I hope for actually sound like? It is subtle. We must speak of teachers as the experts and seek them out as such to engage collaboratively with researchers, theorists, and other practitioners (Schon, 1983). We must speak of the processes of professional development in ways that put students in the center of our intent, then teachers, then theory, research, and academia. We must not speak only of the pitfalls of schools and the shortcomings of teachers as the need for professional development; instead, we must emphasize the creative, innovative steps that are being taken every day in classrooms by empowered teachers engaging in their own professional learning.

I feel these shifts are important if those of us involved in professional development are to ever truly succeed. By leading our work with a more optimistic grammar and shifting our focus to teachers as experts, professional development might just be the counter pressure needed to slow down the mighty pendulum perception of professional expectations in schools (Lieberman, 2005) and inspire teachers to engage in the amazing work that is continuous improvement through professional learning.

Let's Get Busy

I am proposing that by building a community of practice (Wenger, 1998) which utilizes peer coaching (Allen & LeBlanc, 2005; Gottesman, 2000; Joyce & Showers, 1982) as a medium to develop more effective collaboration (DuFour, Eaker, DuFour,

2005; Garmston, 1997; Little, 1990), an inquiry stance (Lipman, 2003; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001), and knowledge-of-practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Schon, 1983) schools might realize more immediate, sustained improvement in teaching and learning.

Building a Community of Practice

Research on learning theory through the 1980s and 1990s by Lave and Wenger supports a model of situated learning that proposed, "learning involved a process of engagement in a community of practice" (Smith, 2003, p. 1). A community of practice can be defined by:

> What it is about – its joint enterprise as understood and continually renegotiated by its members. How it functions – mutual engagement that bind members together into a social entity. What capability it has produced – the shared repertoire of communal resources (routines, artifacts, vocabulary, styles, etc) that members have developed over time. (Smith, 2003, p. 2)

It would likely be argued by most situated cognitivists that you cannot build a community of practice; instead, they naturally exist in the formal and informal contexts of society. Related to this, but illustrating a slightly different angle, Wenger (1998) explains how she believes that:

> the term practice is sometimes used as an antonym for theory, ideas, ideals, or talk. However, my use of the term does not reflect a dichotomy between the practical and theoretical, ideals and reality, or talking and doing. Communities of practice include all of these, even if there are sometimes discrepancies between what we say and what we can manifest. We all have our own theories and ways of understanding the world, and our communities of practice are places where we develop, negotiate, and share them. (p. 48)

Considering this, let me explain what I imply by stating that we must *build* a community of practice. First, we must build an *awareness* of the concepts of communities of practice within professional development networks and schools. Wenger (1998) characterizes social participation as a process of learning and knowing and summarizes critical components of social participation into the following four points:

1) *Meaning*: a way of talking about our changing ability – individually and collectively – to experience our life and the world as meaningful.
2) *Practice*: a way of talking about the shared historical and social resources, frameworks, and perspectives that can sustain mutual engagement in action.
3) *Community*: a way to talk about the social configurations in which our enterprises are defined as worth pursuing and our participation is recognizable as competence.
4) *Identity*: a way of talking about how learning changes who we are and creates personal histories of becoming in the context of our communities. (p. 5)

By intentionally bringing about an awareness of these components within school contexts, professional developers will be tapping a knowledge pool (Patterson, Grenny, McMillan, & Switzler, 2002) which holds great potential to transform teaching and learning within a school. My hypothesis fueling this belief is that as teachers develop more integrated metacognitive skills and rely on these skills when navigating their own professional growth they will develop a stronger awareness and a more acute relationship between their ego, superego, and id, specifically in relation to their personal professional growth. This provides some of the power of a site-embedded approach that is built upon the principles of a community of practice and social learning. Wenger supports this point as she describes what matters most about learning:

1) We are social beings. Far from being trivially true, this fact is a central aspect of learning.

2) Knowledge is a matter of competence with respect to valued enterprises . . .
3) Knowing is a matter of participating in the pursuit of such enterprises, that is, of active engagement in the world.
4) Meaning – our ability to experience the world and our engagement with it as meaningful – is ultimately what learning is to produce. (p. 4)

Secondly, we must build *systems* and *opportunities* that support intentional professional social engagement within the work schedule so that educators may express and expand their ongoing pedagogical evolution. Wenger (1998) suggests that "the structure of practice is emergent, both highly perturbable and highly resilient, always reconstituting itself in the face of new events" (p. 233). By scrutinizing and reflecting on this emergent nature of practice, educators may be better prepared to provide for the changing, dynamic needs of their learners. Smith (2003) suggests that, "Learning is social and comes largely from our experience of participating in daily life" (p. 1).

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2001) expand on these ideas and state that, "professional development needs to focus on culture building, not skills training . . . must be deeply embedded in the daily life of schools . . . and must feature opportunities for teachers to inquire systematically about how teaching practice constructs rich learning opportunities for some students" (p. 46). Little (1999) explains that:

> A school organized for teacher learning would promote the systemic study of teaching and learning in at least two ways. First, the school would support teachers in investigating questions, problems, and curiosities that arise in teaching . . . . Second, a school would promote the study of teaching and learning by developing the organizational habit of shared student assessment. (pp. 236-237)

When sitting in a school building, one can not help but look for evidence of these cultural artifacts within the community – listening for shared and clear goals or learning

skills, looking for an inquiry stance and boundary spanners – those conversations that propel teachers beyond their current realities (McLaughlin & Zarrow, 2001). A community of practice should provide the support and environment that teachers need to collaboratively tackle teacher learning through inquiry of their own practice, but only if the community is cognitively operating with a balance of participation.

Wenger (1998) explains that:

> We know who we are by what is familiar and by what we can negotiate and make use of, and that we know who we are not by what is unfamiliar, unwieldy, and out of our purview. This is an important point. We not only produce our identities through the practices we engage in, but we also define ourselves through practices we do not engage in. Our identities are constituted not only by what we are but also by what we are not. (p. 164)

Participation and non-participation roles in a community of practice can be classified into three trajectories – peripheral, inside, and marginal (Wenger, 1998). Wenger explains how the role through which we define our identity shapes fundamental aspects of our lives in the following ways:

1) how we locate ourselves in a social landscape
2) what we care about and what we neglect
3) what we attempt to know and understand and what we choose to ignore
4) with whom we seek connections and whom we avoid
5) how we engage and direct our energies and
6) how we attempt to steer our trajectories. (pp. 167-168)

Some schools have strong communities defined by positive social relationships, professional respect, and mutual investment in teaching. When looking more closely at communities of practice, it makes sense to use some of the principles of professional learning communities as an entry point to getting school communities to dig deeper into issues that will actually affect student achievement. Communities of practice already

exist within every school building. They exist as the very essence of social beings working within a contextually bound environment, in this case, a school. Wenger (1998) explains that:

> Organizations are social designs directed at practice. Indeed, it is through the practices they bring together that organizations can do what they do, know what they know, and learn what they learn. Communities of practice are thus key to an organization's competence and to the evolution of that competence. (p. 241)

Professional Learning Communities

The closest professional development movement to have capitalized on this essence is the idea of a professional learning community (PLC). Although fundamentally quite different, communities of practice and professional learning communities do share common ideals. For the purposes of this paper, I am only going to illuminate those ways in which I view communities of practice and PLCs working synergistically or ways in which a PLC might create leverage through which professional developers and educators alike might be able to tap into the power of collaborative knowledge building.

Hord (2004) explains how, after *A Nation at Risk* (1983) was published:

> researchers began to focus on the influence of the work setting and culture on workers – in both the private corporate world and the public education sector. By the late 1980s teacher workplace factors were introduced into the discussion of teaching quality. Researcher Susan Rosenholtz (1989) found that teachers who felt supported in their own ongoing learning and classroom practice were more committed and effective than those who did not. (p. 6)

Rosenholtz (1989) describes that:

> of the many resources required by schools, the most vital are the contributions – of effort, commitment, and involvement – from teachers. The quality of teachers' contributions not only relates to student learning;

> it is also the ultimate means through which schools acquire many other necessary resources. (p. 421)

This research began fueling a belief that schools could be improved if more attention was given to supporting "teacher networks, cooperation among colleagues, and expanded professional roles" (Hord, 2004, p. 6). Hord continues, "teachers with a strong sense of efficacy were more likely to adopt new classroom behaviors and that a strong sense of efficacy encouraged teachers to stay in the profession" (p. 6). Senge (1990) mirrored these sentiments in *The Fifth Dimension,* in which he suggested that "performing for someone else's approval – rather than learning to become more adaptable and to generate creative solutions to problems – creates the very conditions that ensure mediocre performance" (Hord, p. 6). Senge defines a learning organization as a place where "people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together" (p. 3). This idea works in close concert with much of Schmoker's work (1999, 2006) emphasizing teamwork, goals, data, results, and research and development.

At an even more basic level are three general principles to follow when working as a collaborative group to engage in continuous improvement leading to increased student achievement – collaboration, a focus on learning, and a commitment to continuous improvement (DuFour & Eaker, 2006).

Key Features of Professional Learning Communities

First, a critical aspect in the sustainability of a community of practice and a PLC is collaboration. DuFour and Eaker (2006) explain that, “Collaboration represents a systematic process in which teachers work together interdependently in order to impact their classroom practice in ways that will lead to better results for their students, for their team, and for their school” (DuFour & Eaker, 2006).

Another shift in teacher thinking within a PLC is from focusing on teaching to looking more closely at student learning. DuFour and Eaker (2006) share that, “The very essence of a learning community is a focus on and a commitment to the learning of each student . . . educators within the organization embrace high levels of learning for all students as both the reason the organization exists and the fundamental responsibility of those who work within it” (DuFour & Eaker, 2006).

Lastly, how does an organization not only embrace high levels of learning, but also actualize high levels of learning and student achievement? This is accomplished through a commitment to continuous improvement. This requires each member of the organization engage in an ongoing cycle of:

- gathering evidence of current levels of student learning,
- developing strategies and ideas to build on strengths and address weaknesses in that learning,
- implementing those strategies and ideas,
- analyzing the impact of the changes to discover what was effective and what was not, and
- applying new knowledge in the next cycle of continuous improvement (DuFour & Eaker, 2006).

The bridge between communities of practice and PLCs is the access from the abstract relationships within a community of practice to concrete processes and ideas

suggested through the PLC literature. However, when considering the translation of PLC concepts to a belief in communities of practice, one must be cautioned. Wenger (1998) argues that communities of practice differ from institutional entities along three dimensions:

1) they negotiate their own enterprise, though they may at times construct a conforming response to institutional prescriptions,
2) they arise, evolve, and dissolve according to their own learning, though they may do so in response to institutional events,
3) they shape their own boundaries, though their boundaries may at times happen to be congruent with institutional boundaries. (p. 241)

Now, lets bring it all back to the core – keeping it simple . . . what is the goal of all this? The literature on communities of practice and learning communities suggests that professional learning should and does take place within context, should be and is transmitted between participants in the community, and evolves over time. After all, "the greatest resource in a school is still the brainpower and problem-solving ability of the human beings who comprise the school community" (Gottesman, 2000, p. 1). With this said, should, and if so, how, can professional developers help facilitate the evolution of these communities?

The Co-mingling of Situated Learning and Coaching

Should professional developers invest in the facilitation of communities of practice? I believe that the answer is yes. Knight (2007) shares that, "as research has shown for years, traditional forms of professional development are not effective, usually getting no better than a 10% implementation rate" (p. 2). Joyce and Showers (1982) share research showing that lecture based training steps result in a 5% application rate

compared to an 80% application rate for peer coaching (Southern California Comprehensive Assistance Center, n.d.). Joyce and Showers (1987) also provide the following statistics:

- 5% of learners will transfer a new skill into their practice as a result of theory
- 10% will transfer a new skill into their practice with theory and demonstration
- 20% will transfer a new skill into their practice with theory and demonstration, and practice within the training
- 25% will transfer a new skill into their practice with theory and demonstration, and practice within the training, and feedback
- 90% will transfer a new skill into their practice with theory and demonstration, and practice within the training, feedback, and coaching (p. 23)

Hawley & Valli (1999) state that, "Teachers need assistance from peer coaches or outside experts to support new instructional strategies" (p. 131). Joyce and Showers (1995) agree that, "Without companionship, help reflecting on practice, and instruction on fresh teaching strategies, most people can make very few changes in their behavior, however well-intentioned they are" (p. 6).

Dale's (1969) work on the "cone of learning" (see figure 2.1.) supports this evidence as well, suggesting that traditional methods of professional development will be less effective than teachers working with teachers in the context of their practice.

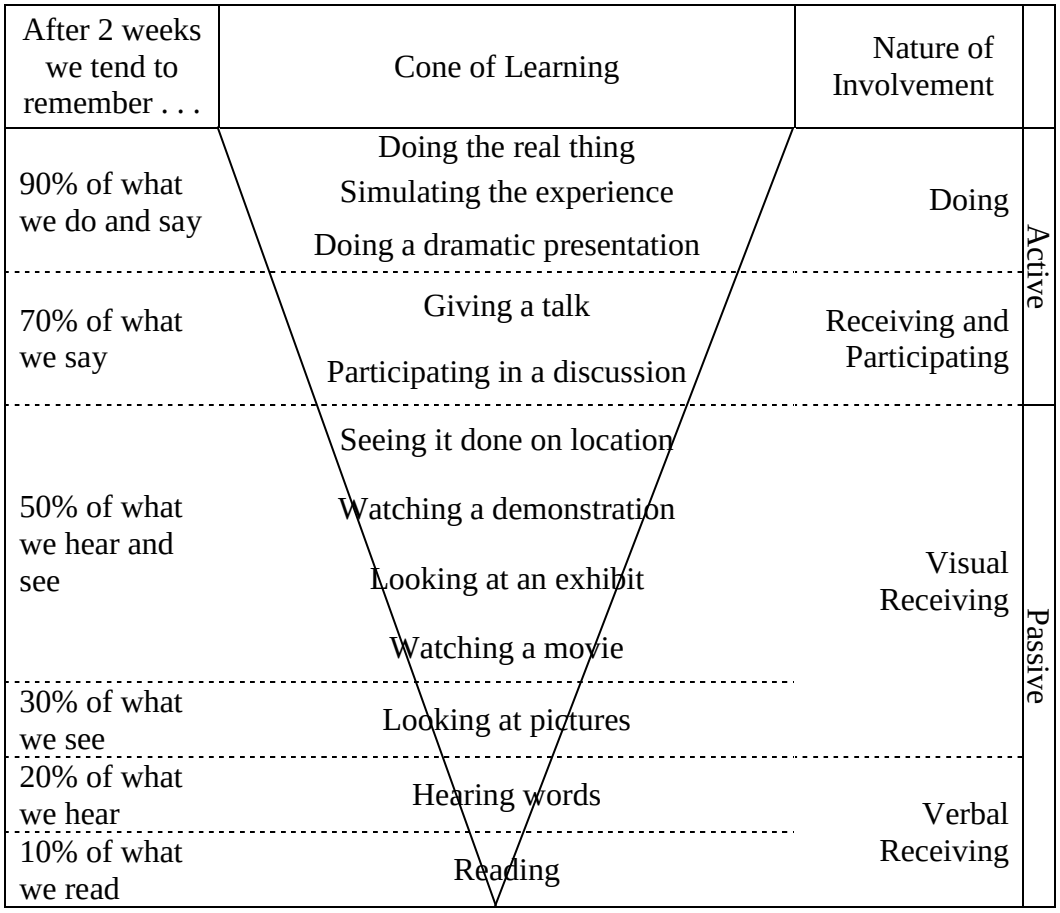


Figure 2.1. Edgar Dale's Cone of Learning

Building a Model of Co-participatory Professional Development

Dale's (1969) cone of learning illustrates the importance of co-participation in professional development. Layering this research with Little's (2001) opinion that professional development can be examined through the following four lenses: professional development as inspiration and goal setting, professional development as knowledge and skill development, professional development as inquiry, and professional development as collaboration and

community strengthens the image of what constitutes effective professional learning.

With these recommendations in mind, what might a coaching/mentoring approach look like? Sherris, Bauder, and Hillyard (2007) describe one approach involving a relationship in which, “a coach assists a team of teachers, who may or may not be experienced . . . to implement [a] model in their school” (p. xi) and in the Mentoring/Induction Coach approach “the . . . mentor provides one-on-one support to an inexperienced teacher, such as one new to the profession” (p. xi). The goal should be to help teachers “develop both a deep understanding of a model and flexible practices for implementing it to a high degree in their lessons” (Sherris, Bauder, & Hillyard, 2007, p. xi). While Sherris et al. (2007) advised coaches that “most teachers need approximately one year of substantial support to fully implement the model in their daily practice” (p xi), and they encouraged coaches to “set long-term goals, provide intensive assistance, and not expect immediate implementation by their teachers” (Sherris et al., p xii), I am not convinced that, even after a year of such support, that coaching alone can lead to the type of internal change required for sustainable continuous improvement within a school (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Borko, 2004).

It is critical that professional developers provide teachers with “collegial opportunities to learn that are linked to solving authentic problems defined by the gaps between goals for student achievement and actual student performance” (Hawley & Valli, 1999, p. 127). Hawley and Valli (1999) explain that, “if innovations are to take root at the school level, colleagues must develop a shared understanding of the purposes, rationale,

and processes involved in the innovation and believe that they can make a difference for students" (p. 130). Therefore, when considering the need for coaching models in schools, remember this, "teacher efficacy is enhanced when teachers have opportunities to observe new strategies modeled, practice them, engage in peer coaching, acclimate students to new ways of learning and use new teaching and learning strategies regularly and appropriately" (Hawley & Valli, p. 130).

Here's the twist – while instructional coaching (Knight, 2007; Sherris, Bauder, & Hillyard, 2007) is proving to be a viable and powerful approach to professional development (Knight, 2004), I would like to suggest a parallel role for coaches - coaching as apprenticeship through legitimate peripheral participation (LPP) targeting the development of cognitive processes rather than instructional practices. If we were to lay the major coaching approaches on a continuum of cognitive features, I would place instructional coaching (Knight, 2007; Sherris, Bauder, & Hillyard, 2007) on the far left, then progressing to the middle I would place peer coaching (Joyce & Showers, 1982), and then farther towards the right, I would have cognitive coaching (Costa & Garmston, 2002) and, lastly, coaching as apprenticeship through legitimate peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) (see figure 2.2.). I believe that all four of these can work simultaneously in a single building; they are not exclusive of each other. Instead, they serve unique, mutual purposes. Instructional coaching provides teachers with expert examples and knowledge from which to build a repertoire of skills; peer coaching builds social learning networks in which colleagues collaboratively build upon their shared knowledge to fine-tune their practice; where cognitive coaching and the apprenticeship

approach that I am suggesting as a means to develop cognitive processes focuses more on how to actually establish norms of a community of practice in which teachers engage in critically constructive discourse. I will briefly explain how each of these differs, with a greater focus on defining coaching as apprenticeship through LPP.

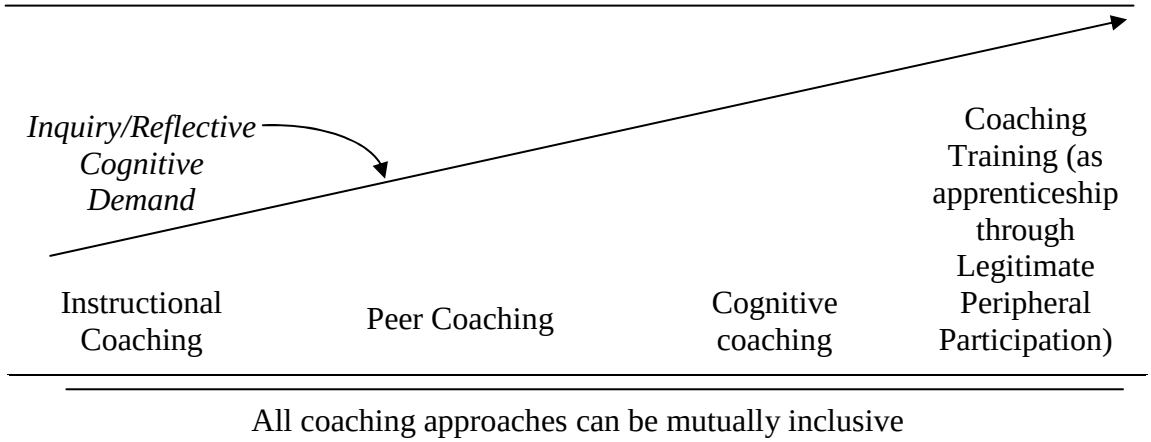


Figure 2.2. Coaching model continuum

Instructional Coaching

First, a snapshot of the details behind the role of an instructional coach. Knight (2007) explains that:

> Instructional coaches find themselves completing many complex and varied tasks: meeting with teachers, modeling in their classrooms, observing, gathering classroom data, building relationships, preparing materials, facilitating learning teams, as well as doing the inescapable chores of every educational professional – attending meetings and doing paperwork. (p. 20)

The focus of an instructional coach is to help teachers improve their instruction. Instructional coaches are often content or model experts. Their job is to help teachers teach a specific subject more effectively. According to Knight, an instructional coach can obtain a focus by considering one of the "Big Four issues – behavior, content knowledge, direct instruction, and formative assessment" (p. 21). Where traditional instructional coaching falls short is in building upon the advantages of situated cognition. Lave and Wenger (1991) explain that:

> Legitimate peripheral participation is not itself an educational form, much less a pedagogical strategy or a teaching technique. It is an analytical viewpoint on learning, a way of understanding learning . . . legitimate peripheral participation takes place no matter which educational form provides a context for learning, or whether there is any intentional educational form at all. (40)

Although this creates counter pressure to my argument for LPP as a valid and necessary formal approach to professional development, Wenger (1998) also suggests that:

> Rethinking schooling from the perspective afforded by legitimate peripheral participation will turn out to be a fruitful exercise. Such an analysis would raise questions about the place of schooling in the community at large in terms of possibilities for developing identities of mastery. (p. 41)

While instructional coaching places an expert at the center of the transmission of knowledge, leaving the teacher to passively receive transmitted knowledge, situated cognition engages all parties in a co-constructed relationship of knowledge transmission and creation. Julien (1997) explains that:

> Situated cognition is characterized by a concern for competence and an insistence that competence cannot be ignored (e.g., Lave, 1985). Competence, understood as the ability to act on the basis of understanding, has been a fundamental goal of education. But it is a painful fact of educational life that knowledge gained in school too often does not

> transfer to the ability to act competently in more "worldly" settings. (p. 261).

I would argue that traditional instructional coaching does not address internal competence that can be easily translated to differential contexts. The social interaction that occurs through instructional coaching is mono-directional; therefore, according to a situated cognitivist, less effective at developing networks of applicable, evolving knowledge. "From the viewpoint of situated cognition, competent action is not grounded in individual accumulations of knowledge but is, instead, generated in the web of social relations and human artifacts that define the context of our action" (Julien, 1997, p. 261).

Peer Coaching

Next on our continuum, and arguably slightly more representative of, and dependent on, social cognitive theories, is peer coaching. Gottesman (2000) explains peer coaching as:

> A simple, non-threatening structure designed for peers to help each other improve instruction or learning situations. The most common use is teacher-to-teacher peers working together on an almost daily basis to solve their own classroom problems . . . teachers can use their years of training from college and on the job to help each other solve classroom problems. (p. 5)

Peer coaching, following a variety of models (Allen & LeBlanc, 2005; Gottesman, 2000; Costa & Garmston, 2002; Joyce & Showers, 1982) works as a dynamic interrelation between two professionals. Peer coaching, "offers meaningful intellectual

and social engagement with ideas around teaching and learning practices" (Southern California Comprehensive Assistance Center, n.d.).

Although more socially dependent than instructional coaching, peer coaching is still typically anchored to a focus on improving instructional practice. To reach farther toward the end of the continuum, I am challenging professional developers to consider how using Legitimate Peripheral Participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991), as a vehicle to establish a greater awareness of localized communities of practice and to help teachers participate fully and constructively in a community which utilizes discourse and reflection to facilitate pedagogical evolution – the ongoing evolution of knowledge, theory, philosophy, and practice as a teacher negotiates new experiences, reflects on previous knowledge and practice, and shifts her pedagogy in relation to the disequilibrium among these factors (Levin, 2003).

