

COACHING A TEACHER TO USE DIALOGIC INQUIRY:
FOSTERING STUDENTS' TALK ABOUT TEXTS

A DISSERTATION

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BY

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DEDICATION

To my family

To my husband, Frank,
who loved and encouraged me through it all.

To my son, Matt,
who is the joy of my life.

To my grandchildren, Natalee, Reid, Jace, and Brynn,
whom I love beyond measure.

To my mother, Jo Lloyd,
who taught me the value of education and encouraged me to be a lifelong learner.

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Finally, I am thankful to my mother. As valedictorian of her high school graduating class, Mother did not have the thirty-four dollars necessary to attend college. Nevertheless, with iron-willed determination, she became a successful banker and was recognized as one of the Top Ten Business Women in Texas. Thank you, my sweet

mother, for adopting me, loving me, supporting me, and teaching me that I could attain seemingly impossible goals with perseverance. I think you would be proud of me.

ABSTRACT

KATHRYN L. NORTHCUTT

COACHING A TEACHER TO USE DIALOGIC INQUIRY: FOSTERING STUDENTS' TALK ABOUT TEXTS

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The purpose of this descriptive case study was to investigate, from a constructivist paradigm, the extent to which coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry fostered students' conversations about texts. One 3rd grade teacher and 15 of her students participated in this project that spanned the course of one semester of school. I video recorded the teacher's and students' conversations about texts bi-weekly for a total of six observations. After transcribing the recordings using Wells's (1999; 2001) discourse analysis coding protocol, I coached the teacher, on alternating weeks, toward adopting a more dialogic stance in her conversations with students. One final observation took place at the end of the semester as a means of determining the extent to which dialogic conversations were sustained.

The teacher's level of adaptive expertise (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986) in dialogic inquiry was of primary importance in planning coaching sessions, and I used several tools to assist me. First, I considered how the teacher's knowledge base about dialogic inquiry increased over time, using a continuum developed by Snow, Griffin, and Burns (2005). A complementary scale by Joyce and Showers (2002) provided insight into how the

teacher's knowledge and training was transferred to her practice (2002). The Dialogic Inquiry Tool (Reznitskaya, Glina, & Oyler, 2011) was a continuum both the teacher and I used to establish the degree to which the teacher's and students' stances shifted along several indicators toward dialogic conversations.

Findings suggest that coaching a teacher to use dialogic inquiry influences students' dialogic conversations about texts. As the teacher was supported in developing theoretical understandings, her knowledge base increased and transfer of knowledge and training occurred. Consequently, she progressed from novice to being a more adaptive expert in her dialogic stance with students.

Findings also indicate that students practiced more dialogic conversations in direct relationship to the teacher's shifting stance toward an inquiry approach. As the teacher extended conversations, students talked more with her and with each other. As their thinking was expanded, students began to participate in conversations in more sophisticated and dialogic ways.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“Teaching...can be likened to a conversation in which you listen to the speaker carefully before you reply.”

--Marie Clay

Effective literacy instruction in schools has long been a source of debate among researchers, politicians, administrators, and teachers (Allington, 2002; Paterson, 2000; U. S. Department of Education [USDOE], 1983; U. S. Department of Health [DOH], 2000). Throughout the history of literacy education in the United States, the educational pendulum has swung from one paradigm to another in an effort to stay current with research-based procedures and educational trends. However, in spite of resource allocation and focused attention on reading instruction in the United States, students in grade 4 scored only 5 points higher on the scale scores from the 1992 administration of the National Assessment of Educational Progress to the 2013 administration (U. S. Department of Education [USDOE], 2013). A full 32% of fourth grade students continue to score below the “Basic” level of proficiency for reading comprehension, with another 33% scoring at the Basic level (USDOE, 2013). Since the basis for becoming literate holds oral language as its roots (Bakhtin, 1981; Clay, 1999; Wells, 1999), it seems incumbent upon educators and researchers to reflect on the role that oral language plays in mediating meaningful literacy experiences in classrooms. In this study, I explore what

happens when a teacher is coached to engage students in active and responsive talk about texts.

Theoretical Framework

From a socio-constructivist paradigm where all learning is socially mediated through language (Bakhtin, 1981; Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1999), classroom conversations about texts should be investigated as an influential construct of children's literacy processes. According to Vygotsky (1978), the child's mind develops in the course of social experiences through the use of psychological tools such as language, concepts, symbols, and signs. An expert, such as an adult or a more capable peer, exploits these psychological tools through joint experiences with children. In this manner, the child has the ability to function in more complex ways with the assistance of the expert other. Language, in social constructivist theory, is a psychological tool of mental development, and it is regarded as a mediator of meaning as individuals construct both shared and individual understandings. Bakhtin (1981), a contemporary of Vygotsky, contributed to the socio-constructivist paradigm as he further theorized about the importance of language in mental development. Critical to Bakhtin (1981) were the relationships established through utterances, or units of meaning, in conversations. For Bakhtin (1981), the relationships of meaning that are established in conversations were equally as important as the participants. Wells (1999) furthered Vygotsky's (1978) and Bakhtin's (1981) arguments as he extended thinking about the importance of dialogue and dialogic inquiry in contemporary classrooms. His work focused on the role of

dialogue and dialogic inquiry in schools, where meaning is constructed uniquely and exclusively by participants. Both Bakhtin (1981) and Wells (1999) furthered the socio-constructivist paradigm in considering the importance of not only “what” conversational participants say, but “how” the words are put together, both contextually and linguistically, to negotiate meaning.

Background for the Study

Mehan (1979) found that teachers tend to favor a pattern of classroom interactions where the teacher initiates a question, students respond, and the teacher evaluates the answer (Initiation-Response-Evaluation), and this pattern of interaction precludes students from becoming actively involved in constructing meaning from texts. Bakhtin (1981) defined such interactions as being monologic, in the sense that the control of conversation lies with one person, the teacher. The teacher “knows and possesses the truth and instructs someone who is ignorant of it and in error” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 81). In contrast, dialogic interactions are “born between people collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 110). Wells (1999) extended Bakhtin’s work by describing how language is situated within contexts. The speakers in a conversation bring all the facets of their life experiences, cultures, and language to contribute to a specific and unique interchange in which meaning is further mediated through utterances and words (Wells, 1999). Bakhtin (1981) and Wells (1999) described the extent to which speakers and listeners are both actively involved in their own construction of meaning.

Wells (1999) used the term dialogic inquiry to define a stance toward teaching and talking with students about texts. This approach to text conversations examines the active, responsive nature of language as conversational participants engage in constructing, reconstructing, and appropriating meaning. Authentic talk is of primary importance as participants share control of conversations while contributing to the construction of meaning for themselves, for each other, and for the groups' negotiated understandings. Teachers take on the roles of learner, listener, contributor, and collaborator in efforts to hear and understand the voices of their students as they respond to the voices of a text (Bakhtin, 1981). As students contribute and participate in talk surrounding the texts they read, meaning is both constructed and enhanced.