Legitimate Peripheral Participation

Legitimate Peripheral Participation (LPP), as defined by Lave and Wenger (1991) suggests that:

> Learning viewed as situated activity has as its central defining characteristics a process that we call legitimate peripheral participation. By this we mean to draw attention to the point that learners inevitably participate in communities of practitioners and that the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to move toward full participation in the socio-cultural practices of a community. 'Legitimate peripheral participation' provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artifacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. A person's intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a socio-cultural practice. (p. 29)

Drawing on theories of situated cognition (Driscoll, 2005; Kirshner & Whitson, 1997) and the major principals of social learning theory (Bandura, 1986; Vygotsky, 1986; Lave & Wenger, 1991), LPP suggests that learning takes place as one travels through a trajectory of learning which is authentic (legitimate), respectfully co-constructed beginning at a place of little or no direct action and moving toward contexts into which one would become an insider, or full participant (peripheral), and that they are active participants in the practice at hand, even if in non-direct ways (participation). It is important to know, however, that, "the concept of LPP obtains its meaning, not in a concise definition of its boundaries, but in its multiple, theoretically generative interconnectedness with persons, activities, knowing, and world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 121). Therefore, when looking at coaching through the lens of legitimate peripheral participation, the distinction that I will make in this context is that coaching through LPP requires that learning take place in context, using an apprenticeship approach (Lave & Wenger, 1991), to help a person navigate from an external relation to certain practices towards a fully embedded, contributing active member with particular practices defined within a community in which members share the same culture – i.e. language, goals, practices, artifacts, etc (Bandura, 1986; Vygotsky, 1986; Lave & Wenger, 1991). This approach relies on cognitive processing, social cognition, and exposed practice through discourse to develop metacognitive skills that are eventually transferred to continuous improvement through inquiry communities. Lave and Wenger (1991) explain that they, "emphasize the significance of shifting the analytical focus from the individual as learner

to learning as participation in the social world, and from the concept of cognitive processes to the more-encompassing view of social practice" (p. 43).

The Reality of It All

From my personal experiences working with teachers as an instructional coach, I often find myself trying to describe our relationship, the relationship of coach and person being coached. I try to emphasize the fact that I am engaged in a co-constructive relationship through which we will both be learning more about teaching and learning. I encourage openness, reflection, critique, and mutual knowledge building. However, it is often hard to cooperatively engage in these processes without the teachers being coached perceiving the relationship, on some level, as a hierarchical transmission of knowledge or judgment. I attribute this to the belief that most teachers have a strongly established schema regarding coaching and this schema runs contrary to my intentions.

Coaching, according to the predominant pool of shared meaning (Patterson, Grenny, McMillan, & Switzler, 2002), involves one individual, the coach, who is going to teach and provide support to the less experienced individual being coached. This perception, in relation to establishing the type of social learning environment encouraged by much of the literature cited in this paper, may hamper the potential possibility of such professional learning relationships. According to Hanks (1991) states that, "learning is a process that takes place in a participation framework, not in an individual mind" (p. 15). Equally, it must be noted that the actual dynamics of learning, within the context of LPP, take place through negotiated experiences. By engaging in discourse and sharing practice,

both the coach and individual being coached evolve each other's knowledge and skill to a level previously unobtainable. Hanks (1991) adds to this statement:

> This means, among other things, that it [learning] is mediated by the differences of perspective among the co-participants. It is the community, or at least those participating in the learning context, who 'learn' under this definition. Learning is, as it were, distributed among co-participants, not a one-person act. While the apprentice might be the one transformed most dramatically by increased participation in a productive process, it is the wider process that is the crucial locus and precondition for this transformation. (p. 15)

An aspect of strength when examining LPP and situated cognition as a method of professional development resides in the fact that it must be contextual. Clancey (1997) explains that, "the theory of situated cognition . . . claims that every human thought is adapted to the environment, that is, *situated*, because what people *perceive*, how they, *conceive of their activity*, and what they *physically do* develop together" (pp. 1-2). Lave and Wenger (1991) explain that:

> There is no activity that is not situated. It implied emphasis on comprehensive understanding involving the whole person rather than "receiving" a body of factual knowledge about the world; on activity in and with the world; and on the view that agent, activity, and the world mutually constitute each other. (p. 33)

An Evolving Road Map

What does this all suggest for an apprenticeship model (Lave & Wenger, 1991) of coaching and what distinguishes my conceptual framework of its use from traditional coaching endeavors? First, I believe that coaching must begin pulling more from the social cognitive perspective that knowledge is co-constructed through engagement with people and the context within which they function and coaches must work intentionally

to make this transparent to all parties involved. I see LPP as helping with this. This is because, “knowledge remains inert and unused if taught in contexts that separate knowing from doing” (Driscoll, 2005, p. 156) and “one must consider the broader context in how culture shapes the mind and provides the toolkit by which individuals construct worlds and their conceptions of themselves and their powers” (Driscoll, p. 226).

While one of the defining features that has given coaching in general a good reputation (Corcoran, 1995) is that it places professional development within the teaching context, provides real time feedback, and actual modeling of practices, it does not commonly address the deeper level of how one negotiates their own improvement through critical constructive reflection and discourse. These issues might be notable within the different coaching processes, but they are not overtly addressed and developed on any level between the coach and teacher. I believe that by building a coaching program with greater attention to issues of LPP and communities of practice that these principles could be more easily and successfully addressed.

Secondly, we can better appreciate the significance of social negotiation of learning through Wertsch’s (1985) description of Vygotsky’s theoretical framework, which included:

> (1) a reliance on a genetic or developmental method; (2) the claim that higher mental processes in the individual have their origin in social processes; and (3) the claim that mental processes can be understood only if we understand the tools and signs that mediate them. (pp. 14-15)

It will take the interrelated negations of LPP to help teachers reach higher mental processes, a goal which I view as being critical if we are to help teachers not only improve their craft, but empower themselves (Freire, 2003) to actually think and discuss

with peers at levels that strip assumptions away and force critical dialogue. Both the coach and teacher will need to symbiotically create and navigate the cultural artifacts that define their involvement in and creation of their community of practice related to pedagogical evolution through collaborative discourse and deconstructive practice – the skill of breaking apart one's practice into reflective segments with the purpose of analyzing for improvement. This co-participation is critical because of reasons clarified above within the literature on LPP and communities of practice which can be summarized best by Lave and Wenger (1991) in the following statement: "The purpose is not to learn *from* talk as a substitute for legitimate peripheral participation; it is to learn *to* talk as a key to legitimate peripheral participation" (p. 109).

With LPP as the avenue through which to build a community of practice, we must next illuminate what practices might be ideal in defining the roles within the type of community of practice I am envisioning, working parallel to and in concert with other current communities built around the practices of cognitive coaches and peer coaches.

Choosing The Words That Change How We Think

Central to the practices that define a community is the language used within that community to communicate ideas, opinions, perspectives, and emotions. Gee (2005) adds to this that the purpose of language is to "1) support the performance of social activities and social identities and 2) to support human affiliation within cultures, social groups, and institutions" (p. 1), thus highlighting the significance of identifying patterns of discourse among communities of learners.

It is argued within this paper that it is this dialogue, critical inquiry-based discourse that we must scaffold and develop in professional development if we are to influence lasting change at a cultural, social level. However, as mentioned previously, the majority of coaching initiatives operate on the premise of improving instructional delivery (Knight, 2007).

We are seeing wonderful results from these efforts (Joyce & Showers, 1987, 1982; Southern California Comprehensive Assistance Center, n.d.) and many schools are moving to professional development models that utilize coaching as the core vehicle for improving teaching. There is growing belief that "the general orientation of the new approach to professional development is more constructivist than transmission-oriented" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001, p. 45). This is exciting news, and the progress made in professional development in relation to increased effective use of instructional coaching has provided us with the fulcrum from which to pry open an entry point to a deeper level of professional learning, professional learning which embraces the development of inquiry based discourse. This will require a different approach to coaching.

What Might It Look Like?

I will continue to describe this deeper level through the lens of a coach, operating within an overtly transparent community of practice, using an apprentice approach (Lave & Wenger, 1991) to help both coaches and teachers negotiate the discourse and metacognition (Flavell, 1979; Hartman, 2001) they use that actually fuels their own knowledge creation, the group flow (Sawyer, 2007) of their collaborative teams, and the

reflection and analysis of instructional practice. After all, “new images of professional development are informed by research about how teachers think about their work” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001, p. 45; see also Clark & Peterson, 1986). While such goals have been argued for some time now, I have found little evidence of any clearly established means of building this level of cognition through professional development and within schools. I believe that coaching might be the ticket.

A self-exposing apprenticeship model which utilizes the verbal expression of metacognition and metatalk to empower teachers in developing stronger collaboration skills (Fishbaugh, 1997), inquiry communities (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001), knowledge-*of*-practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001), and negotiating how they might use these skills to empower themselves to act effectively as change agents within their local communities of practice might be one suggestion for increasing the impact of coaching. These might be considered periphery to the core issue of what and how to actually teach what it is that the students are learning; however, until we can effectively support teachers in developing these periphery, metacognitive skills, they will continue to rely on the expertise of others to improve their own and their peers’ practice. I envision the ultimate goal being to help teachers empower themselves, not rely on coaches, to initiate change within their various communities of practice. Below I will outline three entry points for coaches to engage with teachers in contexts supported by the literature as having a strong impact on both teacher and student learning. By targeting these areas, a coach can co-construct pedagogical reflection and evolution, using discourse to initiate change.

Collaboration

While I will not be providing an in-depth analysis of collaboration, for I feel many authors and researchers have already illuminated the details and necessity of this topic quite thoroughly, I must make it clear that at the heart of my argument for coaching at a deeper level with a conscious awareness of a community of practice, there must reign an integrated, dependent reliance on collaboration. It is collaboration that "brings small sparks together to generate breakthrough innovation" (Sawyer, 2007, p. 102). DuFour and Eaker (2006) explain that, "Collaboration represents a systematic process in which teachers work together interdependently in order to impact their classroom practice in ways that will lead to better results for their students, for their team, and for their school" (retrieved from www.allaboutplc.com on March 8, 2008).

Fishbaugh (1997) shares that "educational collaboration has been termed a catalyst for change . . . they [Idol & West, 1991] define collaboration as an interactive relationship, an adult-to-adult interactive process" (p. 8). Schmoker (2005) emphasizes that "the right image to embrace is of a group of teachers who meet regularly to share, refine, and assess the impact of lessons and strategies continuously to help increasing numbers of students learn at higher levels" (p. xiv). DuFour (2005) explains:

> The powerful collaboration that characterizes professional learning communities is a systematic process in which teachers work together to analyze and improve their classroom practice. Teachers work in teams, engaging in an ongoing cycle of questions that promote deep team learning. This process, in turn, leads to higher levels of student achievement. (p. 36)

All of this collaboration business sounds great, but the sad truth is that, "despite compelling evidence indicating that working collaboratively represents best

practices, teachers in many schools continue to work in isolation" (DuFour, 2005, p. 36).

The good news is that collaboration skills can be taught and learned. There are many models and processes that support the development of collaboration in various settings (Fishbaugh, 1997) and as argued in this paper, helping teachers learn these models and processes should be one of a coach's roles if the goal is to establish norms within a community of practice which yield high results in increased attention to continuous improvement.

Even more specifically, beyond simply collaborating, what might be the consequences in schools if coaches, using Legitimate Peripheral Participation, helped teams of teachers experience group flow (Sawyer, 2007, p. 43), a collaborative experience of seamless interaction and/or performance among a group. Sawyer (2007) explains that:

> Basing my research on Csikszentmihalyi's seminal work, I discovered that, sure enough, improvising groups attain a collective state of mind that I call *group flow*. Group flow is a peak experience, a group performing at its top level of ability. In a study of over three hundred professionals at three companies – a strategy consulting firm, a government agency, and a petrochemical company – Rob Cross and Andrew Parker discovered that the people who participated in group flow were the highest performers. In situations of rapid change, it's more important than ever for a group to be able to merge action and awareness, to adjust immediately by improvising. In group flow, activity becomes spontaneous, and the group acts without thinking about it first. (pp. 43-44)

We can also start small. Borrowing from Idol and West (1991) we have the eight-step process for engaging in collaboration, and Johnson, Pugach, and Devlin's (1990) six steps for creating a more collaborative environment.

However one goes about working with, among, and on collaborative teams, one cannot deny the value and impact that such work should have one teaching and learning. The power of establishing collaborative cultures within schools is illuminated by Burbules and Rice (1991) statement that, “dialogue that leads to understanding, cooperation, and accommodation can sustain differences within a broader compact of toleration and respect” (p. 402). Fishbaugh (1997) believes that, “Collaboration is itself a change process” (p. 16).

Inquiry Community

Even within a collaborative culture, low levels of dialogue can exist. Zeichner and Liston (1996) caution that,

> Not all thinking about teaching constitutes reflective teaching. If a teacher never questions the goals and values that guide his or her work, the context in which he or she teaches, or never examines his or her assumptions, then it is our belief that this individual is not engaged in reflective teaching. (p. 1).

One vein through which to inject varied ways of thinking and knowing into collaboration is through inquiry. Inquiry as “questioning, reasoning, connecting, deliberating, challenging, and developing problem solving techniques” (Lipman, 2003, p. 20) can transform low-level dialogue into collaborative pedagogical evolution.

Stokes (2001) explains how “Schon’s (1983, 1991) notion of the ‘reflective practitioner’ has helped practitioners and researchers alike to imagine teachers not only as consumers of others’ knowledge, but also as creators of knowledge about teaching and learning” (p. 141). Collaboration, integrated with inquiry activities, such as practitioner

research (Zeichner & Noffke, 2001), action research (Sagor, 2005), reflective practice (Schon, 1983) and lesson study (Lewis, 2002; Stewart & Brendefur, 2005), is one concrete way to begin to establish a community of inquiry which creates opportunities for knowledge creation. Zeichner and Noffke (2001) share that:

> participatory research is based on epistemological assumption that knowledge is constructed socially through a process of dialogue and that the issues studied and ways of studying them should flow from those involved and should promote dialogue within the community of researchers. (p. 306)

Little (1999) explains how, "schools . . . speak of embracing a 'culture of inquiry,' but report that giving life and substance to that image proves difficult amid the press of everyday activity" (p. 237). One solution to this dilemma might be to use coaches in ways that support and encourage the allotment of opportunity to engage in inquiry-based activities. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2001) propose that:

> a legitimate and essential purpose of professional development is the development of an inquiry stance on teaching that is critical and transformative, a stance linked not only to high standards for the learning of all students but also to social change and social justice and to the individual and collective professional growth of teachers. (p. 46)

As a coach, one has the choice to either walk a teacher through the steps needed to incorporate research-based instructional practices or a coach can engage in an apprenticeship relationship with a teacher and "enhance their ability to reflect in collaboration with teachers" (Knight, 2007, p. 10) as is a secondary goal in instructional coaching and a primary goal in cognitive coaching (Costa & Garmston, 2002).

The challenge which I expose is, can a coach make his actions transparent and work under the pretense that it is the process of engagement which he most desires to pass on

to his participating teachers? Can a coach be a facilitator that helps teachers consistently develop their own reliance on “reflection-on-action” and “reflection-in-action” (Schon, 1983)?

I believe that by using an apprenticeship model within clearly defined features of localized communities of practice that this goal can be achieved. Costa and Garmston (2002) state that this is a primary goal of cognitive coaching: “The mission of cognitive coaching is to produce self-directed persons with the cognitive capacity for high performance, both independently and as members of a community” (p. 11).

A high cognitive capacity for high performance can be measured through multiple performances. What would this high performance look like if it were exemplified through an inquiry stance? Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2001) describe inquiry as stance as:

> The positions teachers and others who work together in inquiry communities take toward knowledge, its relationships to practice, and the purposes of schooling. We use the metaphor of stance to suggest both orientational and positional ideas, to carry allusions to the physical placing of the body as well as to intellectual activities and perspectives over time. (pp. 49-50)

While “teachers and others have been known to joke that it is far easier to achieve a culture of inquiry at conferences – in the ‘hotel learning community’ – than to cultivate it on home ground (Little, 1999, p. 237), I believe that coaching, facilitated through an apprenticeship of inquiry and reflection, might just provide the support to move teachers more deeply into a community of practice postulated by an inquiry stance. “In communities where inquiry is a stance, not a project or strategy, groups of teachers and student teachers engage in joint construction of knowledge through conversation and other forms of collaborative analysis and interpretation” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, p. 53).

Snow-Gerono (2005) sheds light on the potential need for coaches in supporting inquiry in schools as professional development:

> Educators need space to cultivate an inquiry stance toward teaching and conduct inquiry projects. This space should emphasize the connections to student learning and social change that will impact the profession of education while at the same time valuing what teachers already do as a part of their daily professional practice. (p. 94)

Coaches could potentially create the space that is needed to make this happen.

Knowledge-of-Practice

Using a coach to build strength in collaboration and engage teachers in the practices of inquiry communities boils down to one final goal, building and supporting the skills needed to engage and develop one's knowledge-of-practice. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2001) describe that:

> The knowledge teachers need to teach well is generated when teachers treat their own classrooms and schools as sites for intentional investigation at the same time that they treat the knowledge and theory produced by others as generative material for interrogation and interpretation. (p. 48)

Tightly interwoven with inquiry, knowledge-of-practice can be understood as a pedagogical act (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001). Knowledge-of-practice requires that teachers work "within the contexts of inquiry communities to theorize and construct their work and to connect it to larger social, cultural, and political issues" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, p. 48). Price (2001) makes a significantly interesting parallel point to this:

> The goal of reflection and inquiry, in part, is intended to help teacher candidates develop their 'habits of mind', through looking retrospectively on the teaching that has occurred, reconstructing, re-enacting, and recapturing events, and critically analyzing their students' and their own actions . . . this involves, for example, using knowledge to understand

> oneself, the complexity, uncertainty, and risky nature of teaching, the political and social dimensions of teaching and learning processes, and the consequences for children. (pp. 48-49)

By building contexts of support through Legitimate Peripheral Participation, teachers might become better equipped to engage in such multi-layered practices.

Developing knowledge-of practice is critical and transformative when considering teacher practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001). Greene (2001) suggests that:

> A mixed method approach intentionally incorporates the lenses of more than one inquiry framework – through the collection of different kinds of information, the combined use of different kinds of methods, the maintenance of different philosophical assumptions about social phenomena and our ability to know them, and the inclusion of diverse values and interests. (p. 251)

While Greene (2001) is referring specifically to mixed social inquiry methodologies, I believe that developing knowledge-of-practice requires that a community of practice defines itself through an inquiry stance and cognitively engages multiple sources of knowledge into its pedagogical evolution. Developing this knowledge requires that teachers are adept at "framing" and "reframing" problems (Schon, 1983). These are the overriding goals of teachers as they work through three stages – appreciation, action, and reappreciation – necessary to learn from their practice (Schon, 1983).

The implications of such practice are significant for professional development. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2001) explain:

> When professional development is defined as teachers working together to construct knowledge-of-practice, both knowledge generation and knowledge use are regarded as inherently problematic. That is, basic questions about knowledge and teaching – what it means to generate knowledge, who generates it, what counts as knowledge and to whom, and

> how knowledge is used and evaluated in particular contexts – are always open to question. From this perspective, knowledge making is understood as a pedagogic act – constructed in the context of use, intimately connected to the knower, and although relevant to immediate situations, also inevitably a process of theorizing. (p. 48)

Working collaboratively with teachers to engage in the development of knowledge-of-practice would require coaches to clearly define their relationship with the teachers whom they are working with. Mutual purpose and respect would be critical and the results could be significant. I believe this work is taking place currently on multiple levels of intensity. It would be interesting, and carry significant implications, to attempt to unveil some of the details of functionality and consequences of such work in specific settings.

If It Should Be So, Why Not? Constraints On Discourse

It is typically fairly simple to talk about the ideal, to envision a reality that embraces the best of all worlds. Yet, we must acknowledge that no ideal is ever achieved without carefully navigating a maze of constraints. In order to establish and support communities of practice which embrace collaborative discourse rich in inquiry, reflection, and teachers' use of knowledge-of-practice, school constructs and teacher needs must be evaluated.

Basic Obstacles To Sustaining Deep Levels Of Discourse In Schools

Basic conditions within schools that must be evaluated to facilitate more dynamic collaborative opportunities can be seen at the doors of American schools, and every

classroom has its own door. Teachers have become accustomed to working in isolation. This custom has created a comfort level with collaboration that is, in many cases, questionable at best. Teachers feel as though they are more efficient when working independently and that, amid the constraints of schedules and clerical responsibilities, reserving time for anything beyond lesson planning and preparation is close to impossible. This pressure regarding time within the work day has also created a perception of immediacy; the idea and feeling that any work engaged in during the work day must lead directly and quickly to a concrete tangible outcome. This can work against the pulse of reflection and inquiry, which require a certain level of patience and a tolerance for the suspension of disbelief.

Traditional schedules which determine the rhythm of a teacher's work day present their own constraints on teacher collaboration. There is little common time within a teacher's workday for colleagues to meet and discuss the deeper underpinnings of practice. Common preparatory schedules are being arranged in some schools and districts; early-release days are being used at other sites; and shortening work weeks is another method that schools and districts are using to provide teachers with time to collaborate. Without these adjustments made and teachers' collaborative time being respected, it can be extremely difficult for teachers to create collaborative opportunities, much less invest the potentially opaque energy of inquiry and reflective discourse into these opportunities. Inquiry and reflective discourse is often considered less direct and tangible than discourse focused on concrete examples pulled from our most recent experiences and easy-to-access solutions based on personal observation and prepackaged

curricula; therefore, when teachers do get the opportunity to collaborate, they rely on these lower-level frames of reference as opposed to diving into reflection and inquiry.

Talbot and McLaughlin (2002) make a comparison of the features in schools where collaborative communities are weak and schools in which the community supports what they term “artisan” communities, communities which support innovation and teacher development through the refinement of practice. Talbot and McLaughlin (2002) describe the nature of these communities:

> The notion of `learning community’ that we often use in referring to such communities highlights teachers’ collaboration to develop new knowledge of practice and support each other’s professional growth. This meaning captures the spirit and dynamic of Huberman’s notion of artisanship in teaching, as a context-sensitive accumulation of a requisite knowledge base and skill repertoire. However, in these communities, the craft of teaching is shared rather individualistic and idiosyncratic. Instead of quelling individual invention and craft in the classroom, teacher collaboration in these artisan communities promotes and nurtures creativity as the source of their ongoing collective learning and capacity to respond effectively to the needs of contemporary students. Teachers in artisan communities give up whatever meaning privacy holds for their sense of professionalism; in return, they experience rewards of success with contemporary students that too often escape teachers in weak or traditional high school communities. (p. 334)

As inviting as this description of an “artisan” community might sound to an advocate of inquiry-based discourse and teachers’ engagement with knowledge-of-practice, Talbot and McLaughlin (2002) outline the barriers to such practice that exist in more common, traditional school communities (see Figure 2.3).

Dimensions of Teaching Work	Solo artisan in weak and traditional communities	Artisan (innovative) Community
Colleague relations	Aloof from instruction; coordination around curriculum	Collaboration around instruction
Basis for course assignments	Seniority; tracking by credentials	Rotation and mentoring relations
Instructional Practice	Private craft, idiosyncratic knowledge	Common craft; shared knowledge, inquiry, innovation
Professional rewards	Intrinsic rewards; prerogatives of seniority and professional status	Intrinsic rewards; collective progress; professional growth
Professional identity and commitment	Independent artisan; commitment contingent on individual resources and success	Artisan community participant; commitment to craft and community

Figure 2.3. Dimensions of teaching work in traditional teaching communities versus Artisan Communities (Adapted from Talbot & McLaughlin, 2002)

As this table suggests, changing school communities requires change on many levels. There are complex, deeply embedded aspects of schools and school cultures that must be taken into account when proposing and advocating for practices which might not be currently apparent in schools and the education profession at large. Fullan (2001) reminds us that:

> Understanding why most attempts at educational reform fail goes far beyond the identification of specific technical problems such as lack of good materials, ineffective professional development, or minimal administrative support. In more fundamental terms, educational change fails partly because of the assumptions of planners, and partly because solving substantial problems is an inherently complex business. (p. 96)

It is not a simple expectation to see more inquiry and reflection in teacher discourse (assuming that this is a need which would produce improvements in students learning and achievement). There are many organizational challenges and personal obstacles that must be overcome to see teachers and professional developers working collaboratively in a community of practice committed to a dependence on the evolution of knowledge-of-practice which reflects an inquiry-stance characterized amid inquiry-based collaborative relationships. Lieberman and Miller (2008c) explain that:

> Challenges are endemic to any ambitious social enterprise, and professional learning communities are no exception. Chief among the challenges is navigating the fault line between membership in a learning community, with its collectively developed norms, values, and ways of doing business, and membership in schools and districts that often have very different ways of operating. Community members need to help each other develop strategies for straddling both worlds. (p. 38)

Time, school organization, the privatization of practice, and a sense that curriculum and standards have replaced the need to reflect on practice with a greater need to manage

curriculum maps and assessment schedules are all factors challenging inquiry-based discourse among practitioners. These challenges inspire me to question - what is it that we value most in teachers, teaching, and learning and are we willing to do the hard work needed to lessen the presence of these obstacles?

Summary

At a time when the chorus of social, political, fiscal, and moral agendas for the education of tomorrow's future must harmonize, it is critical that we scrutinize the investments we make in teacher learning. Buoyed by Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos' (2009) study, we should agree on a few key elements:

> Professional learning can have a powerful effect on teacher skills and knowledge and on student learning if it is sustained over time, focused on important content, and embedded in the work of professional learning communities that support ongoing improvements in teachers' practice. When well-designed, these opportunities help teachers master content, hone teaching skills, evaluate their own and their students' performance, and address changes needed in teaching and learning in their school. (p. 7)

There is work to be completed here, rocks to uncover, and skills to define. The literature on professional learning illuminates a problem-solution relationship. Problem – there are few formal process which are accessible to teachers that might provide support in developing and utilizing collaboration, an inquiry stance, and knowledge-of-practice; three areas which hold potential to help teachers transform their craft through critical, self-motivated, discourse-dependent pedagogical evolution.

The coaching model I have suggested to facilitate this evolution would be structured through legitimate peripheral participation, utilizing an overt examination of

existing communities of practice. In summary, this approach would make apparent the cognitive processes such as inquiry, reflection, and a reliance of knowledge-of-practice that are involved in a coaching relationship and within a community of practice which reflects these practices.

Working among teachers, within communities of practice, coaches would facilitate the development of collaboration and inquiry skills, helping participating teachers become insiders within a community that valued and respected these practices and could work as an insider to invite other teachers into this community. Might this approach influence the discourse that teachers use to plan and evaluate instruction? This approach would be intended to augment and parallel current coaching relationships, emphasizing such important introspective skills as reflection, inquiry, and how to engage in transformative discourse.

According to Guskey (2003), there is a great demand for research on professional development:

> Do we know what makes professional development effective? Have researchers and practitioners reached consensus about what factors contribute to a successful professional development experience? Do we even agree on what criteria should be used to judge professional development's effectiveness? A review of newly developed lists of the characteristics of effective professional development indicates that the answer to each of these questions is "Maybe not." (p. 748)

By focusing professional development on such issues as inquiry stance and collaboration we are focusing on the very core of what it means to be a teacher (Aoki, 1992). We do not need to leave the classroom to become a better practitioner; we do not need to rely only on external research and expertise to engage in effective, efficient,

continuous improvement. I would argue that pedagogical evolution will come most naturally and powerfully to teachers if explored inter- and intrapersonally and within a context of relevance.

Let us strip ourselves of the regalia and dogma of traditional professional development, and preconceived routines of what professional learning should be. Let us stand confident before our peers and work collaboratively through continuous improvement to evolve in mind, craft, and discourse. In doing so, we might stop, or at least slow, the pendulum perspective of professional development as we make steady, self-empowered movement forward, away from habit and toward catalytic epistemology.

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this reseach is to determine in what ways, if any, does teacher collaborative discourse differ considering various levels of professional development teachers have received. Considering anectdotal evidence gathered from expereince working in schools and at trainings with teachers and considering the literature-base upon which this study is supported, the major hypothesis is that teachers who have received training in how to provide inquiry-based feedback will engage in collaborative conversations with their peers differently than teachers who have not received similar training.

This research study has been designed as a qualitative study and all attempts have been made to practice sound methodology based on current standards of qualitative practice (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Glesne, 1999) and the theoretical underpinnings of discourse analysis (Gee, 2005; Kreckel, 1981; Phillips & Hardy, 2002).

Sampling

Pulling from over 30 elementary schools, 8 junior high schools, and 4 high schools, approximately 1,500 teachers in the Smith's Point School District (all names are pseudonyms) were sent an email survey to which they were asked to respond to questions regarding their participation in six levels of professional development that the district offers (see Appendix A).

Smith's Point School District has a tiered professional development model used to develop teachers' knowledge and use of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP®). Studying this professional development model provided the required lens through which to conduct this study. Considering this, SIOP® was chosen as the instructional model for this study because of the associated levels of training that Smith's Point School District had created to accompany it. This professional development structure is what this study focuses on, not the SIOP® itself.

The initial survey sent to teachers required yes or no answers to six questions (see Appendix B). The survey also included a question regarding whether respondents would be willing to participate in a focus group to gather data for this study.

As Smith's Point School District faculty replied to this email, a master list of potential participants was generated from their email survey responses and organized into five unique categories. One group was identified as having received no SIOP® training and willing to participate in a focus group, another group had received SIOP® Phases I – III training and was willing to participate, the third group responded that they had received SIOP® Phases I-III, V, and were willing to participate in a focus group, the fourth group responded as receiving all of the above plus they had been coached themselves and were interested in participating in a focus group, and the last group was for those teachers that, regardless of training, declined to participate in the study.

A follow-up email was sent to all participants who agreed to participate in the focus group activities (see Appendix C). This email contained specific dates when the focus group would be meeting and requested a reply confirming availability. At this

point, either all potential participants who responded to the follow-up email were included in their respective focus group or, as was only the case with the control group which contained 11 potential participants, 5 names were randomly selected to participate.

Participants

Fifteen teachers participated in this study, representing both elementary and secondary classroom teachers and a counselor working in both Title I and non-Title I schools ranging in size from approximately 300 – 1,500 students. While participants were selected randomly, all participants were female and represented anywhere from three to thirty years of teaching experience. These participants were organized into four focus groups depending on the type of professional development they had received from their district.

Focus Group 1 consisted of 6 initial participants who had received no formal training in the SIOP® model and included secondary math and science teachers both at junior high schools serving approximately 800 students, one alternative high school math teacher, an elementary school counselor, and a fourth grade teacher at a small school serving approximately 280 students. Due to scheduling conflicts, two of these participants were unable to attend the second focus group meeting; therefore, data from Focus Group 1 represents a 34% downsizing of participants between Meeting A and Meeting B.

Focus Group 2 initially included three teachers; however, one participant was unable to attend either focus group meeting. Focus Group 2 included one sixth grade

teacher at a school receiving no Title I or Title III funding with approximately 600 students and one third grade teacher who was teaching at a newly built elementary school receiving both Title I and Title III funding servicing approximately 500 students. Both of these teachers had participated only in the traditional SIOP® workshops that the district offers, Phases I - III.

Focus Group 3 represented those teachers who had participated in both traditional SIOP® workshops and training in how to be a peer coach, Phases I - IV. This group included three teachers in total. One of these teachers was teaching secondary English at a high school with approximately 1,500 students, one was an ELL teacher in a mid-sized school serving approximately 500 students and receiving both Title I and Title III funding, and the third teacher was teaching first grade in a new school receiving Title I and Title III funding with an enrollment of approximately 500 students.

Focus Group 4 included three teachers. These teachers had all participated in the traditional SIOP® workshops, training in how to be a peer coach, and they had received peer coaching from a trained district coach. This includes SIOP® Phases I – V. One of these teachers was teaching first grade at a relatively small (300 students), highly affluent elementary school, one teacher taught first grade at a mid-sized (400 students) elementary school receiving both Title I and Title III funding, and the third teacher taught sixth grade at a school with similar demographics.

Group Description	Professional Development Received
Focus Group 1	
Six (four) randomly selected participants drawn from a pre-filtered population. (control)	No formal Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol training
Focus Group 2	
Two randomly selected participants drawn from a pre-filtered population. (treatment[1])	Received Phase I-III SIOP® training in the Smith's Point School District
Focus Group 3	
Three randomly selected participants drawn from a pre-filtered population. (treatment[2])	Received Phase I-III + V SIOP® training in the Smith's Point School District
Focus Group 4	
3 randomly selected participants drawn from a pre-filtered population. (treatment[3])	Received Phase I-III + V SIOP® training in the Smith's Point School District and have been coached for at least four sessions.

Figure 3.1. Descriptions of focus groups

Situation

All study participants had been teaching in the Smith's Point School District for at least three years. The Smith's Point School District is a medium sized metropolitan district reporting 24,800 students for the 2007 – 2008 school year. The district had been experiencing a steady increase in their English Language Learner (ELL) population. As stated on the district's website,

> The Smith's Point School District's English Language Learner program serves K-12 students through a variety of programs. Over 2,200 students speaking approximately 100 languages attend our schools. These students add rich diversity and new perspectives to classrooms. Elementary programs are located at 11 magnet sites where certified ELL teachers and assistants provide integrated language and content instruction. Secondary students receive support through the Language Academy, ELL Study Skills, in-class support, and sheltered content classes.

The Smith's Point School District had been offering SIOP training to teachers for approximately five years through the district's professional development course offerings. These courses had been taught by Federal Programs Consulting Teachers and classroom teachers. Participation in these trainings had always been either voluntary or recommended by administrators. Approximately 1,000 teachers had participated in some level of training between 2003 and 2008.

The English Language Learner department states that their mission is, "to educate each linguistically and culturally diverse student with the academic and social skills needed to succeed based on high standards for English literacy in listening, speaking, reading, and writing". The district's position suggests that providing teachers with training in how to use the SIOP® model should help them achieve this mission successfully.

At the same time, District Administrators believe this training alone will not actualize high levels of implementation of the SIOP® model. While continuing with traditional training, the district simultaneously developed a coaching model which would support teachers in implementation of the SIOP® and effective teaching strategies. The Smith's Point School District used SIOP® as their instructional model in the context of coaching and foresees expanding this in the future to encompass a variety of resources available to school-based coaches (Knight, 2007; Sherris, Bauder, & Hillyard, 2007). The findings from this study could partially inform future development of this program and others as well as broader professional development policy.

Smith's Point School District's SIOP Professional Development Model

The Smith's Point School District provides five varying levels of SIOP® training. SIOP®, as described on Pearson's SIOP® website, has been:

> developed to provide teachers with a well articulated, practical model of sheltered instruction. The intent of the model is to facilitate high quality instruction for English Learners (ELs) in content teaching. The SIOP Model is based on current knowledge and research-based practices for promoting learning with all students, especially English Learners. Critical features of high quality instruction for ELs are embedded within the SIOP Model. (retrieved from http://www.siopinstitute.net/about.html on November 9, 2008).

The district's training, consisting of SIOP® Phases I-V, is being recognized across the state as a successful model of professional development. Phases I-III are traditional workshops each lasting seven hours during one day which provide an introduction to sheltered instruction and the SIOP®. Phase IV is a 15 hour, two-day open format

workshop in which participants collaborate, plan lessons, and consult with peers, resources, and the facilitator regarding use of the SIOP® in their teaching. Phase V is a 15 hour workshop meeting four times throughout the school year which focuses on how to act as a peer coach. The sixth type of support the Smith's Point School District provides is what they refer to as calibration. Calibration involves a coach working with a teacher at least four times through a cycle of pre-conference, lesson observation, and post-conference.

Treatment: Smith's Point School District SIOP Professional Development Effects on Discourse

While there are surely many effects of these various trainings, workshops, and support, based on the literature giving a voice to the importance of collaboration (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009) this study attempted to identify patterns of discourse that might be representative of teachers who had received different levels of training and support between 2003 and 2008. While reflecting on the effects of these professional development offerings, the following questions began to form around teacher discourse:

- In what ways, if any, does teacher collaborative discourse differ considering various levels of professional development teachers have received?
    - In what ways might these diferent levels of discourse represent inquiry?
    - In what ways might these diferent levels of discourse represent reflection?

- In what ways might these different levels of discourse represent teachers developing and using knowledge-of-practice?

The collabortive discourse of teachers who have participated in various types of training in the Smith's Point School District were coded on two tiers. First, codes were created to identify Statement Types, identified initially by three types of sentences – declarative, imperative, interrogative, and specific variations of these. Secondly, tier two codes identified DiscourseTypes based on Brendefur and Frykholm's (2000) definitions of four types of discourse – unidirectional, contributive, reflective, and instructive.

Unidirectional discourse can be described as dicourse in which "teachers tend to dominate discussions by lecturing, asking closed questions, and allowing few opportunities for students [or colleagues] to communicate their strategies, ideas, and thinking" (Brendefur & Frykholm, p. 4). Brendefur and Frykholm describe the second type of discourse, contributive, as being "limited to assistance or sharing, with little or no thought" (p. 5). Contributive discourse is typically corrective in nature or consists of contributions regarding the *possibility* of experimental effort. Reflective discourse can be identified as teachers begin sharing examples of enacted experimental effort. Their discourse invovles sharing, similar to contributive discourse; however, these conversations act as a "springboard for deeper investigation and exploration" (Brendefur & Frykholm, p. 5). Cobb, Boufi, McClain, and Whitenack (1997) state that communication becomes reflective when learners "objectify their prior activity as they participated in the discourse" (p. 264). Instructive discourse leads to the modification of thinking. It is possible that this type of discourse may parrallel the use of knowledge-of-

practice most closely. At the instructive level, “conversations reveal insights about students’ thinking that ultimately impact teachers’ decisions about future instruction” (Brendefur & Frykholm, p. 6). Brendefur and Frykholm continue to describe that when engaged in instructional discourse, “teachers not only begin to understand the thought processes, strengths, and limitations of particular students, they also begin to shape subsesquent instruction” (p. 6).

While there are many desired effects of the various levels of professional developent that the Smith’s Point School District offers, including increased knowledge of an instructional model, collection of new strategies, awareness of existing resource materials, and more, this study identified what effect the various levels of professional development had on teacher discourse. This question may not be answered with definitive correlation; however, by using qualitative measures, I was able to identify patterns of discourse among groups of teachers sharing similar professional development experiences.

Instrument

Data were collected on two levels – Tier 1: *Statement Types* and Tier 2: *Discourse Types*. Two coding forms were created based on research findings and collaborative agreement of the research committee.

Tier 1 Data: Statement Types

The first coding form used to analyze Tier 1 data initially consisted of 8 codes originating from three types of sentences – Declarative, Interrogative, and Imperative.

More specific tags were created for each type of sentence which helped to define the type of sentence in greater detail. After initial coding began, an additional five codes were added – *Strategy Critical, Strategy Share, Strategy Reflective, Strategy Planning, and Judgement Statement* – as it was noted that these codes were uniquely prevelant in the data and relevant to the findings. The final Tier 1 coding from consisted of 13 different statement types (see Figure 3.2.).

Code	Description
IR	**Interrogative** (for **reference** or clarification) *Example: Did you notice if she . . . ?*
IK	**Interrogative** (for low level **knowledge** acquisition) *Example: How many times do you do that?*
IIO	**Interrogative** (rhetorical, high-level, **inquiry**-based, focused on **other**) *Example: What might happen if you tried that strategy at the beginning?*
IIS	**Interrogative** (rhetorical, high-level, **inquiry**-based, focused on **self**) *Example: I wonder how I might use that at the beginning.*
DS	**Declarative** (as a reference to **self**) *Example: I once tried that and it worked well.*
DO	**Declarative** (referencing **other** peer) *Example: I like how you used that strategy; She did call on all students.*
DIM	**Declarative** (referencing **instructional model** –SIOP) *Example: That was a good example of the Strategies component.*

IMP **Imperative** (sharing something as fact, as a command)

Example: You will have to get your students engaged.

SC **Strategy Critical (**a **critical** statement about a teaching **strategy**)

Example: Putting a poster up doesn't mean your students will look at it.

SS **Strategy Share** (**sharing** of a **strategy** with the group)

Example: I make flash cards and then we sort them after some practice.

SR **Strategy Reflective** (**reflecting** on a **strategy**)

Example: I wonder if you took that graphic organizer and used it again with a different group of students would the outcome be the same?

SP **Strategy Planning** (speaking in detail about how to **plan** for a **strategy**)

Example: What if you first made the graphic organize. You would need some large paper, but after this you could pass out the question and then have the students write their thoughts at the top of the graphic organizer before getting too far into it.

JS **Judgment Statement** (sharing an **opinion of value** regarding something observed or said by a peer)

Example: What she did with that manipulate was really good.

Figure 3.2. Codes and Code Descriptions for Tier 1 Data: Statement Types

After coding the data, transcripts were shared with and coded by two colleagues on the research committee. Initially, interrator reliability was established at 84%. However, after collaboratively reviewing the 16% disagreement, it was noted that there were some basic differences of interpretation among the codes. After clarification of codes, coding procedures were revised and 94% interrator reliability was achieved for Tier 1 data. The remaining six percent variation appears to be the result of varying interpretations of codes and teacher statements.

Tier 2 Data: Discourse Types

Tier 2: *Discourse Types* coding (see figure 3.3) was generated using the four levels of teacher discourse – unidirectional, contributive, reflective, and instructive described above (Brendefur & Frykholm, 2000). This instrument was checked for reliability using researcher agreement. The coding form was collaboratively shared, edited, and refined with the aid and expertise of Brendefur and cross-checked by another colleague.

Code	Description
U	Teachers tend to dominate discussions by lecturing, asking closed questions, and allowing few opportunities for others to communicate their strategies, ideas, and thinking. Can be thought of as, "How long does that take?" "I do that." "I never have time but it seems to work well."
C	Teachers focus on assistance or sharing, with little or no deep thought. Typically corrective in nature. Can be thought of as, "Have you tried _____. It always works for me." Teacher replies, "I could try that."
R	Teachers share their ideas, strategies, and solutions with peers. The teachers use the conversation with each other as a springboard for deeper investigation and exploration in which repeated shifts occur between action and discussion. Could be thought of as, "I tried that once and . . ." or " What if you tried . . ."
I	Teachers' conversations reveal insights about each other's thinking that ultimately impacts decisions about future instruction. Teachers not only begin to understand thought processes, strengths, and limitations of each others' knowledge but discuss shifts in instructional practice. The act of modification is central to instructive communication. Could be thought of as, "I tried that once, but maybe if I changed this_____ it would have a different effect. What do you think?"

Figure 3.3. Codes and Code Descriptions for Tier 2 Data: Discourse Types

Initial interrator reliability for Tier 2: Discourse Type data was 77%. This was largely due to the fact that Tier 2 data reflects broad patterns in a conversation allowing for variability in establishing beginning and end points of certain types of discourse. After collaborating with one of the reviewers, inconsistencies were evaluated and coding methods were adjusted to increase the interrator reliability to 88%

Data Collection

Focus groups were facilitated in the late fall of 2008. As described previously, there were a total of four focus groups, each consisting of between two and six participants who had received varying levels of SIOP® training and support. Each focus group met on different days and partcipated in identical activities. Careful attention was given to ensure that all groups received the same instructions and support from the facilitator.

All Focus Groups met independently for two separate meetings (Meeting A and Meeting B). This was done so that data could be collected on two levels – discourse regarding instruction of an unknown model teacher versus discourse regarding the instruction of a peer. These two levels could provide valuable information for professional developers.

First, at Meeting A, in each focus group, participants collaboratively viewed a six minute video (Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners Companion DVD, copyright 2008 by Allyn & Bacon) of an unknown model teacher introducing a science lesson to a class of English Language Learners. After viewing this

video, participants collaboratively discussed the lesson observed and had the option to SIOP® lesson evaluation tool (see Appendix D) to rate the teacher's use of SIOP®. The only instruction given to the focus groups before this task was to view the video and then talk about the instruction that they observed – to share things they liked, suggestions they might have for the teacher, or anything else that comes to mind. These teachers' discussions were video recorded to faciliate the transcription of participants' conversations.

After collaboratively viewing and discussing the video of an unknown model teacher, one participant from each focus group agreed to teach a lesson to her students and video record the lesson. The groups collaboratively planned the general idea and strategies for this lesson. Members of the focus group chose the lesson they would like to plan. Each group spent between 15 and 40 minutes planning what could be taught by their peer. These interactions ranged from detailed planning to casual sharing of ideas. Either way, participants left with a clear idea of what to teach and they took simple video recording equipment with them to use for recording their instruction.

Approximately one week later, each focus group met for their second meeting – Meeting B. At this meeting, the focus groups viewed the video of their peer teaching the lesson that they collaboratively planned during Meeting A.

After viewing this video, participants again collaboratively discussed the lesson observed and had the option of using the SIOP® lesson evaluation tool to guide their discussion of the teacher's use of SIOP®. This discussion was also video recorded to faciliate the transcription of participants' conversations.

The major difference between Meeting A and Meeting B is that in meeting A the participants were discussing an unknown model teacher where in meeting B they were discussing a peer. This is a critical note to be aware of when considering the results of this study because of the delicate nature of analyzing and criticising a stranger versus a peer. This data proved valuable in relfecting on the effectiveness professional development and profesional development policy.

Meeting A	**Meeting B** ***(one week after Meeting 1)***
Watch video of an unknown model teacher introducing a lesson. Collaboratively discuss instruction observed. Collaboratively plan a lesson of choice (one teacher will need to volunteer to teach this lesson. This lesson will be video recorded and shared with group in Meeting B)	Participants will watch video recording of a peer teaching the lesson planned collaboratively at Meeting A. Participants will collaboratively discuss instruction observed.
<u>Unique Features:</u> Participants are discussing the instruction of an **unknown teacher** with whom they have no relationship	**<u>Unique Features:</u>** Participants are discussing the instruction of a **peer** with whom they have collaboratively planned a lesson.

Figure 3.4. Focus group activity descriptions

Data Analysis

Capturing patterns and trends within teacher discourse provides an opportunity of inquiry and reflection in order to gain insight into professional development practices and the impact of these practices on the ways teachers talk about teaching and learning.

Features of "teacher talk" that were analyzed, including *Statement Types* and *Discourse Types*, were organized into coding tools which helped illuminate how teachers co-construct dialogue (see Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3).

This study utilized these coding tools through qualitative methodology (Glesne, 1999; Miles & Huberman, 1994) to capture evidence of the ways teacher discourse might vary depending on the type of professional development they had received and whether they were discussing an unknown teacher or a peer.

All focus group conversations were video recorded. While focus groups were meeting, the primary researcher recorded field notes (Glesne, 1999) to capture social and procedural details within each group's collaborative meetings. These notes helped reveal aspects of collaboration that the narrative of teacher discourse could not, such as use of the protocol to aid in discourse, behaviors of teachers while viewing the video of the unknown model teacher and participants' peer's instruction. This information was used to triangulate findings revealed in coding procedures, thereby aiding in the justification of any implications that resulted from the study. All video recordings were transcribed by the primary researcher. After completing the transcriptions, the coding forms were used to code the transcripts. The focus group's transcripts were coded in random order in an effort to eliminate any researcher bias (Glesne, 1999) in the coding process.

Tier 1 coding was completed first for all groups. Tier 1 codes were assigned to every "Change in Speaker" (CIS) as opposed to individual sentences, thus capturing the essence of a teachers' statement. There were two exceptions to this rule. First, if there was a distinct difference within the statement a teacher was making, individual sentences were assigned a code. Secondly, if a teacher sustained an elaborated statement (more than three sentences) this was coded multiple times unless there was unarguably no change in the type of statement the speaker was making. Each Tier 1 code was then tallied and matrix data patterns (Glesne, 1999), frequency distributions (Glesne, 1999), and cross-case displays (Miles & Huberman, 1994) were created. Viewing the data in multiple formats allowed for more clarity in identifying relationships and trends in the data.

Declarative Self and *Declarative Other* codes were combined and totaled by measuring the difference between the total of all other and the total number of CIS. This is not to suggest that these codes are not critical in the data analysis as they comprised the majority of conversation among the focus groups, yet these codes do not, in themselves, demonstrate any types of statements or discourse that lead to reflection, inquiry, or collaborative knowledge-of-practice co-construction. More on the implications of this will be discussed in Chapter Five of this study.

Once completing Tier 1 data analysis, Tier 2 codes were assigned to the data. Tier 2 codes were assigned to "Discourse Patterns." Kreckel (1981) describes discourse as "language above the sentence level; situated language in use" (p. 7).

A discourse pattern consisted of multiple interactions between participants. They were identified as units of conversation, transmitted between more than one individual,

which consistently exhibited common discourse features. In identifying Discourse Types, the code would remain consistent until a distinct change in the discourse type was discernable. Analysis involved coding each unit as a sequence of uniform dialogue. Tallies were taken of these codes and then a total number of instances of each type of discourse within a group's meeting was calculated.

Once coding was complete, each code for every focus group, independently for Meeting A and Meeting B, was assigned a number of CIS. Comparative analysis was completed by transferring the tally totals into percentages and then ordering these into comparative column graphs. This allowed for visual representation of any trends or patterns within the data for each Discourse Type among the groups.

A time-ordered meta-matrix (Miles & Huberman, 1994), referred to herein as a Discourse Map, was also created for displaying data "organized sequentially by time period" (Miles & Huberman, p. 200). These maps were created by counting the number of CIS that represented each Discourse Type and tracking these through a group's conversation. These tallies were then converted to percentages and, while maintaining their time-ordered sequence, these percentages were transferred into the discourse maps. It is important to note that the discourse maps do not represent set or equal time periods between each group, but do show frequency, duration in percentage, and patterns of discourse types over a period of time. For example, if a group began by having four CISs in which all discourse was Unidirectional, then their Discourse Map would begin with Unidirectional for a count of four CISs represented as a percentage of the total meeting. The discourse maps began as simple frequency distributions and later data were

transferred into doughnut graphs. These doughnut graphs facilitate a visual representation of the data as a pattern of discourse over time.