Wells (1999) argued that an inquiry approach to conversation is equally critical. Inquiry is significant to the extent that the activity becomes real to participants and not a traditional question and answer session about facts in texts. Rather, inquiry is realized when teachers organize activities around relevant topics and familiar experiences (Wells, 1999). In Dewey's (1997) seminal work, he, too, argued for the value of students' knowledge building with ordinary experiences as he emphasized the importance of involving students in "the formation of the purposes which direct activities" (p. 67). Other more recent research emphasized the importance of teachers creating an investigative stance in classroom activities (Brown and Campione, 1994; Gardner, 1989; Scardamalia, Bereiter, & Lamon, 1994). Wells (1999) asserted that a major purpose of

classroom activities is to cultivate a stance of inquiry about the questions or wonderings in which students are truly interested.

In order to move teachers toward an inquiry approach to dialogic conversations in classrooms, professional development opportunities must be carefully designed. Several significant studies question the impact and effectiveness of traditional professional development models where teachers are exposed to a one-shot approach in which teachers receive a large amount of information within a day or over a few days with no subsequent support (Fullan, 1997; Hughes, Cash, Ahwee, & Klinger, 2002; Wilson & Berne, 1999). Researchers concluded this method is ineffective in sustaining teacher learning and changing practice (Fullan, 1997; Hughes, Cash, Ahwee, & Klinger, 2002; Wilson & Berne, 1999).

In shaping professional development opportunities for teachers that effect changes in their practices, current research in the socio-constructivist framework espouses job-embedded staff development opportunities. Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) defined job-embedded learning as that which is grounded in teaching practice and is designed to enhance teachers' instructional practices with the intent of improving student learning. As early as 1980, Joyce and Showers characterized instructional coaching as a system involving a collegial approach for teacher observation and feedback for the purpose of improving classroom instruction. As teachers have opportunities to reflect upon their practice, within a supportive environment, both instructional coach and teacher

have the opportunities to discuss students' literacy behaviors in ways that extend capacities of understanding.

In 2011, the National Staff Development Council further provided guidelines that support a coaching framework to ensure that teachers' learning opportunities are effective and efficient. All seven criteria identified by the Council as being gold standards for professional development are achieved through the job-embedded practice of coaching:

- Establishing professional learning communities;
- Prioritizing, monitoring, and coordinating resources for educator learning;
- Integrating theories, research, and models of learning to achieve intended outcomes;
- Aligning outcomes with educator performance;
- Creating support systems for professional learning;
- Using a variety of sources and types of student and educator data in order to plan, assess, and evaluate professional learning; and
- Implementing and sustaining support of professional learning (National Staff Development Council, 2011).

Thus, coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry provides the theoretical framework for teacher learning that is consistent with the current research within the socio-constructivist paradigm.

Problem

While dialogic text conversations are consistent within a socio-constructivist paradigm, research confirms that in most school settings a monologic pattern of teacher and student conversations exists (Cazden, 2001; Gee, 1990; Mehan, 1979; Wells, 1999). In typical situations, as teachers pose questions, students are expected to respond with one- or two-word answers (Cazden, 2001; Gee, 1990; Mehan, 1979; Wells, 1999). The pattern then extends to teacher evaluation of student comments (Mehan, 1979). Hence, in a monologic discussion pattern, students are precluded from engaging in meaningful conversations about text, affecting their opportunities to construct meaning (Cazden, 2001; Gee, 1990; Mehan, 1979; Wells, 1999). Coaching teachers in dialogic inquiry, the practice of establishing authentic and genuine dialogue as it is infused in inquiry-based teaching and learning, allows them an alternative to a monologic pattern of discourse. Dialogic inquiry may provide more relevant, effective, and efficient teaching processes that maximize students' learning (Bakhtin, 1981; Gee, 1990; Wells, 1999).

Purpose and Research Questions

This descriptive case study was designed to investigate, from a socio-constructivist paradigm, the extent to which coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry (Wells, 1999) influences meaningful dialogue about text with third-grade students.

Overarching Question: What happens when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry?

Research Questions: To what extent does coaching a teacher in dialogic inquiry foster changes in conversations with students about texts?

- a. How do coaching experiences in the use of dialogic inquiry influence a teacher's conversations with students about text?
- b. How do student contributions to text conversations change when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry?

Significance of Study

Numerous studies are available on the topics of classroom conversations about text and the importance of oral language in the construction of meaning (Cazden, 2001; Gee, 1990; Mehan, 1979; Wells, 1999). While there are additional articles on theoretical perspectives and instructional practices associated with instructional coaching, few research studies are available in the current literature regarding coaching teachers toward adopting a dialogic, inquiry-based stance in text conversations with students. The studies that appear robust examine instructional coaching either from the perspective of changing programs, materials, or instructional strategies that teachers' use in their practice or from the perspective of student outcomes. However, there is a dearth of studies that examine the influence of coaching a teacher as related to students actively participating in meaningful conversations about text. Hence, a gap in the literature exists. An investigation of coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry has the potential to provide insight into a teacher's practice of questioning students about text. Furthermore, as a teacher adjusts her conversational patterns, students may participate more actively in

conversations about text. A study investigating how a teacher modifies her conversations with students about text may provide a nexus for readers to participate in conversations that will reinforce, modify, and expand their thinking.

Definitions of Key Terms

The following terms are used in this study:

Bound exchange:	Exchanges that are not free-standing but are bound to a nuclear exchange.
Dependent exchange:	A type of bound exchange in which some aspect of the nuclear exchange is developed through clarification, justification, or another extension.
Dialogism:	A principle defined by Bakhtin that recognizes the multiplicity of perspectives and voices; how language shapes both action and thought.
Dialogic:	Having the characteristic of multiple perspectives and voices.
Dialogic Inquiry:	A conversational approach in which participants actively and responsively engage in constructing, reconstructing, and appropriating meaning.
Dialogue:	Communication of thought. Used synonymously with discourse and classroom conversations throughout this study.
Discourse:	Communication of thought. Used synonymously with dialogue and classroom conversations through this study.

D-I-T: Dialogic Inquiry Tool (Reznitskaya, Glina, & Olyer, 2011).

It consists of two separate rubrics. One is used in examining the teacher's dialogic, inquiry-based approaches toward conversations with students about texts, and the second is used to measure the degree to

which students reflect a dialogic, inquiry-based stance in conversations about texts. Both the teacher rubric and the student rubric are used for two purposes: (a) as a scaffold to coach the teacher, and (b) as a data analysis tool.

Embedded exchange:	A category of a bound exchange that deals with problems in the uptake of a move in the current exchange. For example, a need for repetition and a nomination of a speaker are embedded exchanges.
Exchange:	Combination of reciprocally related moves; According to Wells (1999), the most appropriate unit of discourse analysis; Consists of initiating move, response move, and under certain conditions, a follow-up move.
Heteroglossia:	The combining of existing statements or speech-genres to form a text.
Inquiry:	An approach to learning that is based on investigation about issues relevant to the learner.
Mediate:	To form a connecting link.
Mediator:	A structure that connects something that is known to something that is unknown.
Monologic:	Having the characteristic of one, authoritative perspective and voice; assumes a position of power and truth.
Move:	Smallest building block of discourse, according to Wells (1999), consisting of a question, answer, or statement.
Nuclear exchange:	An exchange which can stand alone (Wells, 1999).
Sequence:	The unit of discourse that includes a single nuclear exchange and all exchanges that are bound to it.