Read as a clock, each Discourse Map represents the duration of a focus group's meeting, which, again, may vary anywhere from 20 – 40 minutes; therefore, although the Discourse Maps are all the same size, they do not represent equivalent time periods. The beginning of each group's meeting is represented at the twelve-o-clock position on the doughnut graph. From this point on the map, the frequency count of each type of discourse is represented in the order in which the type of discourse was used by the group.

Triangulation of Tier 1 data, Tier 2 data, and researcher field notes helped establish reliability within the analysis of the data. Field notes were reviewed and expanded (Glesne, 1999) as the data was reviewed and analyzed. Careful attention was dedicated to thoroughness in data analysis and all procedures were calibrated with colleagues along with all codes being member checked (Glesne, 1999). However, this study does have certain limitations.

Limitations and Confounding Variables

First, discourse analysis, even through the simplistic methodology used in this study, presents challenges in the reliability of coding. After revising coding procedures, a four percent error rate existed for Tier 1 data and a 12% error rate existed for Tier 2 data. The reliability of this coding would be dependent on clarification of the codes and

researcher agreement which may depend somewhat on perspective, pedagogy, or other variables.

The study itself called to teachers who do not mind working collaboratively with peers. Participants for this study were volunteers. Often, those who volunteer to participate in studies are more open to change and potentially more curious in the activity proposed than people who do not volunteer for such activities. Therefore, the findings from this study can only truly represent a population of teachers who might possibly match the sample's level of curiosity and interest. However, at the same time, this does not affect the findings of this study as the sample was constant and therefore the relationships among the data are equivalent.

It should also be noted that both Focus Group 1 and 2 experienced unexpected shifts in the number of participants. Focus Group 1 had six participants in meeting A and then lost two participants for their meeting B. Focus Group 2 had been organized with the expectation of three participants; however, one teacher could make attend the meetings so this group only had two participants for both meeting A and B. As is evident in the findings, this may have had a significant effect on the results – both helpful and confounding. This will be discussed more in the implications.

Being that participants in Focus Groups 3 and 4 had all voluntarily participated in training that included some component of coaching, these participants might have been innately more interested in coaching conversations. These conversations, based on the content of the Smith's Point School District's training, should be representative of reflection and inquiry. This presents a limitation in that the increased instances of

reflection and inquiry among these groups may not be the result of the professional development activities they had participated in but their natural communicative tendencies.

It should also be noted that different analysis methods could possibly illuminate different trends among the data. One such variation of this study's design would entail the facilitation of at least eight focus groups and having four of the groups view and discuss the instruction of an unknown model teacher for both Meeting A and Meeting B while the other four groups observed and discussed a peer's instruction. This would eliminate the confounding variable of group's comfort level in Meeting B and help identify the cause of any increases in statement and discourse types between meeting A and Meeting B.

The methodology represented in this study was selected as to provide a clear and concise baseline representation of teacher collaborative discourse. With this clarity now established, future studies may be designed around the same data using varying lenses or through the same lens using different data. The findings from this study may help establish a better understanding of teachers' discourse and its relationship to professional development. This is a relationship which, if better understood, might hold great potential in improving professional development and influencing educational policy.

FINDINGS

Dewey (1933) defined the nature of reflective thought as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusion to which it tends" (p. 9). Many opinions give voice to the importance of reflective thought in developing pedagogical evolution (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Dana & Yendol-Silva, 2008; Noffke & Stevenson, 1995; Schon, 1983). This study attempted to identify ways, if any, varying types of professional development might influence reflective thought within teacher discourse. As this question was filtered and layers were unveiled, the findings began to illuminate patterns and trends that might be indicators of relationships among teachers, their peers, and professional learning experiences that increase reflective discourse and develop an inquiry stance toward teaching and learning (Snow-Gerono, 2005; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001).

Given that discourse analysis “enables access to the ontological and epistemological assumptions behind a project, a statement” (retrieved from http://www.ischool.utexas.edu/~palmquis/courses/discourse.htm on January 27, 2009), the findings from this study have illuminated some clear patterns in the ways teachers talk about teaching and learning in collaborative groups. Through analysis of teacher discourse there is potential to transform and refine the policies, organization, and practices of current professional development offerings.

Before examining the findings, we must briefly revisit discourse, as this is the heart of the data used in this study. McGregor (2004) describes that:

> Discourse refers to expressing oneself using words. Discourses are ubiquitous ways of knowing, valuing, and experiencing the world. Discourses can be used for an assertion of power and knowledge, and they can be used for resistance and critique. Discourses are used in everyday contexts for building power and knowledge, for regulation and normalization, for the development of new knowledge and power relations, and for hegemony. (¶ 6)

Our words, the language we use to express ourselves, our ideas, our knowledge, hang delicately in balance between intention and interpretation. While definitions of what can be learned from the spoken word may elude absolutism forever, much insight can be gained by carefully and simply looking at patterns within discourse. The findings from this study will be presented in relation to the codes that were used to analyze the data.

Before delving into the findings in relation to Statement Types and Discourse types, it is helpful to consider the total Changes in Speaker (CIS) for all groups, both Meeting A and Meeting B (see Figure 4.1.). CIS are not individual sentences, but units of speech contributed by one a single participant. Total CIS are helpful to know when considering Tier 1 data because it is from these CIS that the Number of Instances are taken from. Total CIS are also helpful to know when interpreting the Discourse Maps for Tier 2 data, as total CIS for each group can be used to estimate the total duration of each discourse map.

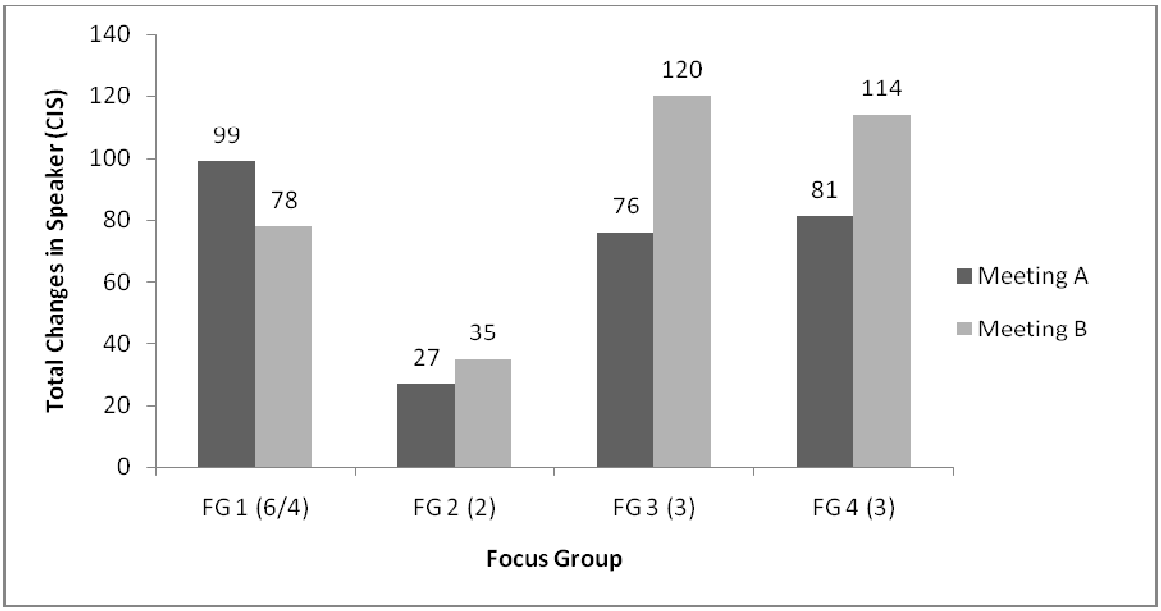


Figure 4.1. Changes in speaker (CIS) for all focus groups, Meeting A and Meeting B

Tier 1 Data: Statement Types

Interrogative Codes

Interrogative codes were based on any instance when a participant would ask a question. There were a total of four interrogative codes. These codes include *Interrogative: Reference, Interrogative: Knowledge, Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Other,* and *Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Self.*

Interrogative: Reference

Interrogative Reference (IR) statements were identified as any question that was asked for reference or clarification to what was observed in a video. Examples of IR statements include: “Did she talk about the language objectives?” (transcript, FG4A, Teacher 2, p.1) and “Did she have vocabulary up there on the board?” (transcript, FG4A,

Teacher 1, p. 3). Results of IR statements appear to be scattered and inconsistent when interpreted for patterns.

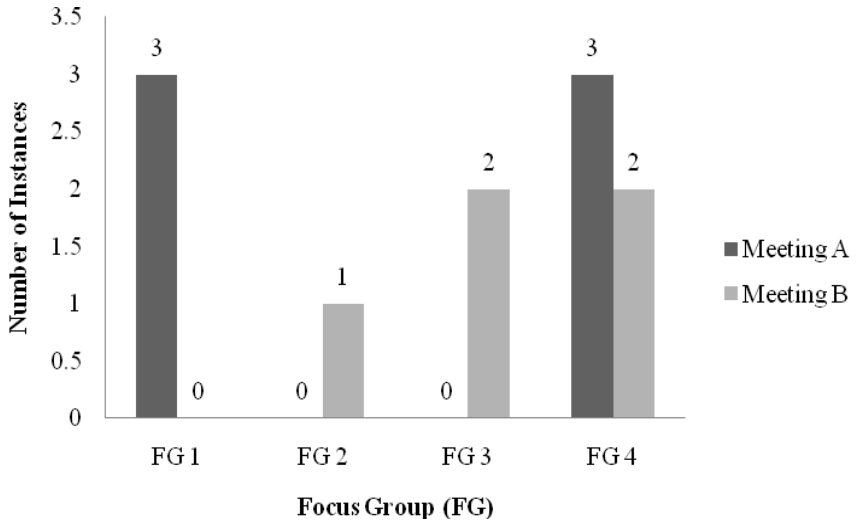


Figure 4.2. Instances of Interrogative: Reference (IR) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

Interrogative: Knowledge

Defined as any question sentence directed towards low-level knowledge acquisition, *Interrogative: Knowledge* (IK) statements did present a possible pattern within the data. Examples of IK instances include the following – "So, how are your kids doing who already know how to speak English?" (transcript, FG1A, Teacher 5, p. 3) and "I would like to have known how this lesson connected with the last lesson. What

connections did the teacher make between chemistry last time and this lesson where we are doing chemicals?" (transcript, FG3A, Teacher 1, p. 1).

Looking at both Meeting A and Meeting B, the frequency of IK instances decreased from Focus Group 1 to Focus Group 2 by a total of 17 instances and remained at or below this level for Focus Groups 2, 3 and 4.

Most of Focus Group 1A's IK instances were focused on student concerns regarding English Language Learners, a student population that three of the six participants had little experience teaching. They would ask each other questions such as, "So, do you feel that you are getting through the material slower?" (transcript, FG1A, Teacher 5, p. 3) and "Is it [taking time to teach lesson directions very thoroughly] better for your kids who are already there too?" (transcript, FG1A, Teacher 5, p. 3). All participants in Focus Groups 2 through 4 have taught English Language Learners. The IK instances that arose in these groups occurred primarily only when discussing the instruction of a peer (Meeting B). Such instances included, "Is that [evidence of Building Background in observed lesson] measurable?" (transcript, FG3B, Teacher 2, p. 2) and in Focus Group 4B, "Thinking about your own students, do they express as much emotion as these kids that we observed in the video?" (transcript, FG4B p. 2).

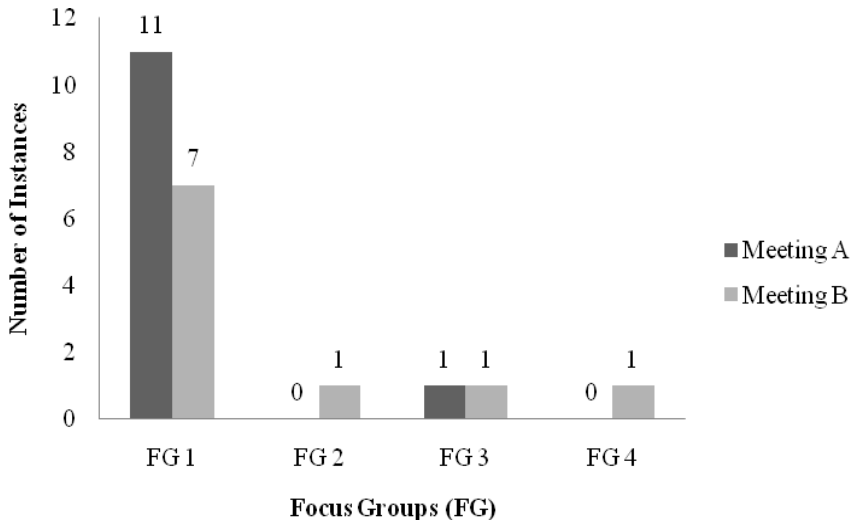


Figure 4.3. Instances of Interrogative: Knowledge (IK) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Other

Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Other (IIO) instances were identified by a presence of rhetorical, high-level, inquiry-based questions that were focused or directed towards another person. Looking at number of IIO instances between Focus Group 1 and Focus Group 4, they both displayed the same number of IIO statements in Meeting B; however in Meeting A, Focus Group 1 exhibited no instances while Focus Group 4 exhibited 8. Both Focus Group 2 and 3 did not display more than three instances total for either meeting.

Examples of IIO instances from Focus Group 1B include, “What would be a real world application for that lesson?” (transcript, Teacher 2, p. 4) and “Do you think that

you would use these tiles [referring to math manipulative used in lesson] again?" (transcript, FG2B, Teacher 1, p. 3). Focus Group 4 in meeting B was the only group to ask, "What would you change?" (transcript, FG4B, Teacher 1, p1).

The results for IIO statement types were scattered. The most significant finding is seen in Focus Group 4, who demonstrated a total of 14 IIO instances with the next closest being Focus Group 1 with 6 instances. Within these findings, more detail is revealed when looking more closely at the content of the IIO statements of each group. The following excerpt from the researcher's field notes helps explain this detail:

> Focus Group 1's Inquiry-based statements seem to be mainly focused on issues of cultural and social relevance, not specific to the instruction observed or even the instructional model at all. This would be expected as this group has not received any training in regards to the SIOP. In contrast, Focus Group 4's IIO statements were predominantly more focused on instruction and relevant to the instructional model. (researcher's expanded field notes)

These notes suggest that Focus Group 4's IIO statements are of a different focus than Focus Group 1's, while both still qualify as IIO statements in general.

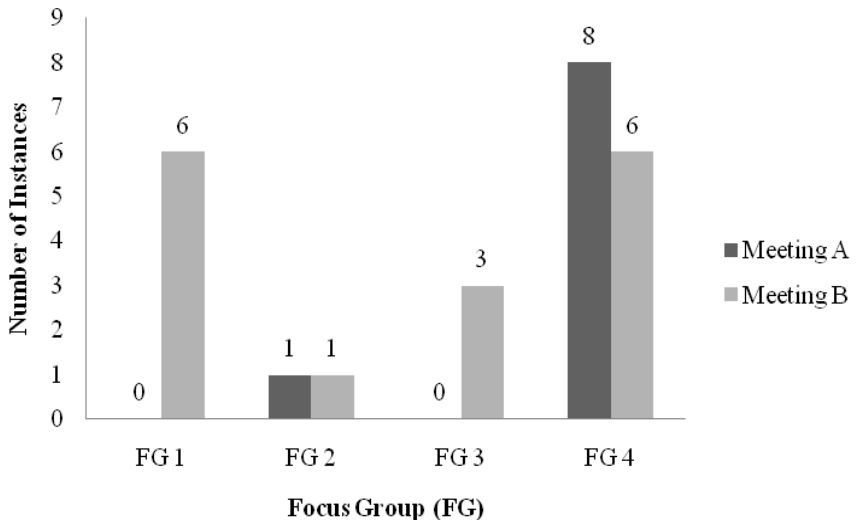


Figure 4.4. Instances of Interrogative: Inquiry-Based, Other (IIO) Statement Types for All Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Self

Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Self (IIS) instances were considered based on their being rhetorical, high-level, inquiry-based, and focused on self, the speaker of the instance. These statements should be apparent in a speaker who is highly reflective, relied on knowledge-of-practice to develop professionally, and took an inquiry stance toward teaching. IIS statements were identified as instances when the speaker would relate her questioning back to herself, engaging in a form of inquiry self-talk. These instances were extremely rare, occurring only two times throughout the entire study, all of which occurred in Meeting B, which entailed discussions surrounding a peer's instruction.

Teacher One in Focus Group 3, during Meeting B asked the following IIS question: “See, I look at Blooms [taxonomy] when I think of this; I think we were evaluating and synthesizing. We are doing that, but did I generate any questions that identified that we were truly comprehending ourselves? (transcript, FG3B, Teacher 1, p. 1). Another example of an IIS instance from Focus Group 4, “I like your thoughts, tell me, I don’t know . . . is there any one area that I would like to improve or that I thought about more than others . . . ?” (transcript, FG4b, Teacher 3, p. 3), shows an example of IIS that takes the form of a think-aloud more than a directed question.

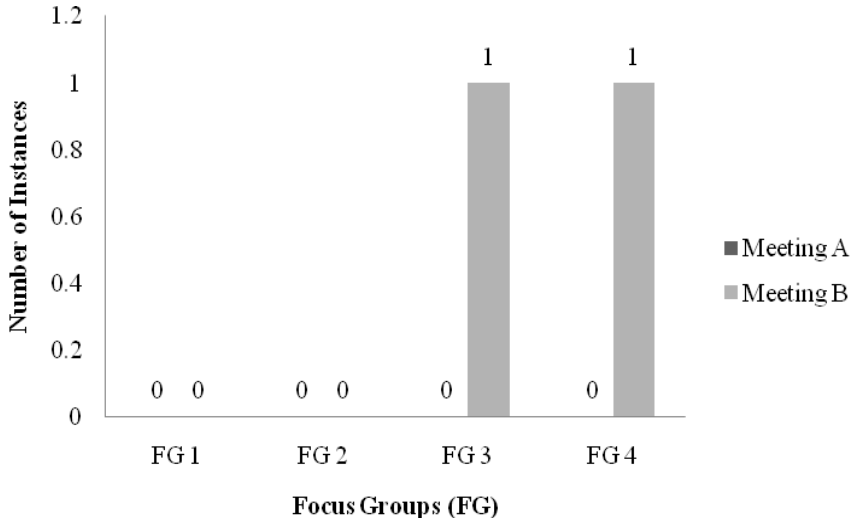


Figure 4.5. Instances of Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Self OIIS) Statement Types for All Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

Declarative Codes

By definition, a declarative sentence is a sentence that makes a statement. Declarative codes were assigned to any statement that could be simplified as a basic statement. Initially, all data were analyzed using four declarative codes – *Declarative: Self, Declarative: Other, Declarative: Reflective, and Declarative: Instructional Model*. *Declarative: Self* and *Declarative: Other* occurred with the greatest frequency of any code in the study. As analysis progressed, *Declarative: Reflective* and *Declarative: Instructional Model* arose significant in regards to data displays and findings because of their levels of frequency and the potential relationship of these codes to teachers expressing an inquiry stance toward teaching and the influence of professional development on teacher discourse.

Declarative: Self and Declarative: Other

Declarative: Self (DS) and *Declarative: Other* (DO) constituted the majority of statements in all group's conversations and were relatively balanced in frequency. DS statements included a declarative statement that a teacher made which focused on herself. An example of a DS statement is, "I did that on purpose" (transcript, FG2B, Teacher 2, p. 1). DO statements were declarative as well, but focused on someone or something other than the person making the statement. An example of a DO statement is, "She told them that they would be classifying" (transcript, FG4A, Teacher 3, p. 1).

DS and DO statements comprised over half of all statements types. Figure 4.5 displays the frequencies of DS and DO statements.

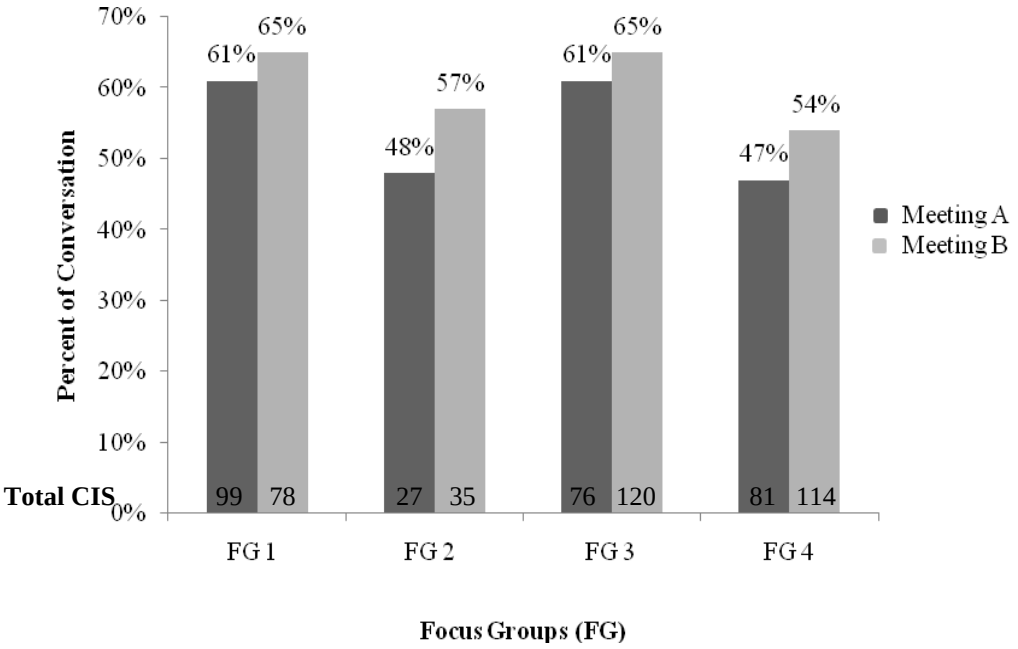


Figure 4.6. Total *Declarative: Self* and *Declarative: Other* Statements (Combined)

Declarative: Reflective

Declarative: Reflective (DR) statements were identified based on their nature of being a statement that captured some element of thought or pondering. Examples of DR statements include:

> I couldn't tell you, you know, whether their [the students'] understanding of the concepts was better because I didn't have time to have them actually do a lot of practice and if I had time for that I could probably have been able to tell better if they were understanding . . . but it felt like, to me,

> that they understood from the feedback I was getting, I think. (transcript, FG1B, Teacher 3, p. 1)

Key words in this quote which help to identify it as reflective include “I couldn’t tell you,” “probably,” “felt like,” and “I think.”

A unique example of a DR statement was front-loaded with a question and then followed by a declarative statement, exhibiting an “I think” reflective phrase. In response to a compliment regarding how well the teacher used higher order thinking skills, the teacher replies, “Really? Can you give me an example of that [interrogative statement, followed next by DR]? I did not think that I used many higher order questions at all” (FG3B p. 3, 2).

The findings revealed that none of the focus groups exhibited any DR statements in Meeting A, observing and discussing an unknown model teacher, with the exception of Focus Group 2 which had one instance. There was a clear increasing trend in use of DR statements from Focus Group 1 through 4, with Focus Groups 3 and 4 demonstrating a relatively high frequency of instances when compared to the other two groups.

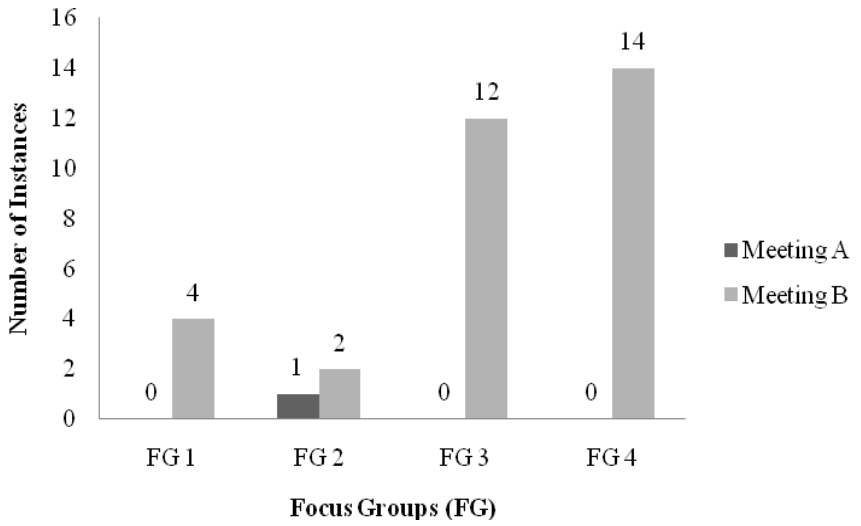


Figure 4.7. Instances of *Declarative: Reflective* (DR) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

Declarative: Instructional Model

The majority of professional development in education is typically tailored around some type of instructional model. This coding category held significant value in bringing to light the impact professional development may or may not have on teacher discourse. Instances of *Declarative: Instructional Model* (DIM) statements were identified based on a statement's specific reference to an instructional model. In the case of this study, this instructional model was the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP®). A few examples of DIM statements include:

> She did access their prior knowledge [said as teacher is looking at instructional model observation protocol]. Was it about the ammonia? No, the milk of magnesia, she had them think about what it was used for. She

> had the visuals that related to the product, there was a connection there. She had interaction with the students, it wasn't just her speaking, they were speaking also. (transcript, FG2A, Teacher 2, p. 1)

In this example, the teacher was making direct references to the instructional model when referencing "prior knowledge", "visuals", "interaction", and who is doing the talking in the lesson (teacher versus learner).

Another example of a DIM statement is from Focus Group 4A: "As far as higher order thinking skills, I think you really did that with this activity" (transcript, FG4b, Teacher 2, p 4). The reference in this context to "higher order thinking skills" is coming directly from the instructional model.

Every Focus Group displayed some level of use of DIM statements, showing an overall increasing trend from Focus Group 1 to Focus Group 4. In all cases except Focus Group 1 the groups referred to the instructional model more in conversations regarding an unknown model teacher than their peer.

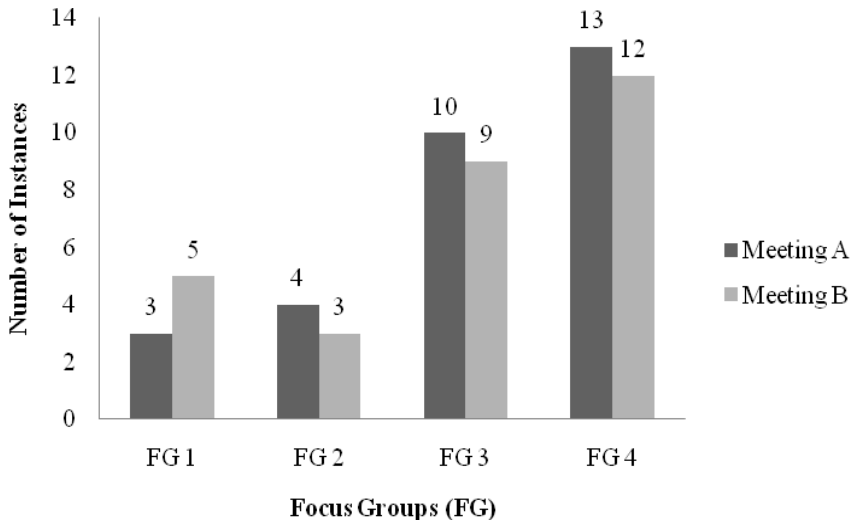


Figure 4.8. Instances of *Declarative: Instructional Model* (DIM) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting a and Meeting B

Strategy Codes

Strategy codes were assigned to any statement that had a strong relationship to a strategy. Strategy codes included *Strategy: Critical, Strategy: Share, Strategy: Reflection,* and *Strategy: Planning*. The strategy codes could, in most cases, be considered a sub category of the declarative codes; however, upon analysis, evidence of distinction between declarative statements and those statements that referred to strategies permitted the creation of the Strategy Codes. This evidence of distinction was determined by any specific reference to teaching strategies within a statement. Included in Strategy Codes are those statements which referred to strategies in a critical manner (*Strategy: Critical*), statements which involved sharing teaching ideas and strategies (*Strategy: Share*),

reflection on a strategy (*Strategy: Reflection*), and statements that involved planning for teaching strategies (*Strategy: Planning*).

Strategy: Critical

Identified by their focus on strategies through critical statements, *Strategy: Critical* (SC) codes raise awareness to those instances when teachers questioned the effectiveness of a certain strategy.

SC statements such as, “she did not have a way of ensuring that everybody gets a turn, they were all just calling out, she didn’t have a way of asking questions” (transcript, FG4A, Teacher 2, p.3) and “What about vocabulary? Where is her word wall? I would have liked to have seen some vocabulary strategies” (transcript, FG3A, Teacher 1, p. 3) are examples of the types of statements that were coded as SC.

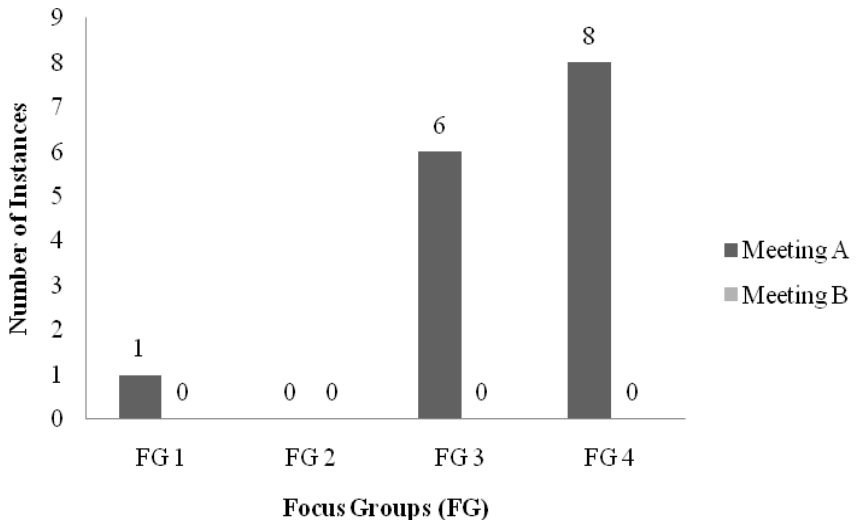


Figure 4.9. Instances of *Strategy: Critical* (SC) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

There were not any SC instances during any of the Focus Group's Meeting B, discussing the instruction of a peer. It can also be noted that there is a general increasing trend, with the exception of Focus Group 2, in instances of SC statements from Focus Group 1 to Focus Group 4. These findings are similar to those found in the *Declarative: Reflective* category, only inversed for Meeting A and Meeting B.

Strategy: Share

Strategy: Share (SS) statements were identified as any instance where a participant shared an idea, experience, or observation related to a strategy without being critical or making a judgment statement.

A teacher in Focus Group 2, meeting A provides an example of a SS statement when she shares, “I know that with kids they really remember more when you tie it to yourself, especially ELLs” (transcript, p. 2). Another example of a SS instance can be read in the following statement, “You always want to have them share what they have learned from the lesson. I like to use a tickets-out-the-door kind of thing” (transcript, FG4A, Teacher 3, p. 3).

In focus groups 1-3 there were very few cases of SS instances, particularly in Meeting B; however, Focus Group 4, Meeting B exhibited a uniquely high frequency of SS instances. In Focus Groups 1 through 3, there were more SS instances in Meeting A, discussing an unknown model teacher than Meeting B, discussing the instruction of a peer, yet Focus Group 3 and 4 both displayed more SS instances in Meeting B.

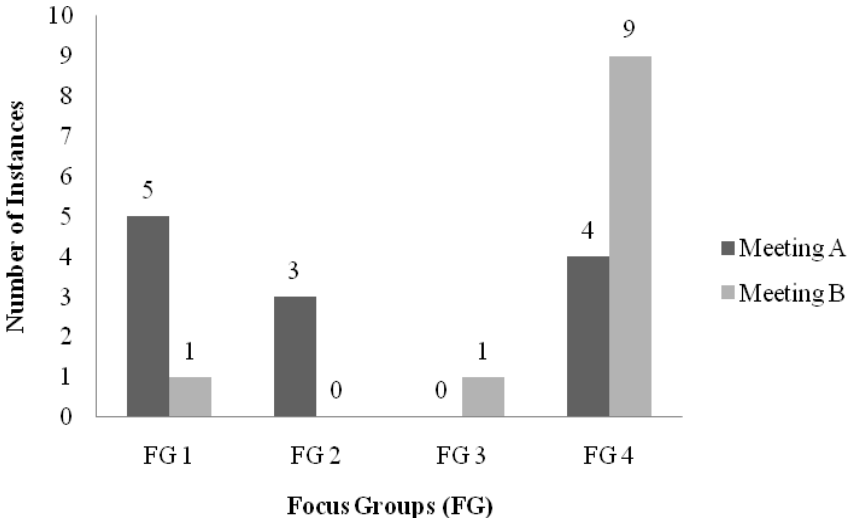


Figure 4.10. Instances of *Strategy: Share* (SS) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

Strategy: Reflection

Strategy: Reflection (SR) codes were assigned to instances when participants would reference the use of a teaching or learning strategy with expressions such as "I think," "I wonder", "what if", or "could it be." The distinguishing difference between this code and Declarative: Reflective is that SR statements contain a specific reference to a strategy.

The participant from Focus Group 4, Meeting B who taught and video recorded her lesson for her focus group meeting provides us with an example of a SR statement:

> I thought back on the learning strategies and I was like, I think doing more think pair share would have helped and if they were writing on their sketch pad that would have been a better strategy to put in there. I also

> thought about having some pictures, you know, I had sentences on the board but no pictures. I have a poster that I could have brought out, I just hadn't thought about it. That would have been better if I had brought that out; that would have been visual support. The other thing I thought about was having them do a sorting, like having cards with an actual dog with its name and then just a dog and they could have sorted those. That might have been better. (transcripts, Teacher 3, p. 3)

Focus Group 4, in Meeting B was the only group that exhibited a statement in which the peer who volunteered to record herself teaching a lesson elaborated on her thoughts regarding areas that could be changed or improved in the lesson by offering specific strategy ideas and alternatives. Alternative ideas and strategies were presented in other groups but not by the teacher who taught the lesson.

The findings from SR instances indicate that Focus Group 4 used at least three times as many SR statements than any other group. The only group that indicated using SR statements in Meeting A was Focus Group 1, otherwise instances of SR statements were present only in Meeting B.

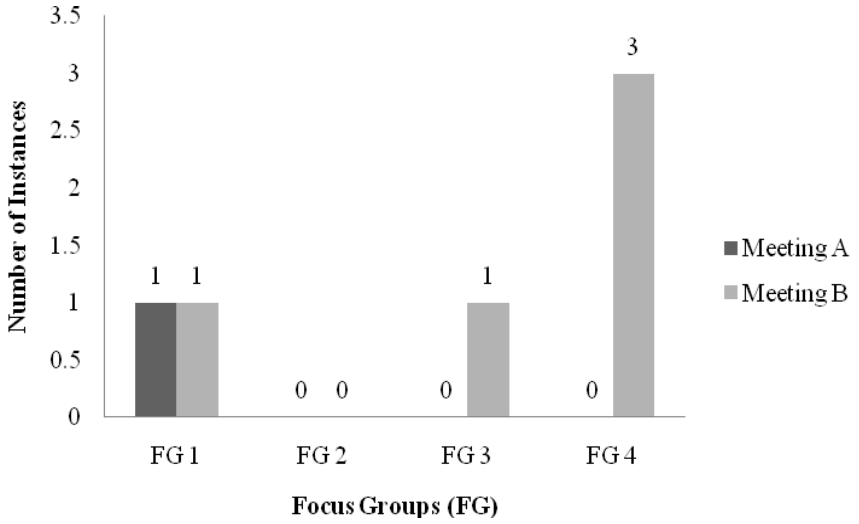


Figure 4.11. Instances of *Strategy: Reflection* (SR) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

Strategy: Planning

Strategy: Planning (SP) is the last code under the Strategy category. SP statements were identified as any instance where participants were discussing strategies in terms of planning. An example of a SP statement from Focus Group 3, Meeting B is:

> You have such a small classroom, but in a classroom you could even put them [word cards] up in different corners and have them walk there, but in your room you could even just spread them out on the table and have them place them kind of like a word sort. (transcripts, Teacher 3, p. 2).

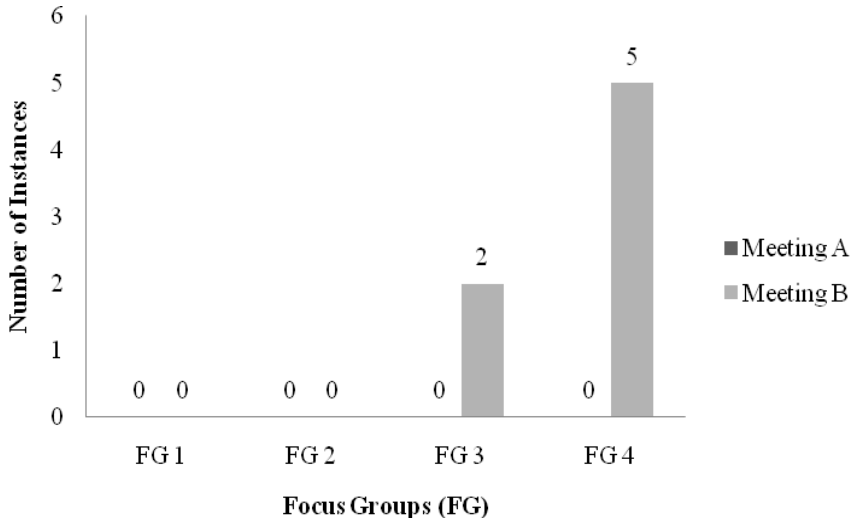


Figure 4.12. Instances of *Strategy: Planning* (SP) Statement Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

There were a total of seven instances of SP statements in all Focus Groups, through all meetings, with Focus Group 4 exhibiting 5 of those seven instances. There were no instances of SP statements during Meeting A and only in Focus Group 3 and Focus Group 4 were there any instances during Meeting B.

Judgment Statements

Judgment Statements was not one of the initial codes identified for data analysis. However, as coding began, a consistent trend in statements was identified that was unique to the other statement types. On certain occasions, particularly in Meeting B, participants would make statements such as “that was good” and “that is a really good

way". For these statements, ones in which participants were placing a personal value on something they have seen or heard, the *Judgment Statements* code was created.

Judgment Statements

After accounting for *Declarative: Self* (DS) and *Declarative: Other* (DO) instances, which occurred most frequently, *Judgment Statements* were the most pervasive statements within the findings with a total of 63 instances. Focus Group 1, during Meeting B provides us with the following example of a *Judgment Statement*:

> She had older students [referring to the unknown model teacher after observing her video] and I think there is a fine line between what I call an elementary voice and talking down to them. These students don't want to be talked down to and I tend to believe that she had a tendency to, well, she wasn't talking to them as if they were adults. (transcript, Teacher 2, p. 1)

Another example of a *Judgment Statement* helps illustrate the judgment quality of such statements as it is referring to the same issue as the quote above but through an opposite opinion. A participant from Focus Group 3, Meeting A states that "Her [the unknown model teacher's] rate of speech was very pleasant. I think any student in there would have understood what was expected of them and would have understood the lesson" (transcript, Teacher 1, p. 2).

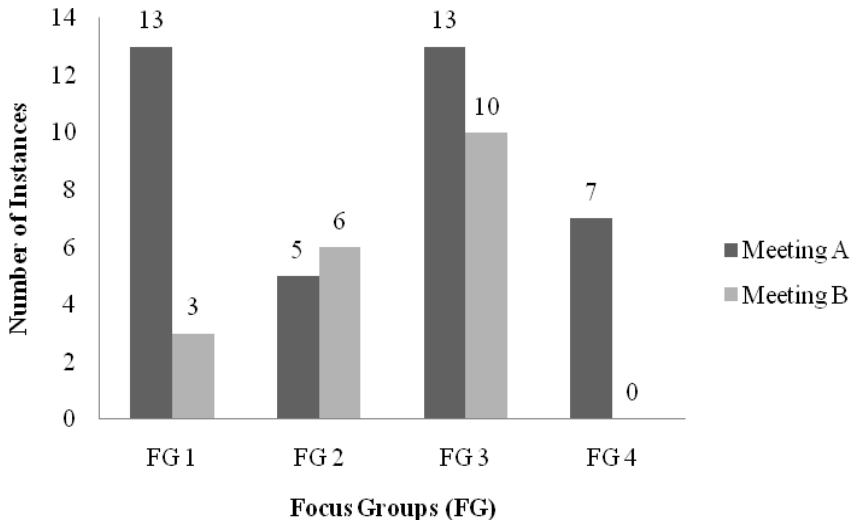


Figure 4.13. Instances of *Judgment Statement* Types for all Focus Groups Comparing Meeting A and Meeting B

There are not any significant consistencies in the findings for *Judgment Statements*. Focus Group 1 and Focus Group 3 had the most *Judgment Statements* overall with a total for Meeting A and Meeting B of 16 and 23 respectively. Focus Group 4 had a total of seven instances, none of which occurred in Meeting B. All focus groups, with the exception of Focus Group 2 demonstrated fewer Judgment Statements with a peer (Meeting B) than with an unknown model teacher (Meeting A).

Summary of Tier 1 Findings

In summary, there were general patterns in discourse among all focus groups (see Figure 4.13.). Focus Group 4 used significantly less *Judgment Statements* than any other

group. Also, Focus Group 4 used more *Declarative Reflective; Strategy Reflection;* and *Strategy Critical* statements than any other group and significantly more *Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Other*; *Strategy Sharing*; and *Strategy Planning* statements than any other group.

Focus Groups 3 and 4, the two groups who had received support from a coach, exhibited more *Declarative Instructional Model* statements than any other group, with Focus Group 4 having the most.

Interrogative: Inquiry-based, Self statements were extremely low in all groups and were never present in any focus group's conversations when observing an unknown model teacher.

Interrogative Knowledge statements were significantly more present in Focus Group 1 conversations than any other group.

Most groups had more shifts in speaker while discussing a peer's instruction than an unknown model teacher's. The only exception to this pattern was Focus Group 1. It is important to note again that Focus Group 1 lost two participants between their first (1A) and second (1B) meeting. This may be a factor influencing this anomaly.

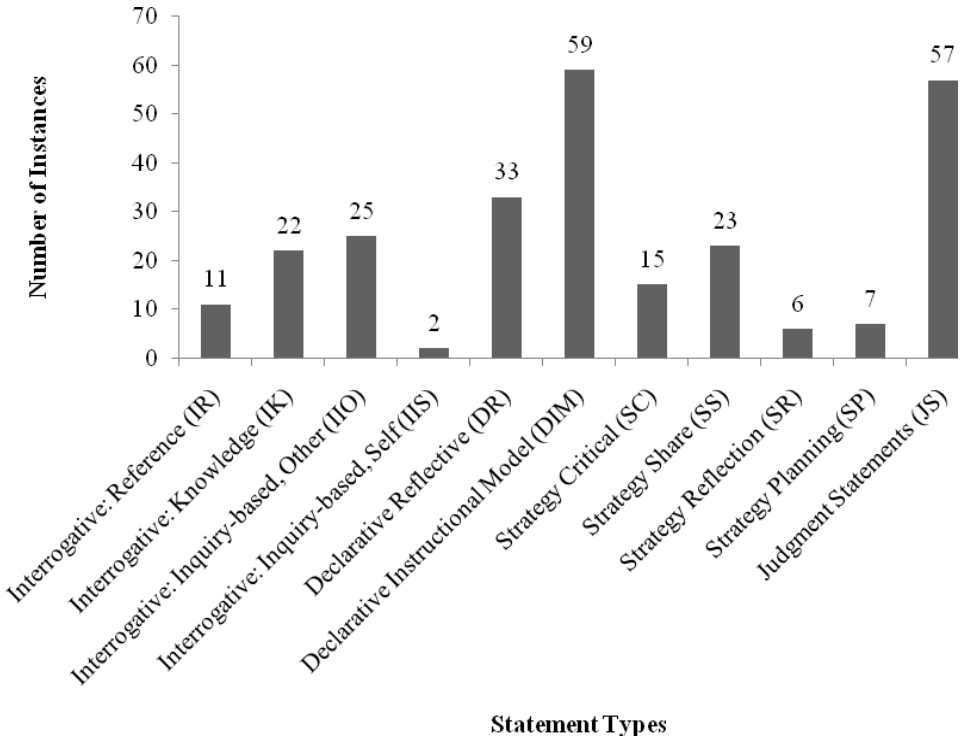


Figure 4.14. Statement Types: Total Number of Instances for all Focus Groups, Meeting A and B

Tier 2 Data: Discourse Types

Tier 2 Data revealed patterns in Discourse Types. Discourse Types were analyzed as segments, not individual Changes in Speaker, as discussed in the previous chapter; discourse requires more than one statement, from more than one individual. Four types of discourse were coded – *Unidirectional*, *Contributive*, *Reflective*, and *Instructive*. The data for these codes were represented in two ways. First, discourse codes were examined comparatively using column graphs to represent differences across all four focus groups

and between Meeting A and Meeting B. Secondly, Discourse Maps were used to represent each groups rate of use of the four discourse types sequentially through both Meeting A and Meeting B.

Discourse Codes: Comparative

In analyzing Discourse Types, it is useful to consider what percentage of conversation for both Meeting A (observing and discussing the instruction of an unknown model teacher) and Meeting B (observing and discussing the instruction of a peer) was representative of the four types of discourse – *Unidirectional, Contributive, Reflective,* and *Instructive*.

Unidirectional

Unidirectional Discourse, where Teachers tend to dominate discussions by lecturing, asking closed questions, and allowing few opportunities for others to communicate their strategies, ideas, and thinking occurred with the greatest frequency in all focus groups. Focus Group 1, Meeting A provides us with the following example of *Unidirectional Discourse* as they discuss how the unknown model teacher introduces a science lesson to her students:

> Teacher 1: So, that was written. She also said it orally so you didn't have to read it on your own.
> Teacher 2: Her expectations were clearly stated.
> Teacher 1: She built on their prior knowledge with the brainstorming. (transcript, p. 1)

Note that the teachers' contributions to the conversation do not connect or build on the previous statement. This was one of the main indicators of *Unidirectional Discourse*.

There is a consistent pattern across all groups showing a higher frequency of *Unidirectional Discourse* during Meeting A than Meeting B. Focus Group 4 showed the lowest overall percentage of Unidirectional use.

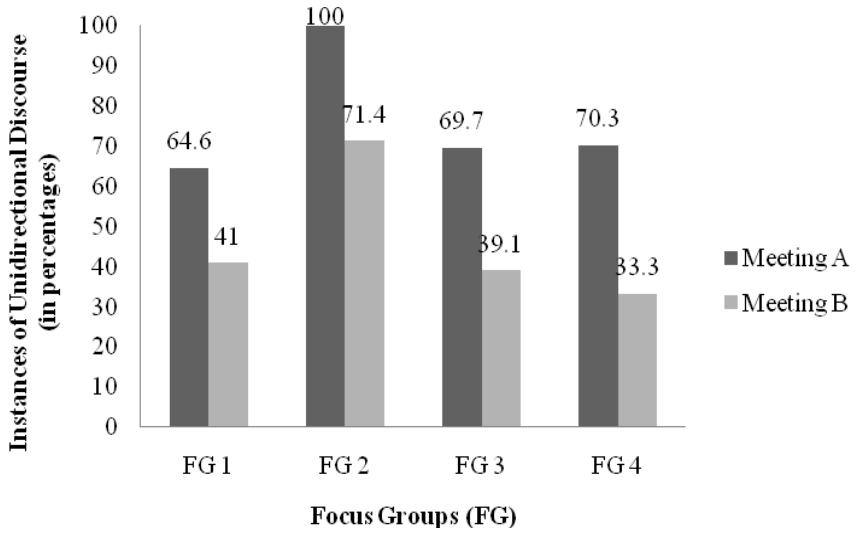


Figure 4.15. *Unidirectional Discourse* Instances for Focus Group 1-4, Comparing Meeting A and B

Contributive

Defined as discourse in which teachers focus on assistance or sharing, with little or no deep thought which is typically corrective in nature, *Contributive Discourse* was

less prevalent than *Unidirectional Discourse* in all groups, with the exception of Focus Group 1, Meeting B.