Uptake:	The way in which the previous response was taken up, and as a result, extends the previous response. The carrying forward of a conversational move. It occurs when a conversant asks someone else about something the other person said previously.
Utterance:	A unit of meaningful language, according to Bakhtin's (1981)

Assumptions

I assumed *a priori* that coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry would positively impact student conversations about text. However, the goal of this study was to provide rich descriptions of the coaching events as well as subsequent teacher and student conversations. In this regard, student conversations surrounding texts were transcribed and examined in order to describe if or how students' conversations changed.

Delimitations

This study was limited to one third-grade classroom teacher and her students in a public elementary school during the teacher's literacy block. Data were collected from video recordings, transcripts of the videos, my anecdotal notes, the teacher's reflective journal, and my reflective journal.

Limitations

Since this is a case study, the results of data analysis are not generalized to populations of students. Rather, the study provides a "thick description" of ways in which a teacher responded to coaching in dialogic inquiry as well as ways in which students responded in talking about texts.

I conducted the study in a school where I had personal relationships with some of the teachers. In an effort to avoid bias, I recruited a teacher that I did not know well. In addition, the methods of using varied data described above provided a means of triangulating data in order to establish credibility and trustworthiness.

The students in this study comprised a heterogeneously grouped third grade class that is typical within the given district demographic data. However, it is possible that the students in this study were not representative of most other third grade students.

Studying only one classroom and one teacher may limit this study. Additionally, the number of classroom observations may have been a limitation. In order to further analyze results, there was a final classroom observation that took place one month after the 10-week period of the study.

Organization of Dissertation

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study and is divided into subsections that provide an overview of the entire project. Chapter 1 is arranged into subsections as follows: (a) Theoretical Framework; (b) Background for the Study; (c) Problem; (d) Purpose and Research Questions; (e) Significance of Study; (f) Definition of Key Terms; (g) Assumptions; (h) Delimitations (i) Limitations and (j) Organization of Dissertation. Chapter 2 contains the review of related literature and research. In that chapter the subsections are as follows: (a) Theoretical Framework of Language and Learning, (b) Teaching and Language, (c) Professional Development, and (d) Summary. Chapter 3 contains the methodology and procedures used to gather data

for this study. Presentation of Findings, in chronological order, is reported in Chapter 4. Discussion of Findings and Implications are included in Chapter 5, along with answers to research questions, implications, and directions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In my work with elementary classroom teachers, I often hear that many students have difficulty with thinking about texts. Further, teachers report that while many of their students are fairly adept at answering questions about literal facts and details of texts, they have great difficulty with inferential and analytical understandings. Some of these educators believe that not only do their students perform poorly on high-stakes, multiple-choice reading comprehension tests, but that their students are actually not able to think deeply. In fact, students' lack of progress on reading comprehension national assessments is staggering, according to a recently released report compiled by the U. S. Department of Education [USDOE] (2013). The report states that there were no statistically significant improvements in reading comprehension, in fourth and eighth grades, on the 2013 administrations of the National Assessment of Educational Progress test (USDOE, 2013). Further, in 2013, students in fourth grade only scored 5 points higher in their scale scores on the reading portion of the NAEP test than students tested in 1992 (USDOE, 2013). In eighth grade, the scale scores were only eight points higher in the same 21-year time frame (USDOE, 2013). Additionally, students in Texas performed lower in 2013 on the NAEP reading assessment than their grade-level cohorts in the rest of the nation at both grades 4 and 8 (USDOE, 2013).

Since the turn of the twenty-first century, educational improvement has been a foremost issue in the United States. The findings of the National Reading Panel (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services [DOH], 2000) reported sub-skills of reading that were necessary for students' successful processing of text: (a) phonemic awareness, (b) phonics, (c) fluency, (d) vocabulary, and (e) comprehension. As a result, curricula across the country were infused with more emphasis on reading skills and strategies instruction. Currently, in an effort to elevate test scores, teachers have a propensity to focus on teaching the sub-skills mentioned on the National Reading Panel Report (DOH, 2000), yet students are not provided experiences in orchestrating comprehending actions through talk about texts as a primary component of constructing meaning.

The current trend suggests that teachers equate reading skills improvement with the development of thinking. Even though, as early as 1978, Delores Durkin found that students' lack of success in reading may have been due to teachers' frequent use of worksheets and literal-level questioning tactics to teach skills lessons, teachers in today's classrooms are still inclined to use those activities. Collins-Block and Mangieri found in 2003 that even 25 years after Durkin's seminal work, teachers favor teaching reading skills lessons in the same manner, especially to students considered at-risk. Most often these children are in one or more of the following categories: (a) minority students, (b) second-language students, or (c) socioeconomically disadvantaged students (Collins-Block & Mangieri, 2003). Hence, children in many classrooms today, and particularly at-risk students, are bombarded with computer-assisted programs, remedial programs,

tutorials, and a plethora of more or different skills worksheets and questioning practices to improve their perceived weaknesses in thinking. Some teachers have reported to me that students who have difficulty with these skills lessons are not capable of inferential and analytical thinking, with resulting blame being placed on parents, previous grade-level teachers, students watching too much television, students playing with electronic devices too much, and perceived language or cognitive deficits within the children. I have rarely had teachers question the mundane tasks they assign.

It seems as though some teachers believe that a continuum exists for thinking, with literal understanding acting as a prerequisite to children forming deeper structures of meaning. The result in many teachers' views is that until students can master literal-level understanding of facts, like recalling details, identifying cause and effect, or retelling a story, they surely are not able to progress to more inferential and abstract thinking. While worksheets and teacher questioning tactics are widely used, both for teaching and assessment (Barnes, 1992; Collins-Block & Mangieri, 2003), all too often students do not seem to be able to remember the requisite details in texts, leading some teachers to the conclusion that children, especially those at-risk, "do not know how to think."

Thinking is inextricably tied to language. In fact, most sociolinguists equate the two, and, in many cases, students are never presented with opportunities to expand their thinking through talking about texts in genuine dialogue. In fact, an overriding characteristic of many of their classrooms is that they are alarmingly quiet places,

precluding students from participating in the one activity that would help them become active, constructive thinkers about text: talk

In designing this study, I assumed that children who were having difficulty with thinking about texts were probably also having difficulty talking about texts in meaningful classroom experiences. Because coaching is effective in initiating and sustaining change in teachers' practices, I decided to coach a teacher in effective dialogic teaching behaviors in order to improve the ways in which students think and talk about texts. Therefore, based on socio-constructivist, socio-cultural, and dialogic theoretical paradigms, the purpose of this case study was to provide job-embedded professional development in the form of coaching a teacher in order to examine how shifts in teacher-student conversations could foster students' talk about texts.

In summary, the overarching question for this study was: What happens when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry? The guiding research question is: To what extent does coaching a teacher in dialogic inquiry foster changes in conversations with students about text? Two additional questions that required further clarification of the guiding question were:

- How do coaching experiences in the use of dialogic inquiry influence a teacher's conversations with students about text?
- How do student contributions to text conversations change when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry?

The following review of the literature is divided into three sections: (a) Theoretical Framework of Language and Learning, (b) Teaching and Language, and (c) Professional Development. First, I discuss a theoretical framework for language and learning upon which this study is situated. The most important theorists that informed my practice during the project were: (a) Vygotsky, (b) Bakhtin, (c) Halliday, and (d) Wells. The second section of this review, Teaching and Language is divided into the following sections: (a) Differing Views on the Role of Education, (b) Classroom Teaching Practices, (c) and Language in the Classroom. This section includes a discussion of pervasive teaching practices during classroom conversations as well as a discussion of the use of language in classrooms, in terms of monologic and dialogic teaching stances. The last section of this review contains a discussion of (a) traditional professional development, (b) coaching as job-embedded professional development, (c) what teachers need to know, (c) teacher expertise, (d) transfer of knowledge and learning, (e) teachers and coaches working collaboratively, and (f) effective coaching practices.

Theoretical Framework of Language and Learning

In the socio-constructivist and sociocultural paradigms, the role of language as a tool for thinking is emphasized. Since learning takes place in social contexts, language functions as the mediator of understanding (Bakhtin, 1981; Vygotsky, 1978). While Bakhtin (1986) was interested in researching language as it was used in literature and Vygotsky considered language as it applied to the formation of complex mental actions, Halliday (1978) and Wells (1999) provided extensive research about how language is

used in classrooms as a tool to mediate meaning about text reading and writing. Wells (1999) extended the meaning of the term *inquiry* to apply to reciprocal conversations between teachers and students and between student peer groups when he developed the idea of dialogic inquiry. The evidence is overwhelming that students' talk is critical to the construction of meaning. The following four sections describe in detail, from a historical perspective, the socio-constructivist, sociocultural, and dialogic theories on which I relied to develop this study: (a) Vygotsky, (b) Bakhtin, (c) Halliday, and (d) Wells.

Vygotsky

Socio-constructivist and sociocultural learning theories have their roots in the work of Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky, and they are based on the idea that language, thought, and reasoning are actively constructed in cultural and social contexts, through collaboration with more expert others (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky's theory was conceptualized by what he termed the learner's Zone of Proximal Development, the distance between actual development level and what one can do with expert assistance. One's ZPD is the difference between problem-solving that a learner is able to perform independently and problem-solving that is aided by expert others. While knowledge is being constructed, a learner moves through his or her ZPD, at first slowly and with assistance. With continued practice, mental actions became automatic, requiring less attention, and automaticity and "fossilization" of the behavior occur when the action no longer requires attention (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky (1978) posited that initially children use social speech to interact with others and, as they begin to play, egocentric speech develops as they tell themselves what they are doing. Later, they learn to use speech to plan what to do or to recall or re-experience what has already happened, but eventually all children learn to use speech to make new conjectures, or to construct a new reality (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky (1978) then argued for the existence of inner speech, which for older children and adults is the silent equivalent of children's egocentric speech. Vygotsky (1978) further asserted that this inner speech is the most accessible part of thought, making thinking and feeling open to introspection and control. For Vygotsky (1978) language functioned to: (a) mediate social constructs, (b) coordinate and review actions through external speech, (c) function as a medium where activities are symbolically represented, and (d) provide the tool that mediates associated mental actions. For Vygotsky (1978) the word was the unit of language that held the most relevance initially, but he also insisted that meanings of words change as context is applied (Vygotsky, 1978). He placed strong emphasis on the importance of culture and social interaction in accounting for an individual's development, and he argued that individuals have different life trajectories that shape who the child becomes (Vygotsky, 1978). As such, he established the concept of semiotic mediation, which refers to one's appropriation of cultural tools, such as language and artifacts, to aid in intellectual development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Bakhtin

Bakhtin, a contemporary of Vygotsky, maintained the importance of oral language as it is used in discussion with others (Bakhtin, 1981). For Bakhtin, the utterance was the basic unit of meaning in language, and he argued that there are stable types of utterances, or speech-genres, that are standard in national language systems (Bakhtin, 1986). A speech-genre, according to Bakhtin (1986), comprises a standard way in which language is combined. Speech-genres reflect social values and world-views and include journalistic styles as well as regional dialects (Bakhtin, 1986). As primarily a literary analyst, Bakhtin (1986) argued that conversational participants actually become authors in the speech-genres they apply through the relationships of the speakers, the context, and the spatial and temporal contexts. An example of a speech-genre would be the combination of words used in a political speech. Speakers take a position on a familiar issue and use persuasive language to influence listeners toward their own way of thinking. Certain words that express humor or outrage are used in descriptive, yet concise, discourse. For Bakhtin (1986), there is no speech without a genre. He further asserted that speech-genres intersect language and history, and the interaction of speech-genres constantly produces new ones in order to make language meaningful for conversational participants (Bakhtin, 1986). No language exists in isolation, but only in its relationships to previous as well as future language (Bakhtin, 1986).

In addition to the forms of language, Bakhtin (1981) further believed that each person assigns meaning through the particular characteristics of ever-changing and

inherently unique tasks and environments of each dialogic event. Further, people are always in dialogue, not only with each other, but also with everything in the world (Bakhtin, 1981). Bakhtin (1981) posited that each person is also unique and contributes to the shared meaning of the pair or group through conversations in which each participant and the environment participate in the dialogic event.

Polyphony and dialogism. Bakhtin's (1981) theories of polyphony and dialogism emerged from his views of the plurality of voices in language. The term polyphony is borrowed from music and literally means "multiple voices." This concept applies to Bakhtin's (1981) theory that each voice in a conversational exchange, or literary text, has its own perspective and its own validity, and within the exchange each participant contributes to the new and shared meaning of the conversation. This theory is in contrast to monologism, which holds that there is a single truth to be known, and each conversational participant's role is to integrate himself or herself into that traditional way of thinking (Bakhtin, 1981). Thus, dialogism is counter opposed to this theory of a single consciousness, as it recognizes multiplicity of voices and perspectives (Bakhtin, 1981). For Bakhtin (1981), dialogism is viewed as language that interacts rather than unfolds, and each person's contribution to an exchange is in reference to what has already been said as well as in anticipation of what is yet to be spoken. Thus, in the dialogical sense, each utterance has an intense relationship with other previous and future utterances. Bakhtin (1981) asserted that dialogism did not mean that people simply have different perspectives of the same known world, nor does it signify that one perspective is more

appropriate than another. Fundamentally, many perspectives exist, and truth is established through the ways in which participants meaningfully engage in utterances with each other in particular contexts.

Heteroglossia. Bakhtin's (1981) concept of heteroglossia extended his theory of dialogism to emphasize how authors construct meanings of texts through the combination of language and speech-genres. The diversity of voices and speech-genres combine in literary works to produce originality. In social situations, heteroglossia refers to the multiplicity of everyday language. This concept extends Bakhtin's (1981) view that language is not simply a means of communication but that it is used as a relationship mediator between speakers in particular social settings. Bakhtin's (1981) heteroglossia is in contrast to the use of monologic language as a means of suppression of ideas and thoughts by anyone other than the dominant ruling class. The concept of heteroglossia, then, is not conforming to a unifying use of language, but encompasses multiple social languages. Thus, heteroglossia allows for multiple perspectives and competing voices of others, as well as one's own perspective. Therefore, language use is mediated by social perspectives, and dialogue becomes oriented to the perspectives of others.

Centripetal and centrifugal forces. Bakhtin (1981) argued that cultures consist of both centripetal and centrifugal forces. Centripetal forces are those uses of language that seek a unity of thought, or monologism (Bakhtin, 1981). These centripetal forces of language exist alongside heteroglossia and are viewed in discourses that unify certain social or cultural groups. Thus, centripetal forces actually serve to stratify language

(Bakhtin, 1981). Conversely, centrifugal forces of language, or heteroglossia, act to decentralize language and thought and to create tension (Bakhtin, 1981) as multiple voices combine to create new understandings. Bakhtin asserted that:

Language is not a neutral medium that passes freely and easily into the private property of the speaker's intentions; it is populated—overpopulated—with the intentions of others. Expropriating it, forcing it to submit to one's own intentions and accents, is a difficult and complicated process (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 294).