Participants in Focus Group 3, Meeting A share the following example of *Contributive Discourse:*

> Teacher 1: I am thinking about the objectives and what they say about coloring them blue and black and I mean she had them written out, they just, like you said, it is activating prior knowledge.
> Teacher 2: I think that her objectives were very simple and I do not know if the blue and black boxes were necessary, but I can see how it would make those words pop a bit more.
> Teacher 1: She did keep checking for understanding.
> Teacher 3: She did. And then she validated, and then added on to elaborate more.
> Teacher 2: She did, she added on while still validating.
> Teacher 3: I still don't know where they were before this lesson though. This is definitely a new something. I would like to see some tie-in to other topics.
> Teacher 1: Yeah, I am a firm believer in that. (transcript, p. 3)

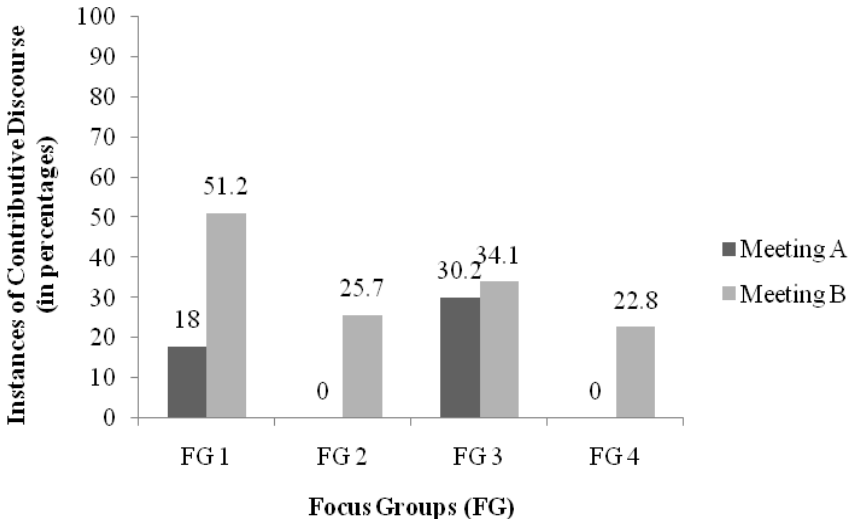


Figure 4.16. *Contributive Discourse* Instances for Focus Groups 1-4, Comparing Meeting A and B

All groups used less *Contributive Discourse* in Meeting A than Meeting B. Focus Group 1 used the most *Contributive Discourse* in Meeting B; however, looking at both Meeting A and Meeting B as a total, Focus Group 3 used the most *Contributive Discourse*. Focus Group 3 was also the only group that showed fairly equal use of *Contributive Discourse* between both Meeting A and Meeting B.

Reflective

In *Reflective Discourse*, teachers share their ideas, strategies, and solutions with peers. The teachers use the conversation with each other as a springboard for deeper investigation and exploration in which repeated shifts occur between action and discussion (Brendefur & Frykholm, 2000). Unlike the other Discourse Type codes, there were a few instances within the groups' meetings where a single statement could be coded as *Reflective Discourse*. This occurred when a teacher would ask a reflective question but receive no reflective response. While this transaction does not fit cleanly into this study's definition of discourse considering the requirement of a discourse to be a verbal exchange among more than one person, or even more fallibly when considering discourse as a lengthy exchange of ideas, it seemed relevant for the purpose of this study to identify even the *possibility* or *potential* of *Reflective Discourse*. This possibility or potential occurred rarely among any group and was identified as an individual presenting a question to the group but not receiving a response.

Participants from Focus Group 3, Meeting B provide the following example of *Reflective Discourse*:

> Teacher 1: I do not think that they [strategies that engage learners] were really evident.
> Teacher 2: I think they will come into the next lesson. Yeah, this is just an intro, I do not think that it would be appropriate to come into this lesson.
> Teacher 3: Yeah, this was just an intro, maybe it doesn't belong in an intro. I made a note here about that. (transcript, p. 3)

Another example of *Reflective Discourse* is from Focus Group 1, Meeting A:

> Teacher 1: So, do you feel that you are getting through the material a lot slower [question being asked in response to a teacher explaining how much time she takes to cover the instructions for her lessons]?
> Teacher 2: No, because you put equal emphasis on vocabulary and the process you want them to learn and it works because then they understand what you are talking about. . .
> Teacher 1: And so does this work better even for your kids who are already there?
> Teacher 2: Yeah, I think so.
> Teacher 3: They say that SIOP helps everybody. (transcript, p. 3)

This second example is distinctive from *Contributive Discourse* in that the conversation is being fueled by questions as opposed to ideas being shared in an assistive manner.

The findings from *Reflective Discourse* analysis represent a higher use of *Reflective Discourse* with Focus Group 3 and Focus Group 4, with Focus Group 4 representing more than twice as many instances than any other group.

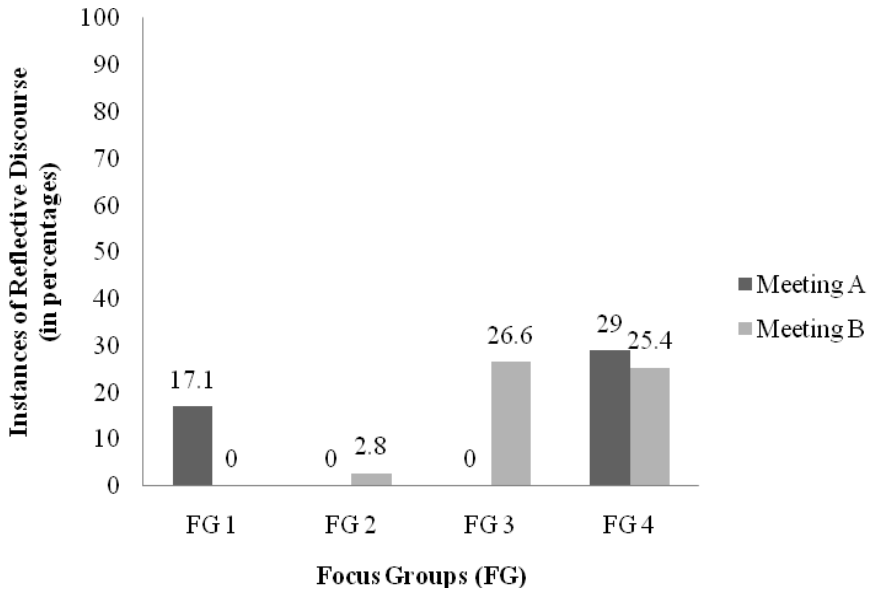


Figure 4.17. *Reflective Discourse* Instances for Focus Group 1-4, Comparing Meeting A and B

Instructive

Instructive Discourse can be identified as instances when teachers' conversations reveal insights about each other's thinking that ultimately impact decisions about future instruction. Teachers not only begin to understand thought processes, strengths, and limitations of each others' knowledge but discuss shifts in instructional practice. The act of modification is central to instructive communication (Brendefur & Frykholm, 2000).

Focus Group 4, Meeting B shares the following example of *Instructive Discourse*:

Teacher 1: Well, I think it went okay. I think I would change some things.
Teacher 2: What would you change?

Teacher 1: Well, I think it was, I think, I think it was a bit of a stretch to use the magazines, the cutting and pasting with proper nouns. I would have used it with common nouns but because it was hard for some of them to get the idea that is was a brand. Well, it did kind of work out good because some of the kids were like, they made the connection, they were like . . .
Teacher 3: It was probably more higher-level-thinking.
Teacher2: Well . . . yeah . . .
Teacher1: It stretched them?
Teacher 2: Yeah, I think so. The other thing I would have done though is spent less time with me up front. It was just too long. They were starting to get antsy.
Teacher 1: Just on the sentence reading? So you would have condensed the time you spoke for or just done away with it?
Teacher 2: Yeah, mhm, I think I would have just condensed it. (transcript, p. 1)

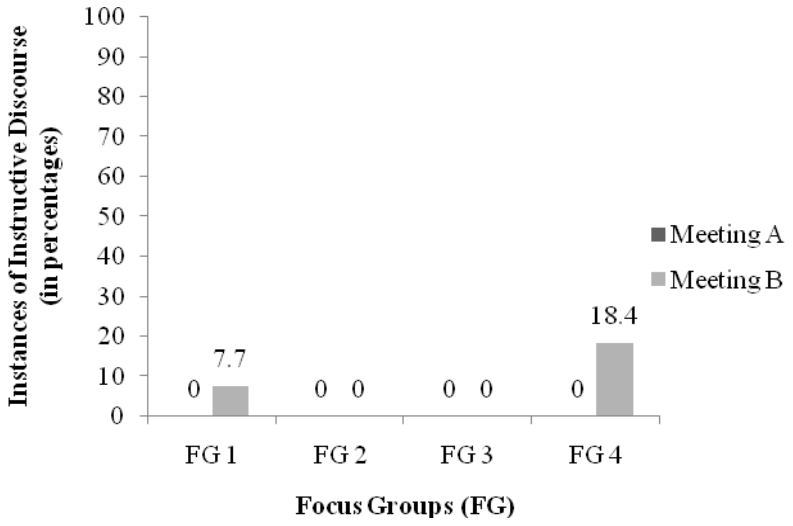


Figure 4.18. *Instructive Discourse* Instances for Focus Group 1-4, Comparing Meeting A and B

Instructive Discourse instances were the least frequent of all Discourse Types. Focus Group 4 exhibited the greatest use of *Instructive Discourse* at 18%. The only other group to demonstrate any *Instructive Discourse* instances was Focus Group 1 with a frequency of 7.7%. None of the groups expressed any *Instructive Discourse* during Meeting A in which they discussed the instruction of an unknown model teacher.

Discourse Codes: Discourse Map

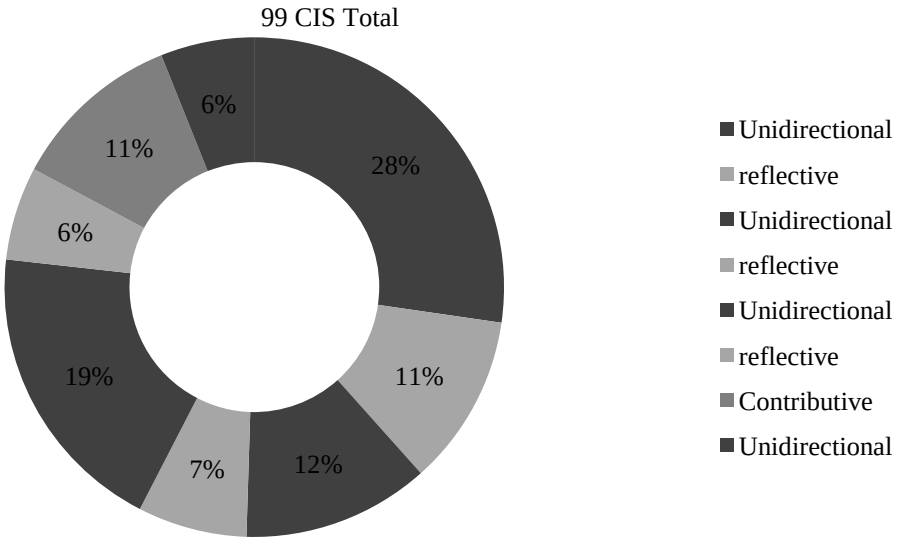
The discourse maps visually represent the duration of a group's meeting showing the order, frequency, and duration (in percentage) of the different Discourse Types through each group's meeting. The meeting begins at the twelve-o-clock point on the doughnut graph. The key for each graph can also be interpreted as a list view of the order of Discourse Types through the duration of a group's meeting. It is critical to keep in mind that the graphs represent different time frames and total frequencies in CIS. Yet, they still provide a valuable representation when looking at the use of Types of Discourse.

Focus Group 1

When comparing Focus Group 1, Meeting A to Focus Group 1, Meeting B we must first note that Focus Group 1, meeting B had two fewer participants than in their Meeting A. This group does exhibit a brief instance of *Instructive Discourse* during Meeting B. Also, where *Contributive Discourse* is not present in Meeting A, it exists at multiple points in Meeting B. Researcher field notes reveal that:

Focus Group 1 demonstrated quite a bit of learning. As a larger group, with four to six members, all teaching different subject areas or grade levels, one teaching at an alternative high school, and one teaching at an elementary school with a significant population of English Language Learners, it seemed as though these teachers really wanted to learn about each others' classes and students. They talked in depth about challenges with students and school procedures, but very little about the instruction observed. (researcher expanded field notes)

Focus Group 1 Meeting A



Focus Group 1 Meeting B

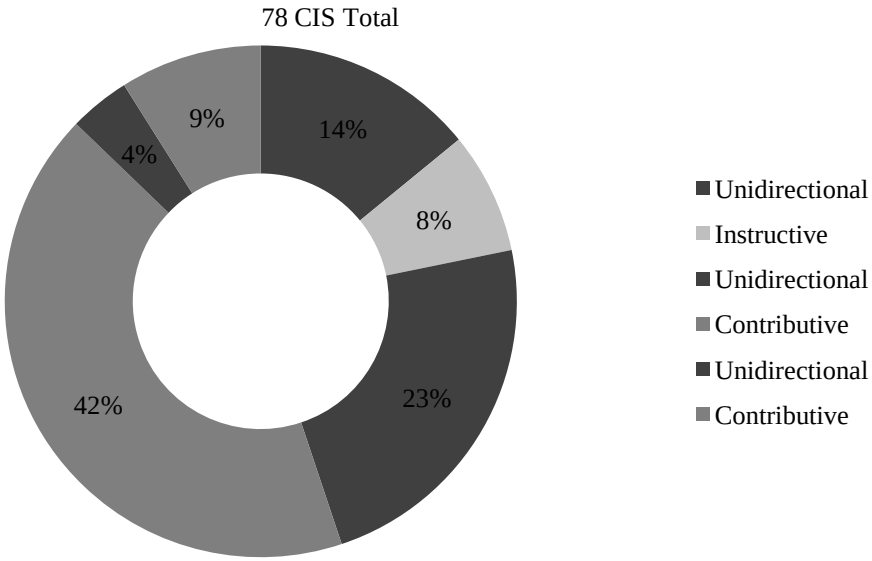
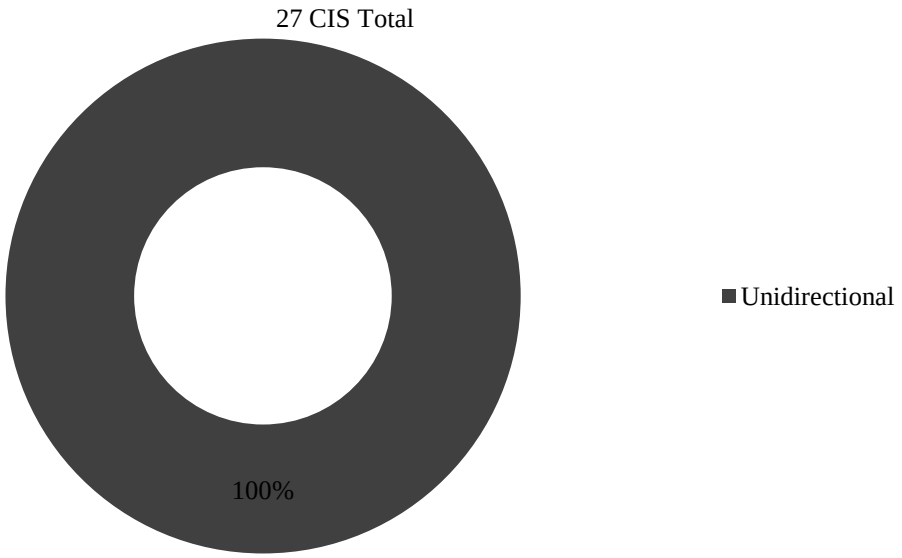


Figure 4.19. Discourse Type Sequence and Duration for Focus Group 1 Meeting A & B

Focus Group 2

Participants in Focus Group 2 had only received traditional workshop training. The difference between their Meeting A data and Meeting B represents a trend that we saw in Focus Groups 2 through 4 which is that during Meeting B, discussing the instruction of a peer, the focus groups engaged in more dynamic conversation, shifting with more frequency among the different types of discourse than in Meeting A. Focus Group 2 engaged only in *Unidirectional Discourse* during Meeting A. In Meeting B they engaged in *Unidirectional, Contributive* and *Reflective Discourse* types. When comparing Focus Group 2 to other groups, it is important to recognize that this group had two participants compared to the other groups which had between three and six participants.

Focus Group 2 Meeting A



Focus Group 2 Meeting B

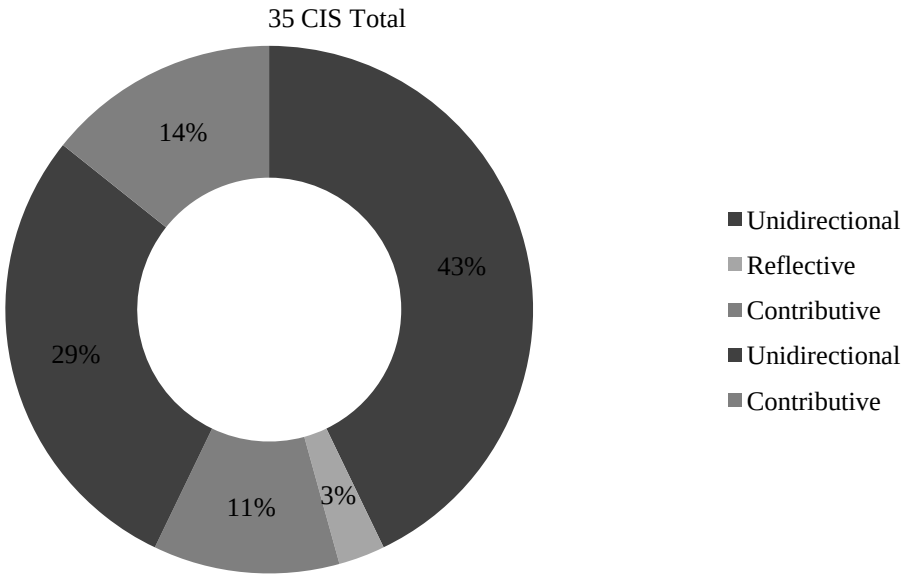
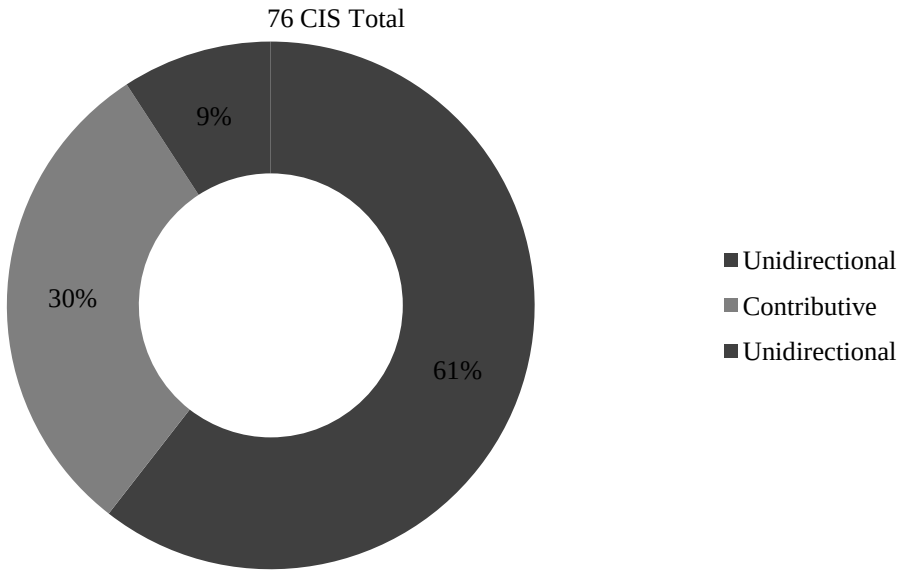


Figure 4.20. Discourse Type Sequence and Duration for Focus Group 2 Meeting A & B

Focus Group 3

Focus Group 3, having received traditional workshop training and training in how to be a peer coach, represents a significant difference in discourse between Meeting A and Meeting B, reinforcing what we see in Groups 1, 2, and 4 as well. Focus Group 3, even having had coaching training, enters their conversation with a unidirectional statement (one would hope that coaching training would encourage teachers to lead into such discourse with a reflective or instructive statement). From here, they move into a few shifts between *Contributive* and *Reflective Discourse* before replacing their *Contributive* statements with *Unidirectional Discourse*. However, at the same time, they increased the duration of their *Reflective Discourse* statements. There was no evidence of *Instructive Discourse* within Focus Group 3.

Focus Group 3 Meeting A



Focus Group 3 Meeting B

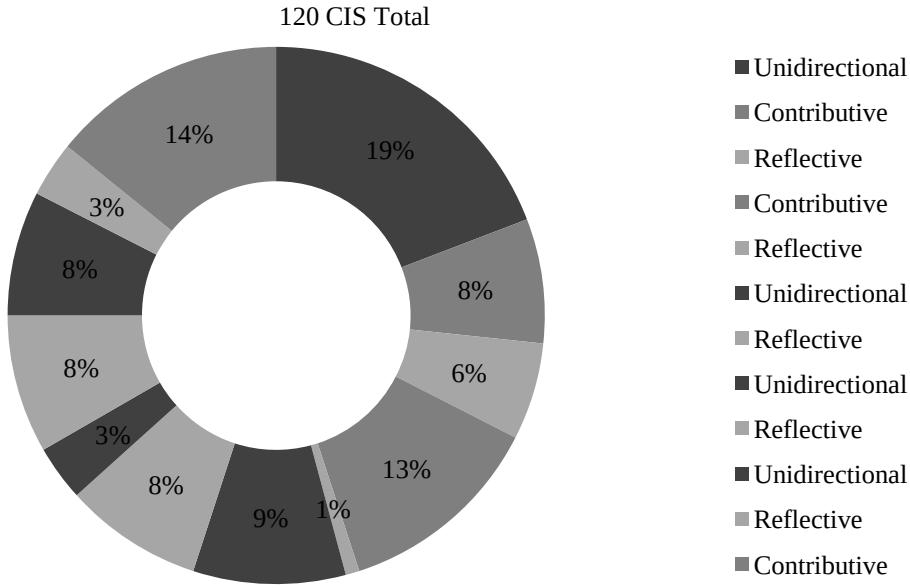
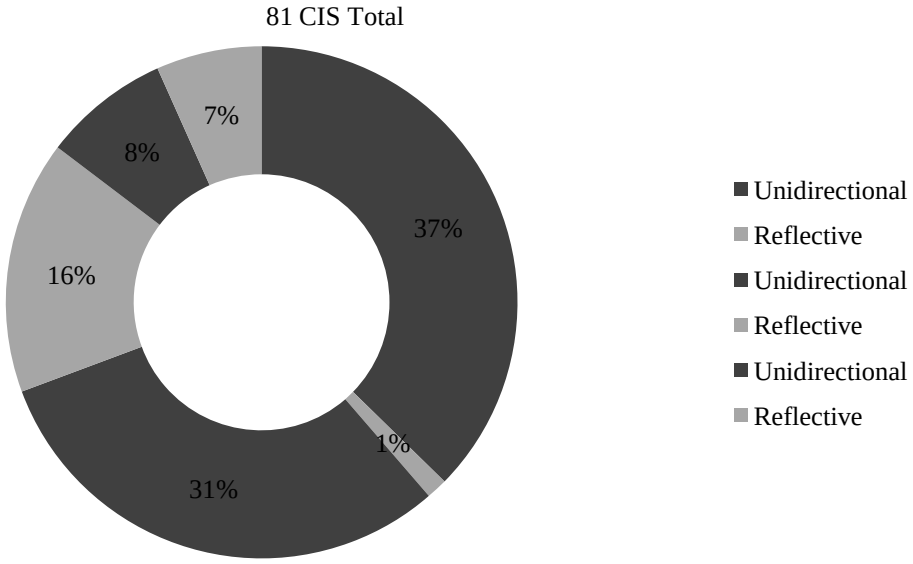


Figure 4.21. Discourse Type Sequence and Duration for Focus Group 3 Meeting A & B

Focus Group 4

Focus Group 4, having received traditional workshop training in how to be a coach, and having been coached themselves represented the greatest variety of Discourse Types when engaged in collaboration regarding a peer's instruction. They were the only group to begin their discussion in Meeting B with Instructive Discourse.

Focus Group 4 Meeting A



Focus Group 4 Meeting B

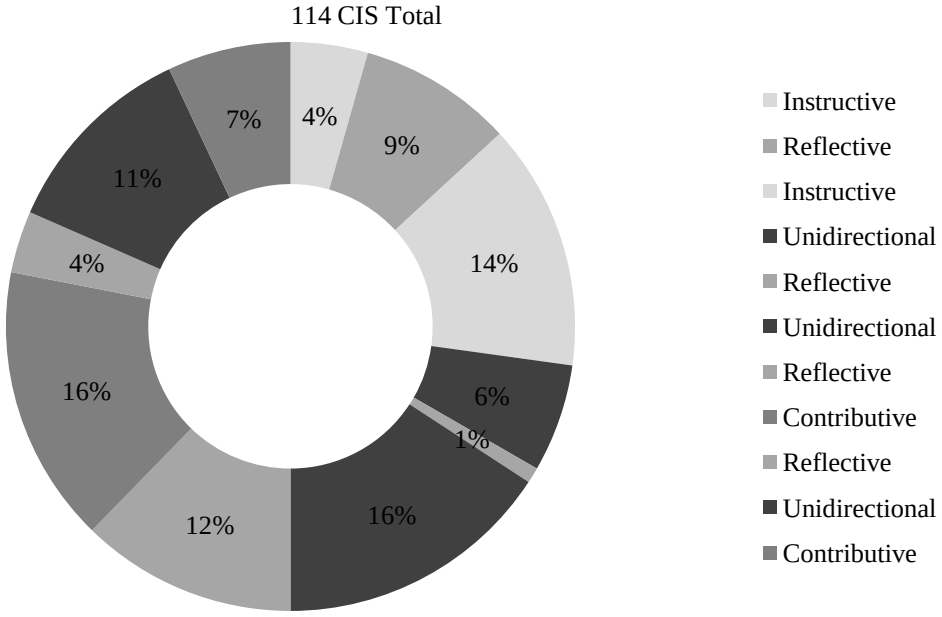


Figure 4.22. Discourse Type Sequence and Duration for Focus Group 4 Meeting A & B

Summary of Tier 2 Findings

All groups exhibited more dynamic discourse when discussing a peer's instruction than an unknown model teacher's, as identified by the variety of types of discourse as well as shifts in types of discourse. There is also a consistent pattern among all groups that the least cognitive demanding levels of discourse (*Unidirectional* and *Contributive*) were used the most while the most cognitively demanding levels (*Reflective* and *Instructive*) of discourse were used the least. Lastly, Focus Group 3 and Focus Group 4 demonstrated a higher use of *Reflective Discourse* than any other group when referring to a peer.