The preceding quote exemplifies Bakhtin's concept of appropriation in which conversational participants use others' language and its situated meanings for themselves in ever-changing, ever-evolving purposes and intentions (Bakhtin, 1981). Appropriation is not only internalizing a tool, such as language, but it refers to the individual's use of the tool as a means of development (Bakhtin, 1981).

Halliday

Halliday's work describes a functional approach to language. Like Vygotsky (1978), Halliday (1975) believed that intellectual development is essentially the process of co-constructing meaning, and he argued for the central role of discourse at all levels of education. While Vygotsky (1978), as a psychologist, focused on the role of language in the construction of higher mental functions, Halliday (1975) was concerned with language in its social uses and with the relationship of language to spoken and written texts. Halliday (1975) focused on the exchange, rather than the individual utterance, as the basic unit of communication. Halliday (1975) defined an exchange as consisting of at

least one move, or utterance, by both the primary and secondary conversational participants, and as many further moves as are required to confirm or clarify the topic or idea that is under negotiation. Further, Halliday (1975) introduced the concept of register, which is a particular structure of meaning that is associated within unique contexts. Halliday's contribution to classroom teaching is that he stressed the importance of dialogue at every level of educational curricula, and his work reflected the units of language on which current discourse analyses are based (Halliday, 1975; Wells, 1999).

Wells

Wells's theoretical position on the use of language is based on the works of Vygotsky, Bakhtin, and Halliday, and he further defined how effective dialogue functions in classrooms. He believed that the goal of education should be to equip students with knowledge and skills that are culturally valued, through dialogue (Wells, 1999). In concert with Vygotsky (1978), Wells (1990) posited that semiotic mediation of language is the primary means by which the novice is assisted and guided, by more expert others, to appropriate the culture's existing resources. Wells (1999) further argued that in education there is a battle between a progressive approach, which is focused on the child, and a more positivist, structured, and teacher-directed approach that places the curriculum, knowledge, and skills of primary importance. The implications for language use in classrooms are diametrically opposed in these two approaches. In the former, student talk is valued as a means of constructing understanding, while in the latter, students talk only to serve the purpose of knowing appropriate answers to curriculum

questions. Like Halliday (1975), Wells's (1999) maintained that explanations of students' language development are to be found in the study of conversational interactions. Further, Wells (1999) argued for the value of classroom discourse analyses, and he described how other research did not suffice for studying how the use of language leads to co-construction and development of meaning:

- In most research, observations are interpreted almost exclusively from the researcher's point of view.
- The researcher often lacks understanding of classroom contexts and, therefore, has difficulty considering how the classroom culture affects research outcomes.
- The emphasis in most research is in learning how things exist. Hence, findings tend to purport a normative stance, and, thus, researchers have a tendency to over-generalize findings of success to all other situations.

Wells (1999), like Halliday (1975), was also interested in the contribution of language, through writing, in mediating understanding. Wells argued that the primary function of language is to mediate understanding, while the primary function of writing is to mediate recall and reflection.

Wells's definition of dialogic inquiry derives from Bakhtin's (1981) theory of dialogism. Dialogic inquiry is a stance toward teaching and talking that examines how participants in conversation are actively and responsively engaged as they appropriate, construct, and reconstruct knowledge, both for themselves and others (Wells, 1999).

Dialogic teaching refers to a teacher's deliberate actions to ensure openness in the

classroom environment and in his or her language that is conducive to students' freedom of thought and expression (Wells, 1999).

Teaching and Language

During a child's school day, many factors affect the manner in which learning takes place as well as the quality of that learning. In the following sections, I discuss the impact on students' learning by teachers': (a) differing views on the role of education (b) classroom teaching practices, and (c) language use in the classroom.

Differing Views on the Role of Education

The positivist view of education has been influential in the United States. As Wells (1999, p. 175) asserted, the positivist view holds that there is a central "truth" and that the function of education is for students to acquire appropriate knowledge in order to maintain society's status quo, educationally, politically, and culturally. The purpose of teaching in the positivist paradigm is to arrange what is to be learned into appropriate pieces and then for teachers to plan optimum delivery methods (Wells, 1999, p. 175). School's purpose is then viewed as a means of transmitting messages, and the teacher's job is to assist students in achieving mastery of this body of knowledge (Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999). Knowledge is thought of as an object, with the teacher as transmitter and the student as receiver (Bruner, 1986; Lindfors, 1999). As a result, the teacher who operates in this paradigm is in total control of everything that happens in his or her classroom.

A more progressive view of education asserts a child-centered, creative approach. John Dewey, a pioneer in current educational philosophy, was foremost in influencing the progressive movement in the United States, beginning in the early 20th century (Dewey, 1977). He believed that the school's purpose was to educate children according to a theory of experience (Dewey, 1977). Dewey espoused that children need interaction rather than authoritarian rule and that teaching and curriculum should allow for individual differences in students. He further believed that society, through its use of language and other cultural constructs, shapes the individual child's view of reality, and that the construction of meaning would not be carried out by individuals acting alone (Dewey, 1977).

Wells (1999) and Halliday (1975), from a socio-constructivist paradigm, asserted that education has two main purposes: (a) cultural reproduction, or carrying forward the cultural resources to new generations so that they will be able to productively contribute to society; and (b) the development of individual students in ways that they may achieve their full potential to develop original, and different, skills and ideas. Wells (1990) posited that Vygotsky's (1978) socio-constructivist theory actually offers a compromise to the two opposing theories of positivism and progressivism by recognizing that cultural continuity and creativity are interdependent and complementary, not competitive. Vygotsky's (1978) theory emphasized the co-construction of knowledge by more competent and novice participants engaging in an activity, with semiotic mediation serving as the primary means through which the less competent is assisted. The co-

construction of knowledge, through the ZPD, allows the novice to act upon cultural resources as he or she is guided, with the result being a transformation of the knowledge itself by, at least, the novice learner (Vygotsky, 1978). Instead of competitive individualism, in the progressive theory, a collaborative community is formed within Vygotsky's framework, with the teacher as leader (Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1999). All participants learn *with* each other as well as *from* each other as they engage in what Wells termed dialogic inquiry (Wells, 1999).

Classroom Teaching Practices

Teachers' beliefs and assumptions about learning are put into action through classroom practices. In fact, the nature of activities in which students engage in school reflects the teacher's implicit understandings (Barnes, 1992; Cazden, 2001; Wells, 1999). In 1985, an influential study by Connelly and Clandinin found that the theory that guides teachers' practice is generally based on their own personal practical knowledge and professional wisdom rather than on findings of university-based research.