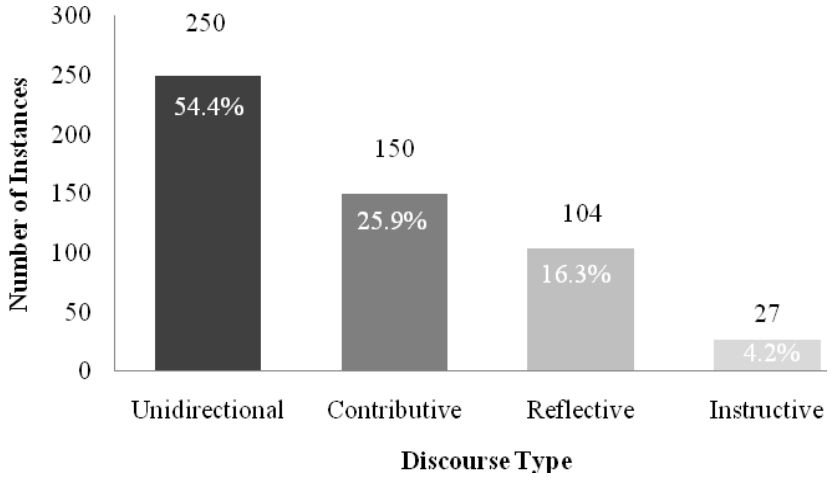


Figure 4.23. Discourse Types: Total Number of Instances for all Focus Groups

Summary of Findings

Findings from Statement Type and Discourse Type data provide a picture of the ways in which varying professional development activities might influence teacher discourse. Based on evidence provided by this study, there does appear to be a positive relationship between professional development approaches which emphasizes reflection and inquiry and teacher use of these skills in collaborative discourse. The implications of these findings provide useful perspectives for teachers, professional developers, and policy makers.

IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

As collaboration, coaching, lesson study and other teacher-based professional learning opportunities begin to take their place in the spotlight of professional development, we must be vigilant in scrutinizing these activities from multiple angles. Theories, philosophies, and research have given a voice to the value of these vehicles for the evolution of teacher learning. Now there are indicators that policy makers, decision makers, and professional development coordinators are hearing this voice more clearly than in the past (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009). Considering this, in order to substantiate such collaborative, teacher-centered efforts, we must look critically at the effects of professional development on these practices and the tendencies of teacher discourse within such capacity.

The findings from this study begin to add strokes of color to a canvas of possibility. While not completely representational at this point, as further study will be required to create greater depth to the perspectives provided herein, the implications of this study carry potentially powerful messages for influencing professional development practice and policy.

What Might it Mean for Teachers?

The potential opportunity for the responsibility of professional development to be placed in teacher's hands ultimately will reflect practitioners' ability to demonstrate the talent, skill, and willingness to embrace practices which support successful pedagogical

evolution and continuous improvement. Considering that U.S. teachers are currently working in an environment which does not support teacher centered professional learning (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009) there may be certain challenges unique to a society that has not encouraged or supported collaborative professional learning.

Teachers may not be inherently inquisitive. Teachers may not know how to engage in action research with a colleague or they may not immediately recognize such opportunities. There are certainly some habits to be changed and others to be tended to with care and attention if U.S. teachers are to join other high achieving international leaders such as Finland, Sweden, Japan, South Korea, Singapore, the United Kingdom, and Australia in developing the professionalism of their practice.

Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos' (2009) study found high achieving nations have many common professional support features including "time for professional learning and collaboration built into teacher's work hours. Ongoing professional development activities that are embedded in teachers' contexts and focused on the content to be taught" (Wei, Andree, & Darling-Hammond, 2009, p. 29). If we are to observe such features supported in the U.S. on a large scale, teachers will need to be supported in understanding how to adjust socially, culturally, and personally to the demands of such responsibility because, as the findings from this study regarding teacher discourse suggest, certain desirable characteristics are not inherently present in current collaborative settings. However, this study also demonstrates evidence of the level of respect and admiration teachers have for each other.

Never Too Much of a Good Thing

Parties are fun. Saturday social events can be fun. Teachers get excited about vacations and student achievement. But after-school meetings? Ask anyone how they would feel about volunteering to meet with other teachers to discuss teaching for two hours after a full day of interacting with high-energy learners and you would not expect their answer to be lined with excitement and enthusiasm. Yet this is exactly the response received from all participants in this study. Participating teachers arrived on time, engaged thoughtfully and completely in all activities, and left with an energized enthusiasm that was inspiring. Based on this study, teachers are hungry for collaboration focused on teaching and learning strategies. Teachers will go above and beyond to share their knowledge with their peers and listen to the ideas of others. In response to a survey question given to all participants (see Appendix E) one participating teacher from Focus Group 4 shared, "I am always looking for ways to improve my teaching. I wanted to work with a group of teachers to both plan and evaluate a SIOP lesson" (Anonymous, survey response). A participant from Focus Group 3 stated, "I wanted to refresh my SIOP skills and validate that what I use in my classroom follows SIOP. I also love to get ideas from my colleagues and watch them in action" (Anonymous, survey response). Another participant shared:

> I wanted to have an opportunity to meet new people outside of my building that had no experience or connection with my style of teaching and ideas so that I could learn from new and more current or alternative forms of the instructional practices, acquire ideas, share in experiences, and learn what I can from something that relates to the area of career that I am in at this time. (Anonymous, Focus Group 3, survey response).

A Focus Group 1 participant, while initially not clear on the purpose of participation, shared, “I thought it was a training, but as it turned out it was probably more beneficial than four hours of training. The discussions were very thought provoking. It was very enjoyable!” (Anonymous, survey response). I believe that, even while comprising a very small sample, these teachers’ excitement may represent their population fairly accurately, in spite of the fact that:

> the nation lags in providing public school teachers with chances to participate in extended learning opportunities and productive collaborative communities in which they conduct research on education-related topics; to work together on issues of instruction; to learn from one another through mentoring or peer coaching; and collectively to guide curriculum, assessment, and professional learning decisions. (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos’, 2009)

U.S. teachers are beginning to see the rewards of taking charge of their professional learning. “In yearly surveys, participants [teachers who work in learning communities that have been successfully sustained] highlighted the lack of time to talk with colleagues as one of the least satisfying parts of their jobs” (Smith, Wilson, & Corbett, 2009, p. 23).

Through varied discourse patterns, whether about students, teaching, learning, an instructional model or district policy, the teachers who participated in this study enjoyed sharing their ideas and experiences. While in general there were low levels of inquiry and reflection, one can not discredit the power that simply talking about what you are doing can have on moving teachers’ thinking forward, either through an unconscious reflective lens or projection of possibilities. Identified in researcher field notes, there were many instances when the teachers would share common experiences and be relieved by the fact

they were not alone in their frustration or when a teacher would share some simple strategy and others in the group would excitedly jot down notes so they could try the same strategy the next day with their own learners. At times emails were swapped, the potential for cross-school writing buddies was discussed, and materials were shared. These are powerful indicators of productive collaboration infusing teachers with energy, ideas, and new ways of doing business. The question then becomes, just how necessary is reflection and inquiry in developing one's craft through knowledge-of-practice?

Inquiry-based Discourse

Just how necessary is reflection and inquiry? I do not believe we can simply, definitively answer this question. The necessity of such skills is dependent upon the outcome you are working towards. Differing ends justify their relatively appropriate means. However, if we are to encourage teacher-centered transformation of pedagogy and school-based practice, there is a substantial body of evidence that reflection and inquiry are central skills and habits to these practices (Dewey, 1910, 1938; Schon, 1983; Zeichner & Liston, 1996; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Lipman, 2003; Snow-Gerono, 2005;). Yet, depending on the outcome measured, the amount of thought generated just by teachers talking about whatever they want, regardless of critical inquiry and reflection, can not be discredited.

When considering teachers' use of knowledge-of practice to refine their practice, must the discourse be comprised of high instances of reflective, inquiry-based questioning and thought? Possibly not. However, "it is easy for learning communities to

become stalled at the stage of collegial discussions" (Smith, Wilson, & Corbett, 2009, p. 20).

Growth Lines

This study exposed the possibility that teacher thought can evolve regarding practice without necessarily engaging in Reflective or Instructive discourse. However, when considering growth lines - those opportunities in dialogue to take an idea from a peer and evolve one's or others' thinking through discourse - in a conversation, there were some interesting observations among the different focus groups in this study.

Robust Growth Lines.

Robust growth lines can be sorted into two categories – Intentional and Unintentional. Intentional growth lines were identified as those instances which teachers intentionally posed questions or statements which led the group towards new thinking. Unintentional growth lines where more common and were identified as those instances when a conversation would organically lead the group toward some new insight or different way of thinking about teaching or learning, without a participant ever specifically choosing to infuse the discourse with questions or statements which would directly lead to transformative epistemology.

Intentional Robust Growth Lines occurred very infrequently, as noted by the overall low occurrence of inquiry-based statements and reflective discourse. An example of teachers intentionally engaging in the development of a growth line is provided by

teachers in Focus Group 4, Meeting B when Teacher 1 states that, “Well, I think it went okay. I think I would change some thing” (transcript, p. 1) and teacher 2 replies with a question, “What would you change?” (transcript, p. 1). This dialogue continues as the teachers explore a series of questions which lead to deeper reflection on the instructional strategies used by Teacher 1.

Teacher 2: What would you change?

Some groups exhibited dynamic unintentional exploitation of growth lines without ever asking a question. The discourse of these instances was noted by a pattern of evolution within the conversation. An example of this is provided by Focus Group 4, Meeting B in the following transaction:

> Teacher 1: The other thing I thought about was having them do sorting. Like having cards with an actual dog with its name and then just a dog and they could have sorted those, that would have been better.
> Teacher 2: That would lend itself to movement too. They could move around the room for their sort, matching with patterns in corners or something.
> Teacher 1: That might have been a better idea.
> Teacher 2: No, not a better idea, there is as lot of value in the lesson you did because this lends itself to a lot of collaboration and talking.
> Teacher 3: And you had the magazine pictures.
> Teacher 1: Yeah, I thought about that later, they did have the pictures. (transcript, p. 3)

This conversation continued as the teachers evaluate the practices used in the lesson and extend their thinking to include new strategies and ideas without ever actually asking a question. There is some reflection on thought that occurred in practice and some planning for how to implement this lesson differently in the future. This is an example of discourse that navigated growth lines successfully.

Dead-end Growth Lines.

Sadly, it appeared as though more groups engaged in dead end conversations, as indicated by the high percentage of Unidirectional discourse among the groups. Dead end conversations, or those interactions among teachers that do not lead to any connected reply or response, not only lack significant representation of reflection or inquiry, but often displayed the refusal of growth lines even when they were presented by colleagues. The following example provides evidence of dead-end growth line opportunity. Notice how Teacher 1 responds to Teacher 2's initial statement and then note Teacher 2's response:

> Teacher 1: I have to use the same curriculum and give the same tests as everyone else. My scores are always low.
> Teacher 2: Is it that they may get it but they don't retain it?
> Teacher 1: and you have to remember that I teach 18 weeks of curriculum in nine weeks with no homework, we have a no homework policy. (transcript, FG1B, P. 3)

Teacher 2 asked a question that could have led to deeper thought and it was ignored by Teacher 1. The potential of a growth line in this conversation dead-ends with no reply.

Growth lines in discourse are nurtured or terminated based on cognitive, social, and verbal skills. There is much complexity here and to examine growth lines in more depth through discourse path analysis (Gee, 2005) would provide greater insight into the life-cycle trends of these discourse patterns. A question to begin with might be – what effect variances would there be based on a measurable outcome between a highly reflective group and a low-risk, non-inquiry based group?

Regardless of teachers' acknowledgment or refusal of growth lines in discourse, findings do support that, first, we have noted evidence of movement of thought, regardless of the presence of reflection or inquiry and, either way, teachers appeared to be inspired to collaborate and to share their ideas with each other. In the end, we all seem to be working for the ultimate benefit of learners, be it through discourse that unveils the complexities of instructional strategies or conversations about how students behave and how teachers' days run. While, based upon the literature provided in this study, one would argue that conversations rich in pedagogical evolution potential should be identified by a high level of inquiry and reflection, further study would be needed to say definitively that this is actually a *better* way of collaborating.

Tiers of Readiness

In the end, teachers' engagement in discourse likely boils down to their readiness level in relation to the collaborative process and what needs they have that might be met by participating within a collaborative group (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The findings from this study have lead to the development of a conceptual model referred to as the Three Tiers of Readiness of discourse regarding an instructional model. This conceptual model was developed based on discourse patterns observed within the four focus groups studied in this research. When examining each group, certain characteristics appeared consistent whether speaking about an unknown model teacher or a peer. It must be noted that there was high evidence of learning occurring among teachers who appeared to have a Tier 1 readiness level of discourse. This learning was low-level, procedural, factual type

knowledge transmission. Therefore, the levels do not necessarily represent the amount or depth of potential learning, only the types of discourse teachers engaged in based on their readiness level in relation to either collaboration or an instructional model.

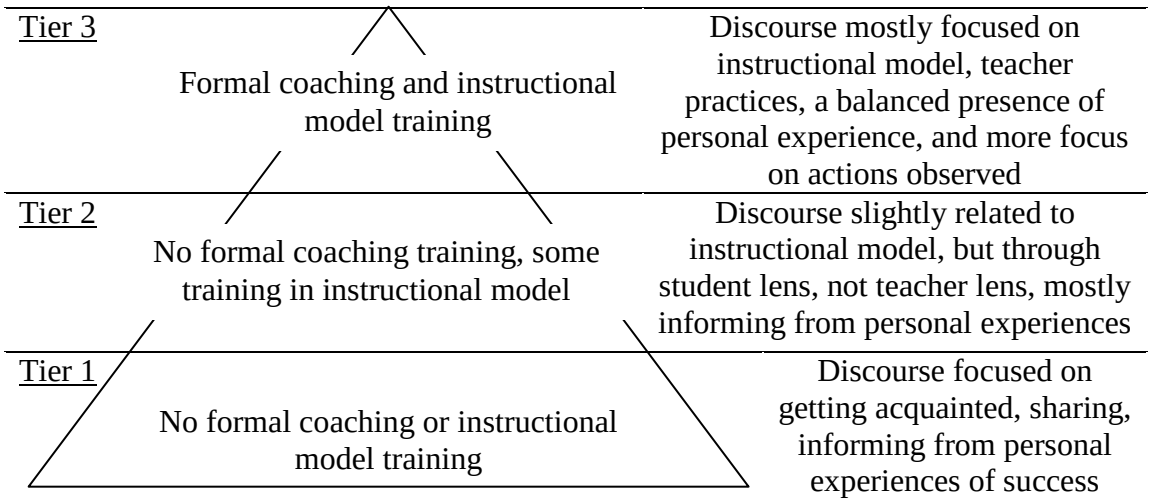


Figure 5.1. Three Tiers of Collaborative Discourse Readiness

Tier 1

Focus Group 1, having received no formal training, focused much of their interaction on establishing understandings of each others' schools, student populations, and teaching experiences and exemplifies Tier 1 of the three tiers of readiness. As the instructional model used in this study for reference in regards to professional development was the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol and the video of the unknown model teacher was of a sheltered lesson delivered to English Language Learners, this steered much of the group's conversation towards English Language

Learner issues as opposed to instructional strategies or the instructional model (as would be expected, considering this group knew very little about the model). Representing Focus Group 1's readiness level is the following interaction:

> Teacher1: In sharing things [the unknown model teacher used examples of soap, coffee, shampoo, etc to introduce her lesson] that they use, she could have chosen to share anything but she knew, she chose to share things that she was pretty sure that they had come into contact with.
> Teacher 2: You mean now that they are in our country?
> Teacher 1: I mean just now that they are in school, or before coming to school I am sure those kids are going to have washed their hair, have had a shower.
> Teacher 2: No, I did a hygiene lesson with them [English Language Learners at a different site] and they do not use soap, they don't have showers, they roll around in their beds because they do not have sheets. The teacher said they smell so strong.
> Teacher 1: And they do not know what those things are? (transcript, FG1A, p. 1)

Another trait of teachers at the first tier of readiness was that they would rely strongly on self-experience or anecdotal evidence as this appeared to be a familiar frame of reference. A few examples of this include, "Well, I am teaching at the alternative high school and we don't have a lot of ELL kids but we have a lot of low income kids . . ." (transcript, FG 1A, Teacher 1, p. 2) or "I once tried to do that with my kids, talking about figuring out how much paint you would need to paint your house and they all just looked at me . . . ." (transcript, FG 1A, Teacher 4, p. 4). This tendency to share thoughts only from personal previous experience might have prevented them from moving out of this safe zone and delving more into critical inquiry or reflection on practice, two skills that help develop knowledge-of-practice. Sharing concrete examples of previous experience with no entry point provided for others to engage in analysis of this experience keeps a teacher safe from the interrogation of inquiry that can occur when colleagues begin to

unpack instructional assumptions. Again, it must be noted that learning can, and in this case appeared to, occur among groups working at the Tier 1 level of readiness, without such critical unpacking of practice. However, this learning is not representative of high-level transformative epistemology. Instead, this discourse may lead to gradual awareness of unconsidered possibility and circumstances, eventually transforming a teacher's epistemological viewpoint.

Tier 2

The second tier of readiness describes characteristics of teachers who share some common vocabulary and knowledge in regards to an instructional model but may not have developed this knowledge to the point at which they can utilize the skills of inquiry and reflection. At this tier it appeared as though, again, teachers focused more on student behaviors and non-instructional characteristics of classroom management than on teaching and learning; however, at tier two, the focus shifts from mostly procedural questioning regarding students, to sharing teaching experiences in relation to students. Another distinction among this group was their concrete reference to the instructional model when it was referenced. An example of such a statement would be, "Um. Lets see, you did the key vocabulary [teachers says while looking at instructional model protocol] you emphasized what they were going to be talking about that day . . . yeah . . . it was very good . . . anything else?" (transcript, Focus Group 2, p. 2).

Participants demonstrating Tier 2 characteristics would discuss what the students were doing, challenges of working with certain students, and how certain environmental

and instructional features affect learners. These conversations would typically be tied back to the instructional model. Issues of instruction would be discussed, but typically more through the lens of the learner than through specifically what and how the teacher is teaching. At Tier 2, there would still be a reliance on teacher experience as evidence of success - a comfortable frame of reference which does not challenge practice or question pedagogy.

Tier 3

Teachers who had received both instructional model training and coaching training exhibited discourse patterns we could identify under the third tier of readiness. Tier 3 teachers engaged in discourse focused on teacher practice. They spoke about instructional observations in terms of teacher behavior. A teacher from Focus Group 4 provides the following example:

> Comprehensible Input [component from instructional model], that one, your speech, I felt was very appropriate, you definitely slowed down and softened your voice when it was, this is what we are doing. Your modulation, when you were excited, giving instructions, you were really good, I think students really respond to this. You were very good at it. And the explanation of academic tasks was good, very clearly explained. I wrote down a question, thinking about your students, do they express and use as much emotion as these kids [referring to a peer regarding instruction observed]?"

A word of caution, and area for further study, is that this focus on teaching behavior might be because this is how the instructional model used for reference in this study frames the evaluation of implementation. Teachers spoke less from the perspective

of personal experience and more in relation to what was observed as a group and what the instructional model represents.

The implications of this conceptual model may be helpful to teachers in determining their own placement within the tiers and then identifying what type of professional learning could propel them deeper into inquiry-based reflective practice.

Regardless of which tier participants were operating from, there was one trait that deserves recognition. Trust and respect, two critical features of a healthy learning community, were observable in all groups. Compliments drifted naturally about the room as if set free upon a sea of affirmation and there was some evidence of discipline, inquiry, reflection, or respect among all teachers. However, a little pushing, a little pressure from peers may just be what is needed when considering how teachers engage in the construction of knowledge-of-practice.

Dare to Challenge, or Not?

While respect is probably one of the most important components of an effective peer collaboration scenario (Knight, 2007; Moir & Hanson, 2008), respect without challenge may lead to little change. When looking at professional development, the goal is for change on some level (Chappuis, Chappuis, & Stiggins, 2009) – change in thinking or change in practice. Considering this, teachers, professional developers, and policy makers can not engage in or create powerful collaborative work without some level of inquiry, conflict, and action-oriented language. These were features of discourse that were not predominantly present in the discourse of most focus groups.

Safety Zones

There was an inherent trend among all focus groups of participants speaking from safe zones. These safe zones may be defined as a teacher sharing her personal experience of perceived success - “I have tried using guest speakers with class and my kids love it” (transcript, FG1B, Teacher 3, p. 4) (low risk), a teacher providing a compliment – “I really liked how you covered the objectives so clearly” (transcript, FG3B, Teacher 1, p. 1) (low risk), or a teacher asking a knowledge-level question – “How long does that take you?” (transcript, FG1B, Teacher 6, p. 4) (low risk) or “How would you do that with your ELL kids?” (transcript, FG3B, Teacher 3, p. 2) (medium risk, as it displays potential lack of knowledge/experience). These safe zone statements appeared to build trust and security among the participants; however, they did little to move conversations from unidirectional and contributive levels to reflective and instructive discourse. While all four levels play integrated roles in healthy collaborative relationships, it is reflective and instructive discourse that leads to deeper, thought provoking, change initiating thought. Snow-Gerono shares (2005) that:

> Teacher learning is also an intricate phenomenon based in notions of professional development espousing teachers as lifelong learners in communities of practice (Lieberman & Miller, 2001). Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2001) describe an inquiry stance toward teaching’ as a professional positioning toward knowledge generation and consideration where a “shift toward uncertainty” (Author, 2005a) scaffolds knowledge and practice in such a way that inquiry may become the heart of professional development and a teacher’s stance on teaching and learning. (p. 2)

The high frequency of unidirectional and contributive discourse may be the result of many factors. It might be that most of the study participants had never met before and given more time to establish relationships might have led some of the unidirectional and

contributive discourse toward more reflective and instructive type statements. Either way, teachers will want to learn to look for moments of inquiry potential. Looking through a window is typically more engaging than staring in a mirror.

As noted earlier, this study could be replicated and redesigned to isolate the confounding variable present in this study regarding whether teachers discourse became more engaging in the second meeting because of familiarity established by the second meeting or because of the fact that they were discussing the instruction of a peer. This could be accomplished by having half of the participants only observe and discuss the instruction of an unknown teacher and the other half would only observe the instruction of a peer both times. This would isolate the confounding variability of familiarity through a second meeting and provide findings which could help identify the nature of safety zones more specifically.

Regardless of whether teachers were observing an unknown teacher or a peer, much of the teachers' contributions reflected their own thinking and experience. Even when a participant would infuse a conversation with a question, her peers would answer with a basic response, providing a concrete example, sharing knowledge that answered the question definitively in their mind. No elaborated ponderings were observed that opened the discourse up to inquiry interplay, the spiraling of rhetoric that leads to a place without answers, a place where the answer must be investigated or created. Even when a teacher would ask a reflective question, which happened quite infrequently, the reply would typically not take the question to another place. Instead, it would simply present a

clear, short answer. Referred to as dead end responses, participants' questions were rarely, if ever, replied to with another question.

Stewart and Brendefur (2005) found similar patterns to those within this study, including that "groups had tendencies at times to wander in their conversations and either talk about specific students and their progress or to talk in generalities that did not lead to focused ideas for lesson improvement" (p. 10). If teachers were to become engaged in on-going professional learning, it could be beneficial for them to engage in inquiry-based practice where they did not feel pressed to always find and provide answers to those areas calling out for investigation.