As previously mentioned, Collins-Block and Mangieri (2003) argued that teachers continue to use skills and strategies worksheets as the primary components of their teaching repertoires, which may indicate that a strong top-down positivist stance toward learning is still prevalent. Barnes (1992, p. 134) referred to this practice as "control by worksheet." As such, he posited that worksheets have two primary components: (a) They isolate the learner with the task; and (b) They keep control in the teacher's hands (Barnes, 1992, p. 134). Most importantly, worksheets can be used in ways that students must

necessarily define the task for themselves, and they tend to portray the subject matter in a bland manner (Barnes, 1992, p. 134). This predominant practice has no place in a socio-constructivism. Drawing from Vygotsky's approach to learning, teachers should focus on providing and developing different activities in which knowledge-construction is involved (Vygotsky, 1978).

Approaches to tasks. The goal of teaching and classroom practices is that students become successful learners. Research validates the need for collaborative tasks in order to allow students to become actively engaged in their own learning (Barnes 1992; Lindfors, 1999), and the success of a group seems to depend upon students' level of engagement (Barnes, 1992). The extent to which members of the group are genuinely working together and trying to understand each other may be categorized as either a "closed" or "open" approach to tasks (Barnes, 1992, p. 38).

Closed approach. A closed approach means that students have little engagement in the task, and, thus, clarifying and extending questions are inhibited (Barnes, 1992; Bernstein, 2003). Barnes (1992) and Bernstein (2003) further characterized students in closed groups:

- They tend to limit their activities to what has been explicitly asked.
- They rarely ask questions of their own.
- They struggle to share their thinking so their contributions tend toward restricted explicitness.

In fact, Bernstein (2003, p. 125) referred to this restrained language as the “Restricted Code.” A group that is practicing a closed approach is usually inclined to rely on the text as a support in constructing meaning, and often the meaning is limited to literal understandings (Barnes, 1992).

Open approach. Conversely, a group approaching a task with an open approach would have participants engaged in hypothesizing (Barnes, 1992; Bernstein, 2003). Elaboration does not seem to be only a matter of each child’s language habits, but can, in fact, be advanced by the group’s efforts to think together (Barnes, 1992; Bernstein, 2003). Other characteristics of students in an open group are:

- They freely ask questions of themselves, and others.
- Their statements are tentative, and others often supply elaborations.
- They persist in trying to organize ideas, which tends to make discussions lengthy.
- They often resort to summarizing what has been said thus far.
- They address each other by name and occasionally ask for clarification or extension of others’ statements.
- They re-articulate what has already been said in order to relate new ideas into their existing frames of reference, or, in other words, they practice a process of consolidation. (Barnes, 1992; Bernstein, 2003).

Barnes’s (1992) research suggests that the consolidation and internalization of new learning into students’ existing processing networks is rarely accomplished through students’ individual and isolated thoughts, but, through discussion with others, students

are afforded the opportunity to bring themselves to at least some awareness of the need to rethink their ideas so that other group members may understand them. In the process, individual thought, as well as the group's understandings, are created and re-created.

Types of knowledge. Often, children's constructive mental actions are, in fact, impeded in school because they are unable to form relationships between what they already know and new information, and teachers' practices can function to either act to help in assimilation or to further obstruct the learning process. Barnes (1992) referred to two types of knowledge that students must bring into their frames of reference in order to be successful thinkers at school: (a) school knowledge, and (b) action knowledge.

School knowledge. School knowledge is defined as the knowledge that is known outside of the student's reference system (Barnes, 1992). In school, someone else, usually the teacher, presents unknown knowledge to the student. Sometimes students grasp, or partially grasp, the knowledge enough to answer teacher-generated questions, to answer worksheets, or to take an exam. However, if the knowledge is not within a student's schema, he or she will only practice recall of the knowledge, and, thus, it will not become assimilated into the student's knowing (Barnes, 1992). Further, if the knowledge is never used, the student eventually forgets it. If, however, students use the knowledge in meaningful ways, it becomes incorporated into their schemas and, as such, becomes action knowledge (Barnes, 1992, p. 82).

Action knowledge. Barnes (1992, p. 82) defined action knowledge as that which has become part of a student's frame of reference in ways that it can be acted upon. One

of the most important tasks, and one of the most difficult, is for the learner to convert school knowledge into action knowledge. The learner has to understand the tasks or knowledge that the teacher presents, from the teacher's frame of reference, and the child must also understand what in his or her own existing frameworks have to be changed in order to incorporate the new knowledge (Barnes, 1992). Obviously, only the learner can manage these actions. Barnes (1992) argued that this very situation in classroom practice occurs often and is precisely why it is important for the students to talk in order to reframe, rethink, and assimilate the problem into their existing networks of knowing. The task of being a successful student in a particular teacher's classroom is further compounded when one considers that students have to learn a plethora of other rules in the culture of their school:

- how teachers interact with students in various group situations (large group, small group, or individual),
- how to inhibit their impulsivity in order to wait their turn or to gain the teacher's approval,
- how to guide their actions in light of the teacher's evaluations,
- how to interpret a teacher's remarks, and
- how to be a student in other areas of the school culture like the art teacher's classroom, or the music teacher's classroom (Barnes, 1992).

In order to illustrate the institutionalization of the classroom culture, which he calls "the hidden curriculum," Barnes (1992, p. 14-17) referred to social expectations in

classrooms as games with rules to be learned. Although it may be unconsciously done, teachers set the stage for students' learning, or the lack of it, through the social expectations they demand. Hargreaves (1967) found that students seldom refuse to conform to the teacher's cultural system within the classroom, even though many learners do not allow the knowledge presented to make any impact upon their learning. Therefore, many times children learn how to play the game, without any real learning taking place.

Classroom contexts. A positivist theoretical framework lends itself to a view of the teacher as authoritarian. In such classrooms, the teachers are of primary importance because they are acknowledged as being responsible for delivering the curriculum. In a socio-constructivist paradigm, students' constructing meaning for themselves is of critical importance. The teacher, in this sense, is responsible for creating the learning tasks so that students will be successful. The following sections describe these two approaches.

Teacher-directed approach. The issue that is relevant for teachers' practices is to understand what contexts are conducive for the learner to accomplish meaningful learning. There are limits to teacher-directed learning:

- Taking the initiative away from students' control may reduce their responses to mimicry.

- Questioning can go in a wrong direction when teachers do not project themselves into their students' viewpoints in order to understand answers. Students' answers to teachers' questions are not usually random thoughts.
- Competition for the teacher's attention can be a hindrance to learning.
- Teachers may actually cause students to alter their language in an attempt to gain approval, or in order to say the words the teacher is thinking, rather than encouraging students to use their language to reshape thinking (Barnes, 1992).

Inquiry approach. An inquiry approach bridges the gap between school knowledge and action knowledge (Barnes, 1992; Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999). Wells (1999) defined inquiry as a stance toward experiential learning and the formation of new ideas. Or, in other words, it is primarily an act of the mind when one decides to understand the world of others (Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999). Inquiry is not a method with steps to follow, nor is it a rationale for isolated projects (Barnes, 1992; Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999). Rather, the stance of inquiry pervades all aspects of life and, in school life, it affects every decision that a teacher makes from planning a field trip, to organization of classroom resources, to planning a curriculum-based activity (Barnes, 1992; Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999).

Students participating in an inquiry-based classroom would be willing to ask questions and to collaborate with others. The aim of inquiry is not for students to learn "knowledge for its own sake," but that students would gain the ability to use their understandings in new situations (Wells, 1999, p. 121). Wells (1999) further argued that

an inquiry approach to education fulfills both positivist and progressive goals in that it builds on individual interests of students, encouraging them to be active constructors of their own learning, while also sustaining cultural values and ways of thinking. Inquiry is, then, rooted in past understandings, situated in the present, and oriented to future understandings (Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999). It is not discovery learning, but rather is better characterized as a stance toward relevant ideas and experiences. It is an approach to education that gives mutual consideration to the relationship between individuals and society (Wells, 1999). Wells (1999) argued that classrooms should become communities of inquiry, where the curriculum is viewed as emerging from conversations between students and teachers as they dialogically broach topics of individual interest and social significance.

Constructing knowledge in inquiry-based classrooms. One of the most important results of inquiry-based teaching is that students participate actively in the construction of knowledge. Knowledge building happens collaboratively as people bring their personal experiences to bear on solving a particular problem. Further, there are differing modes of knowing. For example, not all knowledge is theoretical, and even though a society may tend to privilege theoretical knowledge (Wells, 1999), people often need practical knowledge to accomplish the tasks of everyday life. However, there is a relationship between different kinds of knowledge, and this concept is critically important as teachers help students talk about and understand texts.

Wells (1999) and Wartofsky (1979) ascribed that there are developmentally five different modes of knowing that describe how humans participate in knowledge building. Each mode is dependent on those that precede it:

- Instrumental knowing is the most fundamental and involves the transforming of the physical world in order to survive.
- Procedural knowing is a joint activity and is required when instrumental knowledge does not suffice. It involves communication.
- Substantive knowing involves joint planning and reflecting. It is a hypothetical mode that considers alternatives.
- Aesthetic knowing involves symbolism. It can be thought of as the first mode in which knowing becomes self-conscious and deliberate.
- Theoretical knowing is, arguably, the most powerful, and it is involved in making mental models and theorizing. (Wartofsky, 1979; Wells, 1999)

The implication for teaching in the intermediate years of schooling is that the theoretical mode of knowing must be given attention (Wartofsky, 1979; Wells, 1999). Since all of the modes of knowing are available to school children, and most, if not all, of the modes are used to varying degrees in everyday activities, teachers must consciously plan for inquiry on a theoretical plane (Wartofsky, 1979; Wells, 1999). Secondly, theoretical knowing arises from a broad range of practical activity. Therefore, teachers must provide ample opportunities for many practical experiences that hold relevance for students (Wartofsky, 1979; Wells, 1999). The interplay between practical experiences

and the building of theoretical knowing will allow students to tackle new problems. In terms of literacy and talking about texts, the relevance of the texts used is a major consideration. Texts that reflect emotions or experiences that students have had are far more likely to provide a basis for hypothetical and theoretical conversations. Having a practical frame of reference from which to interpret literary features allows students to apply critical and analytical thinking, and teachers must plan for this to occur.

Scaffolding instruction in inquiry-based classrooms. In order to make learning meaningful and relevant, scaffolding instruction is also a critical component of an inquiry-based teaching. Wood (1998) introduced the concept of scaffolding as a tool to help students develop cognitive skills. In this sense, teachers supply scaffolds to assist learners in moving through the ZPD, and these supports are gradually withdrawn as the learner became more knowledgeable and confident (Wood, 1998). At that point, learners practice the new skill or action as it becomes automatic, then fossilized (Vygotsky, 1978; Wood, 1998). Cazden (2001) argued that the most important key to scaffolding is the temporary and flexible nature of the scaffold itself. The implication for classroom instruction is that teachers must be acutely aware of students' understandings in order to provide effective scaffolds. Teachers must know students so well that they know exactly when a scaffold is needed, how to apply the scaffold at just the right time, and when to remove the scaffold when assistance is no longer needed.

Language in the Classroom

The basic purpose of school is achieved through communication. Obviously, spoken language is the means by which teaching takes place and students demonstrate what they know to teachers, and teachers generally control the context in which classroom talk happens (Lindfors, 1999). Teachers and students use language to: (a) communicate information, (b) establish and maintain social relationships, and (c) express opinions and attitudes (Cazden, 2001). What might be less obvious, but more important, is that spoken language reflects the identity of the speaker (Cazden, 2001; Halliday, 1975; Heath, 1982). Cultural institutions, such as the home and school, practice rule-governed ways of using language to communicate, and what is deemed acceptable in one institution may be considered substandard in another (Heath, 1982; Ladson-Billings, 1994). It follows, then, that if spoken language reflects a child's identity, and if that language is not valued at school, then the child will also feel devalued as a person. The result might be that the culture of the school community effectively silences some children, and most often these students are the very children that need to talk the most (Cazden, 2001; Halliday, 1975; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Wells, 1999).

Students who have rich social, intellectual, and emotional experiences tend to express themselves (Lindfors, 1999; Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur, & Prendergast, 1997), and most often these are children of privilege (Halliday, 1975; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Nystrand et al., 1997). These students usually have had many practical experiences with which to form theoretical concepts, and their ways of knowing benefit their articulate

ways of expressing themselves (Halliday, 1975; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Nystrand et al., 1997). Privileged students' ways of knowing help in their creating and recreating context, which, in turn, leads to the formation of new ways of knowing, and the recursive spiral continues. Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur, and Prendergast (1997) posited that in this way, context benefits the text and vice versa. Lindfors (1999) argued that through language acts, participants in the conversation create both text and a relationship. The relationship they build is created as they interact with the text and with others, and the students' interactions are the most critical component (Lindfors, 1999). Wells (1999) insisted that learning is not dependent on teaching and that it is even less dependent on students' participation in activities found in most schools. Rather, learning is completely dependent upon talk (Halliday, 1975; Lindfors, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1999).

Of course, the degree to which children are able to engage effectively in such a collaborative classroom depends on how well they have internalized the culture of school, both the rules of the school's culture and the language of school (Barnes, 1992; Halliday, 1975; Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999). If the school is a hierarchical institution, steeped in authoritarian control, language may be used as both a transmission device as well as a control mechanism (Halliday, 1975; Lindfors, 1999; Wells, 1999).

The following section describes the way in which teaching and classroom talk is organized in most contemporary classrooms. It is termed monologic teaching, or monologic talk, but both terms refer to a positivist approach to education. Then, I discuss a socio-constructivist approach to classroom teaching and classroom talk. This approach,

dialogic teaching, or dialogic talk, focuses on talking as the mediator of understanding. I argued previously that an inquiry approach to knowledge building is critical for student engagement. A critical component of inquiry teaching is that students and teachers must engage in relevant conversations in order to form meaningful relationships with each other as well as with the text. Only in this way will students have the capacity to (a) construct, (b) reconstruct, (c) appropriate, (d) internalize, and (e) fossilize their learning.

Monologic teaching and discourse. In the early history of schools in the United States, teachers conducted lessons using a context of recitation where students memorized content, usually The Bible (Dewey, 1997). At that time, the purpose of school was accomplished through what is currently referred to as the positivist approach where content was decided in advance and students' were to memorize their lessons in order to be able to recite the information back to the teacher. Although the information age has changed the ways in which humans are able to obtain information, teachers in contemporary classrooms continue to practice the recitation, or monologic, model of teaching (Barnes, 1992; Mehan, 1979; Nystrand et al., 1997). Researchers report that the reason for the continued use of such an outdated methodology lies in the fact that high-stakes testing has required students to possess certain content knowledge, and teachers may feel so burdened by the amount of knowledge that the transmission model of teaching seems more efficient (Barnes, 1992; Gallagher, 2009; Nystrand et al., 1997; Wells, 1999). However, the result in continuing such an outdated practice is that, since students only regurgitate information back to the teacher, the knowledge is not

internalized. Only those privileged students who can make a personal connection with the content can actually successfully comprehend such tests (Barnes, 1992; Halliday, 1975; Nystrand et al., 1997; Wells, 1999).