Finding areas of investigation can also be a challenge. It appears as though this might not be a skill inherent in educators. Fullan (2005) cautions, "terms travel well, but the underlying *conceptualization and thinking* do not" (p. 10, italics his). It is much easier to share what we know – "We do the same thing you do. We have a word wall up, we are stressing the vocabulary and going back over it and we have the language learners demonstrate the meaning for us" (transcript, FG1A, Teacher 4, p. 4) , what we see - "I noticed, even though we didn't see them working in groups, that she was probably going to have the students work in groups because she had all of those materials out", and what we think – "I think the grouping was very effective" (transcript, FG3B, Teacher 2, p.3) than to try so flesh out what we do not know, what we do not see, and what we haven't thought about.

Suggestions for Teachers

The following suggestions, compiled through observations made in this study, are intended to support teachers in developing reflective/inquiry-based discourse:

- Answer a question with a question. This study revealed zero incidences of this occurring within any of the teachers' collaborations. By answering a question with a question, we might see a greater level of inquiry and reflection within groups, two skills that the literature base for this study argue are necessary for teachers to promote
- Listen to others and link your statement to theirs in a way that invites comment and inquiry. This study revealed that unidirectional discourse exists at high rates within collaborative groups.
- Instead of sharing your own experience, rephrase a statement as a question.
- Link statements to other sources and when this cant be done, initiate a commitment to seek out evidence from other sources. This is a fairly simple way to get teachers engaged as researchers and to not rely on the potentially fragile argument of personal experience based on no theory or concrete references which can be used to triangulate opinions.
- Attempt to peel away the layers of obviousness. Never assume interpretation, motivation, or purpose of any statement. If something

seems obvious, question it. Intentionally look for statements that are assumed obvious and question them.

What Might it Mean for Professional Developers?

There is much work to be completed by professional developers if they are to increase the dynamic nature of reflective, inquiry-based discourse among practitioners in collaborative settings considering that little evidence was noted of teachers consistently engaging in reflective discourse. This opens a door of possibility for professional developers. If we are to truly develop an appreciation for knowledge-in-practice, we must support teachers in developing reflective, inquiry-based discourse skills. We must help teachers use evidence from observations to inquire about effectiveness of instructional strategies instead of relying heavily on judgment statements and personal experiences, as was the case in this study.

Constraints to Change

To engage in such work will require care and attention to un-doing the work of time. Schools have, for hundreds of years, established traditions, routines, systems, and an organizational status quo, creating some very real challenges to growing collaborative communities of professional learners. Lieberman and Miller (2008b) outline some of the areas requiring attention if we are to help schools and teachers overcome some of the obstacles to developing capacities of such practice. Groups must be supported in building the capacity for “honest talk,” the capacity to do “knowledge work,” the “capacity to

connect professional learning with classroom practice and student learning," the "capacity to go public", and the capacity to "redefine the teacher role" (Lieberman & Miller, 2008b, pp. 18-28). Teachers are pressed by standards and assessments. Time, organizational structures, and routines and habits of isolated practice mark the radar of concern when considering increasing collaboration in schools, or any change for that matter (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Fullan, 2001; Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, & Hall, 1998; Payne & Kaba, 2007; Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Talbot & McLaughlin, 2002). Payne and Kaba (2007) identify five impediments to change. These impediments include social infrastructure, building-level politics, instructional capacity, environmental turbulence, and structure of support for implementation (p. 33). Teachers' concerns for change reflect deep, personal pressures. These concerns refer to:

> The feelings, thoughts, and reactions individuals have about a new program or innovation that touches their lives. Being concerned about change is universal, even though the nature of the concerns varies from person to person. Concerns exert a powerful influence on the implementation of a change, and they determine the kinds of assistance that teachers find useful. (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, & Hall, 1998, p. 30)

It is apparent from these findings that professional developers must carefully navigate a course from the status quo inward, helping teachers and administrators first look introspectively at what defines their practice and communities before moving forward in implementing structures of support. In reference to this study, these structures would provide a foundation for collaboration defined by reflective, inquiry-based

discourse in which teachers relied more on knowledge-of-practice to evolve pedagogically.

Potential Support Entry-points

Hunt (2009) states that, “Enabling educational systems to achieve on a wide scale the kind of teaching that has a substantial impact on student learning requires much more intensive and effective professional learning than has traditionally been available” (p. 2). Understanding the ways, if any, that varying professional development experiences influence teacher discourse may carry some implications that, if applied to professional learning approaches, could increase the effectiveness and efficiency of teacher learning.

The findings from this study suggest that formal training in an instructional model does influence the frequency with which teachers refer to that model in collaborative settings. Researcher field notes also recorded that direct reference to the instructional model through a protocol positively increased in relation to the amount of training that teachers had received.

Evidence from the focus groups’ conversations supports the hypothesis that after receiving formal workshop training, coaching training, and being coached, teachers exhibited the most dynamic use of the instructional model in their discourse.

Considering these findings it may be important, if your goal is to increase teacher understanding of an instructional model while simultaneously developing peer coaching skills around this model, to consider a multi-layered approach to a professional development model, beginning with traditional coaching and moving towards having

teachers actually coach their peers. This parallels the belief that a person will best learn something if they are required to teach it. The extra twist in this case is that as teachers move into the role of coaching, they should also be learning how to give a voice to their inquiry, vocalizing a dynamic process of reflective analysis in relation to the instructional model being studied and positioning themselves on an inbound trajectory toward the role of an insider in a community of practice defined by inquiry-based discourse.

If we may assume that inquiry and reflection are critical ingredients of effective, transformative discourse, a critical responsibility of professional developers will be to create structures of support for increasing the use of reflection and inquiry within collaborative communities. This will not be easy work.

When expecting teachers to engage in collaborative discourse, professional developers might begin by considering which Tier of Readiness each teacher is at, therefore being able to more accurately scaffold teacher learning towards the desired goal. Next, professional developers will want to conduct some type of professional learning audit, unveiling the culture that exists in the community as it currently functions. Sharing the findings from this audit with the community members may serve as a springboard toward calibration of reality and desired states of being. Schedules can be realigned to allow time for collaboration. Teams can be provided with inquiry-based prompts to be addressed during these common collaboration times. On a more simple scale, professional developers can facilitate conversations in such a way as to elicit inquiry and reflection. Professional developers can ask questions of teachers which require teachers position themselves in a reflective stance. Professional developers can

provide opportunities which require teachers engage in action research, lesson study, and other activities which empower teachers to rely on knowledge-of-practice to solve classroom-based problems regarding teaching and learning. There is much to be done and the evidence and research both support the need for this work.

When looking at the findings from this study, it is staggering to note just how few questions, especially inquiry-based questions, were asked among all participants, regardless of the type of professional development they had received. If professional developers could emphasize practices that relied more on finding questions and digging for new and creative answers, as opposed to simply sharing what has always been done, over time schools might cradle continuous improvement through the consistent interplay of co-constructed knowledge-of-practice among peers who work together to question and push the status quo in overt, intentional ways.

What Might It Mean For Policy?

As school boards, state departments of education, and state and national political leaders are requiring a greater adherence to research-based decision making in schools (United States Department of Education, 2001), these policy makers must simultaneously be aware of the success stories of schools making improvement sustained on collaborative teacher expertise and site-based management (Smith, Wilson, & Corbett, 2009). Through the fear of No Child Left Behind and Adequate Yearly Progress, there is evidence that “teacher proof” curricula have enticed some policy makers and administrators to invest is professional development that shelters teachers from the

challenge that Sparks (2008) describes as the "exhilaration of working on the leading edge of my competence, I sometimes knew the fear of stepping off that edge onto a tightrope unprotected by a safety net" (p. 4). However, educators are working in an arena of possibility, at a time when administrators are actualizing pedagogical agreement with Dewey (1933) that:

> Reflection emancipates us from merely impulsive and routine activity . . . enables us to direct our actions with foresight and to plan according to ends in view of purposes of which we are aware. It enables us to know what we are about when we act. (p. 17)

Over sixty years later, Zeichner and Liston (1996) carried this philosophy forward and stated that:

> During the last decade, the slogan of reflective teaching has been embraced by teachers, teacher educators, and educational researchers all over the world. This international movement in teaching and teacher education that has developed under the banner of reflection can be seen as a reaction against the view of teachers as technicians who narrowly construe the nature of the problems confronting them and merely carry out what others, removed from the classroom, want them to do. (p. 4)

Currently, over a decade after Zeichner and Liston wrote the statement above, it appears as though the buy-in might be even stronger. Policy-makers and educational leaders are becoming more aware of the intricate threads required to build strength among a community of professionals. Garmston (2008) suggests that:

> Leaders at all levels – principals, department heads, grade-level leaders, and others – can develop the communication capacities necessary to function as professional learning communities. They provide time and space for groups to meet and talk, encourage talk about substantive topics related to learning, and introduce protocols that make it safe to talk about difficult-to-discuss topics and skills. (p. 69)

Considering the inertia that collaboration, inquiry, and reflection as avenues for teacher learning have gained over the last 100 years, the reality is that teachers, administrators, and policy makers still have a wide chasm to span if they are to ignite the potential of these learning avenues thorough professional learning structures. Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos (2009) state that:

> The structures and supports that are needed to sustain teacher learning and change and to foster job-embedded professional development in collegial environments fall short. . . . How can states, districts, and schools build their capacity to provide high-quality professional development that is effective in building teacher knowledge, improving their instruction, and supporting student learning? (p. 27)

While there is much work to be done on many levels to deliver answers to this question into the hands of practitioners, the findings from this study can be used to inform the work that policy makers must engage in to support and clear the way for the quality of professional learning that teachers and students deserve. If we are to continue to see collaboration, reflection, and inquiry as critical components of teacher learning, we must more closely scrutinize the effects of professional development activities on the discourse of teachers. Lieberman and Miller (2008b) claim that:

> As teachers make commitments to their professional learning communities, they simultaneously develop new ways of talking and thinking. They learn to move from congenial to collegial conversation and to take part in honest talk. They develop the ability and disposition to do knowledge work and engage with theory and research as well as with practice. (p. 18)

Summary

Considering the research and literature from current, recent, and past theorists and researchers, there are critical links in meaningful professional learning which must be

developed, primarily inquiry and reflection within collaborative discourse. As collaborative structures of staff development move boldly into the center ring of school improvement, we will need to carefully evaluate how professional development influences teacher discourse to embody and give voice to reflection and inquiry. The findings from this study highlight the following key points –

- Professional development may influence the degree to which teachers use inquiry and reflection in collaborative discourse
- Teachers who participate in site-based coaching and receive training in how to act as a peer coach for their colleagues might produce more reflective discourse than teachers who receive only traditional training.
- Inquiry and reflection do not appear to be inherent in teacher collaborative discourse among teachers that have not created norms for or a culture of such behavior.

Next Steps

There is great potential for further study on this topic. First, discourse, inquiry, reflection, knowledge-of-practice, and legitimate peripheral participation are not finite, easily measurable behaviors, habits, or structures. Considering this, it would be valuable to continually refine the education profession's operational definitions and conceptual frameworks of these principles and build wider support for their role in professional learning through commonly focused efforts. Defining and identifying reflective moments and evidence of inquiry in and around teaching can be an elusive endeavor, yet we must continue to pursue avenues which may aid in articulating such practice if professional development is to play a role in advancing them more into the mainstream of teachers' work.

Professional developers – as teachers, consultants, coaches, researchers, policy makers, and others engaged in the work of improving learning experiences for students by improving the instruction teachers provide – must work diligently to correlate professional learning endeavors to teacher practice, and student learning. Through many perspectives, there are giant gaps between each of these arenas. Until we can clearly show an influential relationship and logical flow through each of these events we may quite possibly be investing a great deal of time and money into practices which look and feel great, but do not actualize intended goals. We do know that teachers who engage their students in more inquiry-based and reflective discourse produce greater student achievement (Newmann & Associates, 1996). However, we do not know specifically that when teachers engage in collegial discourse marked by these same characteristics the result will positively influence student achievement. The gap between professional development and student achievement can be significant, not factoring for something as elusive as patterns of discourse in collaboration. Until will can clearly show this relationship, the argument for incorporating reflection and inquiry in collaborative discourse among practitioners is based solely on feel-good assumptions and hypothesized chains of reason.

This study has brought to light other questions to be investigated as well, including:

1. How might professional development support teachers in recognizing and harnessing opportunities of growth within discourse?

2. As professional developers, teachers, administrators, pre-service teacher educators, and policy makers, do we accept the findings from this study?
    a. What might be done to invert some of the patterns within statement types and discourse types?
    b. What might be the results of such inversion?
3. Why do teachers not navigate out of discourse "**safe zones**" and how might PD reduce barriers to teachers engaging in "**high-risk**" discourse?
4. How might PD be structured to increase inquiry-based statements in collaboration?
5. Do statements need to be overtly inquiry-based or reflective to lead to pedagogical evolution?

It must also be noted, that, in alignment with the epistemological beliefs grounding this research, you, the reader, will hopefully move forward with intention and attention to the implications and discussions presented in this study. Figure 5.2 presents a potential sequence for engaging with change through action and reflection.

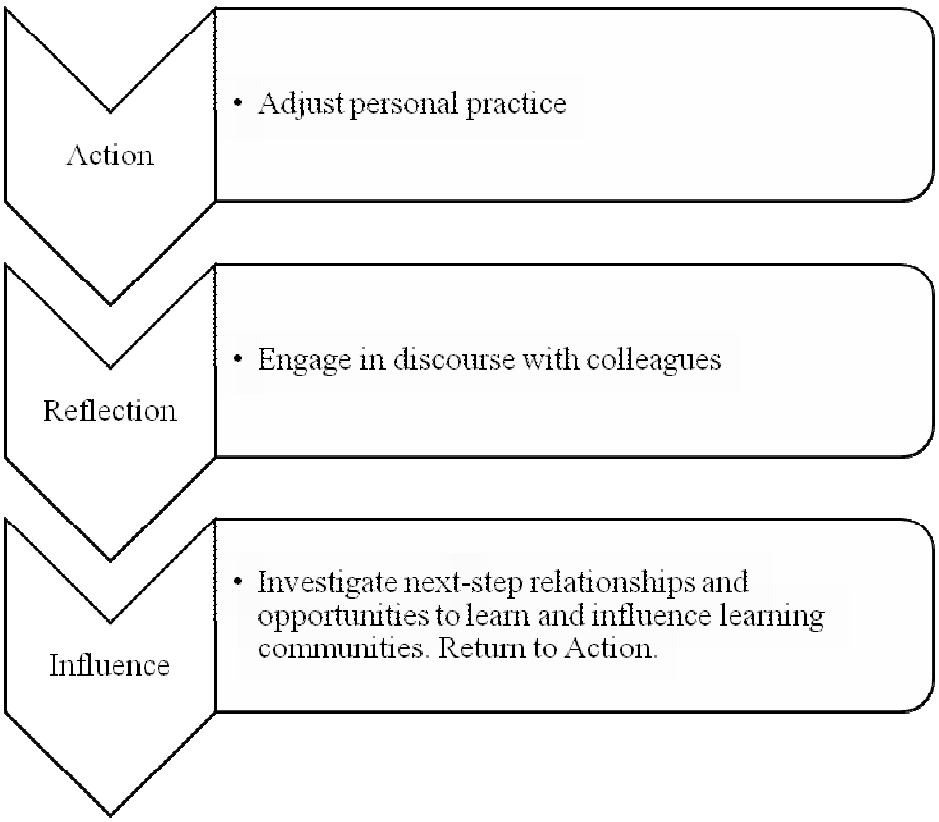


Figure 5.2. Potential Sequence of Change Engagement

It would make sense, considering the findings provided by this study, to look at ways in which professional learning environments may specifically *support* the development of reflection and inquiry within collaborative cultures. However, it must be noted that the relationship between teachers and professional development should be handled with care, for the two share the common goal of improving learning experiences for students, but for too long teachers have felt the cumbersome weight of ineffective professional development requirements upon their backs. Moving forward, the goal of

professional developers must be to identify ways to support teachers in developing those skills which facilitate learning for students and the educators who support them.

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APPENDIX A

Descriptions of Smith's Point Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol Training

Descriptions of Boise School District Phase I-V SIOP® Training Options

Phase I

Develop a beginning foundation or framework for sheltered instruction
Discuss a beginning lexicon regarding the components of effective sheltered instruction.
Identify components reflective lesson planning framework & lesson delivery model
Link concepts to participants' backgrounds
Analyze a variety of techniques for improving student achievement
Compare various grouping techniques for enhanced learning such as individuals, pairs or small groups, & whole group
Read session materials and write personal examples

Phase II

Develop a deeper understanding of sheltered instruction as defined by the SIOP® framework.
Create a SIOP® driven lesson plan that reflects cultural & linguistic appropriateness which includes at least two grouping techniques, one graphic organizer and/or foldable and one jazz chant.

Phase III

Develop a deeper understanding of the eight components of the SIOP along with the 30 features as a protocol and coaching instrument.
View all chapters of the SIOP® video.
Compare and contrast the video teachers' instruction, as well as the research, with regards to the SIOP® protocol's eight components and 30 features with their own background experiences.
Identify two strategies for each component from additional resources.

Phase IV

Create lessons, units, and/or instructional materials that integrate the eight components of the SIOP®.
Collaboratively use the SIOP® with peers to critique and evaluate the effectiveness of the work being created.
Set professional goals describing ways to continue to develop the ideas being generated.

Phase V

Learn the foundational skills of coaching. Work on defining the role of a coach, building the language of a coach, practice observation skills and providing inquiry-based feedback, and problem-solve challenges and obstacles.

Calibration

Implement components of effective sheltered instruction into your teaching with the support of a coach. Basic calibration includes at least 4 rounds of a three stage cycle – preconference, observation, postconference. Increase instructional effectiveness while simultaneously learning more about the role of a coach.

APPENDIX B

Initial Participant Email Survey Letter

Initial Participant Email Survey Letter

Dear Teachers,
I know you are busy, so I will keep this short and to the point. We are compiling some basic data regarding SIOP training and coaching. Please answer each question below with a simple Y (Yes), N (No), or U (Unsure) (*you can click "Reply", then just type your response after each question. Please respond to EVERY QUESTION. Answer as accurately as possible*).
Thank you!
Brian W.

Y (Yes), N (No), or U (Unsure)
1) Have you participated in SIOP I?
2) Have you participated in SIOP II?
3) Have you participated in SIOP III?
4) Have you participated in SIOP IV?
5) Have you participated in SIOP V: Foundations of coaching?
6) Have you been "calibrated" or coached with the SIOP?

7) Would you be willing to participate in a 2 hour focus group that will meet twice in late November (you DO NOT need to have had any SIOP training, we need focus group participants of all levels)?
Participants will get to look at sample SIOP instruction, **collaboratively plan a lesson**, and then provide feedback on the lesson's effectiveness after it has been taught. Participants will receive a **gift certificate** and **refreshments** will be provided.

APPENDIX C

Follow-up Email Letter to Interested Potential Participants

Follow-up Email Letter to Interested Potential Participants

Thank you for your reply to the "Survey & Invitation" email that you received recently and for expressing a willingness to participate in a focus group.

PLEASE RSVP BY _____ IF YOU ARE ABLE TO ATTEND THE FOLLOWING:

SESSION 1
Date: _____, Location: _____
Refreshments will be provided
At this session, you will, with 2-4 colleagues, view a video of a teacher using the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), discuss what you observed in regards to the lesson design and student engagement in the video and then collaboratively plan a lesson of your own. One participant from your focus group will be asked to voluntarily video their own instruction (OPTIONAL) of the lesson that was collaboratively planned by the group sometime before Session 2.

SESSION 2
Date: _____, Location: _____
Refreshments will be provided & Gift Certificates will be awarded
At this session, you will, with the same 2-4 colleagues as in Session 1, get the opportunity to view the video of your peer teaching the lesson that you collaboratively planned. After viewing the video you will collaboratively discuss what you observed in regards to the lesson design and student engagement.

APPENDIX D

Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

SHELTERED INSTRUCTION OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

		Highly Evident		Somewhat Evident		Not Evident	N A
	Preparation	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**	
1.	Clearly defined content objectives for students						
2.	Write language objectives clearly for students						
3.	Choose content concepts appropriate for age and educational background level of students						
4.	Supplementary materials used to a high degree, making the lesson clear and meaningful (graphs, models, visuals)						
5.	Adaptation of content (e.g., text, assignment) to all levels of student proficiency						
6.	Meaningful activities that integrate lesson concepts (e.g., surveys, letter writing, simulations, constructing models) with language practice opportunities for reading, writing, listening, and/or speaking						
	Comments:						
	Building Background	4	3	2	1	0	
7.	Concepts explicitly linked to students' background experiences						
8.	Links explicitly made between past learning and new concepts						
9.	Key vocabulary emphasized (e.g., introduced, written, repeated and highlighted for student to see)						
	Comments:						
	Comprehensible Input	4	3	2	1	0	
10.	Speech appropriate for students' proficiency level (e.g. slower rate, enunciation and simple sentence structure for beginners)						
11.	Explanation of academic tasks clear						
12.	Uses a variety of techniques to make content concepts clear (e.g., modeling, visuals, hands-on activities, demonstrations, gestures, body language)						

	Comments:						
	Strategies	4	3	2	1	0	
13.	Provides ample opportunities for student use cognitive, metacognitive, social/affective strategies						
14.	Consistent use of scaffolding techniques throughout lesson, assisting and supporting student understanding such as think-alouds						
15.	Teacher uses a variety of question types throughout the lesson including those that promote higher-order thinking skills throughout the lesson						
	Comments:						
	Interaction	4	3	2	1	0	
16.	Frequent opportunities for interactions and discussion between teacher/student and among students, which encourage elaborated responses about lesson concepts						
17.	Grouping configurations support language and content objectives						
18.	Consistently provides sufficient wait time for student responses						
19.	Ample opportunities for students to clarify key concepts in L1						
	Comments:						
	Practice & Application	4	3	2	1	0	
20.	Provides hands-on materials and/or manipulatives for students to practice using new content knowledge						
21.	Provides activities for students to apply content and language knowledge in the classroom						
22.	Uses activities that integrate all language skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening, and speaking)						
	Comments:						

	Lesson Delivery	4	3	2	1	0	
23.	Content objectives clearly supported by lesson delivery						
24.	Language objectives clearly supported by lesson delivery						
25.	Students engaged approximately 90-100% of the period (see Glossary)						
26.	Pacing of the lesson appropriate to the students' ability level						
	Comments:						
	Review & Assessment	4	3	2	1	0	
27.	Comprehensive review of key vocabulary						
28.	Comprehensive review of key content concepts						
29.	Regularly provides feedback to students on their output (e.g., language, content, work)						
30.	Conducts assessment of student comprehension and learning of all lesson objectives (e.g., spot checking, group response) throughout the lesson. (see Glossary)						
	Comments:						

APPENDIX E

Survey: General Questions for Participants in Focus Groups

General Questions for Participants in Focus Groups

- *Please answer questions on a scale of 1-3 (3 being the highest, greatest, strongest)*
- *Please feel free to include any written response that you would like.*
- *Please return this survey through email or district mail.*

1) Do you work collaboratively in your building (as a school or team)?
   1 2 3

2) Do you enjoy working collaboratively?
   1 2 3

3) Would you consider yourself a reflective practitioner?
   1 2 3

4) Do you believe that being a peer coach could be a successful way for you to improve your own practice?
   1 2 3

5) Do you believe that receiving coaching from a peer coach is a successful way for you to improve your practice?
   1 2 3

6) In relation to working with your colleagues, would you consider yourself more of a "teacher", "sharer", "listener", or "other"? Please explain –

7) Where do you go to get information that might help you improve your practice (journals, workshops, peers, lesson study, inquiry, etc)? Please explain –

8) Please briefly (as close to one sentence as possible) define the following terms:
   - Collaboration –
   - Reflective –
   - Discourse –
   - Inquiry –
   - Peer Coaching –

9) Why did you choose to participate in this study?

APPENDIX F

Focus Group Meeting Agenda

Thank you for helping with this study of SIOP training!

I am excited to have you participate in this focus group. See details below.

Purpose of Study: The purpose of this study is to understand in what ways, if any, does teacher collaborative discourse differ considering various levels of professional development teachers have received.

At today's meeting –

1. Complete a consent form
2. If you agree to participate in this study, the following will occur:
    1. You will view a 5 minute video of a teacher teaching a lesson with 2-4 other teachers/participants.
    2. After viewing this video, you will collaboratively discuss the lesson observed, discussing the lesson's strengths and providing suggestions for improvement. You may use the SIOP® to help with your feedback.
    3. You will collaboratively plan a lesson with 2-4 other teachers/participants.

After this meeting, you may volunteer to teach and video record the lesson you planned in Step 3 with your students.

At our second meeting –

1. You will view a video of a peer teaching the lesson that you planned in Step 3 with 2-4 other teachers/participants.
2. After viewing this video, you will collaboratively discuss the lesson observed, discussing the lesson's strengths and providing suggestions for improvement. You may use the SIOP® to help with your feedback.

We will meet at the Smith's Point Teacher Learning Center.
Each session will not last longer than two hours.

If you have questions or concerns, you may contact the researcher at 812-5829