In a recitation or monologic classroom, teachers tend to avoid controversial topics in favor of authoritarian textbooks, lectures, or rule-based lessons (Barnes, 1992; Nystrand et al., 1997; Wells, 1999). Learning the content is the foremost goal and teachers plan lessons that tend to simplify complex issues into small pieces of information which are then drilled by a plethora of worksheets and persistent recitation (Goodlad, 1984; Nystrand, et al., 1997). Teachers maintain control through mundane, wearisome coverage of the content. In response, students tend to conform and do their work, but they show little motivation or enthusiasm for learning, and their resulting work is cursory and quickly forgotten (Goodlad, 1984; Nystrand et al., 1997).

Questioning practices in monologic teaching. The primary method of communicating in monologic teaching follows a distinct pattern where the teacher initiates a question, a student responds with an answer, and the teacher evaluates the answer (Mehan, 1979). Mehan (1979) termed this pattern of questioning as Initiation-Response-Evaluation (I-R-E), and it is the currently the default option in today's classrooms (Cazden, 2001; Mehan, 1979; Nystrand et al., 1997; Wells, 1999). Nystrand et al. (1997) found that only about one-quarter of students participate in I-R-E questioning practices in their classrooms, with actual discussion occurring less than one minute per school day. Further, Nystrand et al. (1997) asserted that almost all teachers'

questions require students to recall what someone else thought, not to articulate, elaborate, or revise when they themselves think.

In monologic dialogue, students play a minor role in classroom language during questioning, and they mostly respond with an infrequent word or short phrase (Nystrand et al., 1997). Students tend to hesitate before responding, not always sure of whether the teacher will accept the response (Nystrand et al., 1997). The emphasis in monologic dialogue is for students to articulate the correct answer. Hence, students spend their cognitive energy trying to guess what the teacher wants to hear rather than developing ideas of their own (Barnes, 1992; Lindfors, 1999; Nystrand et al., 1997). As mentioned previously, Barnes (1992) metaphorically likened this interaction to a game to be played. Since interaction between teacher and students is kept to a minimum, success in school in a monologic classroom depends on how well students learn to play the game.

In monologic classrooms, questions tend to be inauthentic in that the teacher already knows the answer (Cazden, 2001). While other questions may appear to be open-ended, they are actually closed in function, still requiring only one answer, typically “yes” or “no.” For example, a question such as “John, can you tell me about the book we read yesterday?” appears to be open-ended. However, the answer to the teacher’s question is either: (a) “Yes, I can tell you about the book we read yesterday,” or (b) “No, I can’t tell you about the book we read yesterday.” These pseudo questions (Barnes, 1992) appear to have an inferential or analytical function, but they, in reality, function to close discussions.

Value of I-R-E discourse pattern. The value of the I-R-E discourse pattern is debated within the research community. Wood (1992) accused teachers of asking too many literal-level questions and he suggested that teachers use a less controlling type of discourse in order to determine what students are thinking. Lemke (1990) found that 70% of teacher and student dialogue is triadic, and he argued that it is overused because of a mistaken belief that it encourages maximum student participation. In the 1970's, Davis found that teachers overwhelmingly asked the majority of questions in classrooms, an average of 47 questions per 20-minute time period. In her study, while only 38.5% of students, themselves, asked any questions at all, three children accounted for over 50% of all student answers and only five children accounted for over 75% (Davis, 1971).

Ladson-Billings (1994) found that I-R-E discourse structures are most prevalent in urban classrooms, due to the deficit perspective that some teachers hold about socioeconomically disadvantaged students and second-language learners (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Halliday (1975) posited that the triadic pattern tends to empower some students while holding others at a disadvantage. In this way, students in a classroom community remain stratified and the status quo of privilege and power is maintained.

While the I-R-E discourse pattern can serve as a control mechanism, it can also have a useful purpose in classrooms. Nystrand and Gamoran (1991) argued that this discourse format can lead to different levels of student engagement, and a teacher may use the pattern for different purposes. For example, in some instances where procedural knowledge is needed, the teacher may use the I-R-E model as an efficient way to

communicate with students about learning how to manage a manual task. In this regard, Wells (1999) asserted that the I-R-E pattern is neither good nor bad but rather its advantages and disadvantages depend on the purpose for which it is used in particular situations.

Dialogic teaching and discourse. In dialogic teaching, teachers are responsive to students. Rather than telling students irrelevant information or drilling them on facts, teachers take notes about what students say and how they say it. Dialogic lessons are more focused on discussion in which the teacher acts as a guide to students' investigations. The teacher's evaluation of the discussion is more student-centered and involves more attention to students' inferential and analytical thinking rather than focusing on restatements of facts (Nystrand et al., 1997; Wells, 1999). Questions function as thinking devices for both the teacher and the student, and the discussion is open to questioning and comments from the students themselves (Nystrand et al., 1997; Reznitskaya, 2012; Wells, 1999). Teachers often follow-up student responses by asking for clarification or by asking students to elaborate previous statements rather than focusing on evaluation (Nystrand et al., 1997; Reanitskaya, 2012; Wells, 1999). As students contribute to the conversation, the discussion may turn toward a line of inquiry initiated by students, so the course of interaction changes as well.

In contrast to monologic teaching, dialogic instruction depends upon the formation of mutual understandings gained through interaction. Thus, discussions are unique and they reflect the views, attitudes, and beliefs of the teacher and the students

(Nystrand et al., 1997; Reznitskaya, 2012; Wells, 1999). Even though discussions may seem highly ineffective and inefficient, dialogic instruction places demands on conversational interactions as being essential to learning. In this way, all conversations are treated as thinking devices (Lotman, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978).

Teachers skillfully guide the talk in the direction they need it to go (Nystrand et al., 1997). In dialogic discussions, teachers do not quiz students to ascertain whether they know the right answer, but rather they help students through processes of interpretation. As Bruner (1986) argued, actual meanings are not born from either entirely abstract concepts or from literal definitions. Rather, meaning unfolds from speaker to speaker (Bruner, 1986). While in monologic discourse, students try to provide the right answers, in dialogic discussions they are expected to provide thoughtful answers based on their own experience (Nystrand et al., 1997).

Teachers have two distinct roles in dialogic teaching (Wells, 1999). One role is a responsibility to the entire classroom: (a) they are responsible for selecting units of curriculum and activities; and (b) they must lead whole-class discussion (Wells, 1999). The other role is a responsibility to individual students: (a) they are responsible for observing how students respond to conversations; and (b) they must assist students in working through their ZPDs. Finally, teachers must learn how to be active listeners. As students grapple with communicating meaning, the conversation may sound awkward and disjointed. However, the teacher must listen intently to what is said while also

inferring what the child means, all the while clarifying and supporting each child's attempt at making meaning.

Knowledge building through talk in dialogic teaching. In the dialogic teaching paradigm, talk is central to all actions and all constructions of meaning. Since knowledge is socially constructed (Vygotsky, 1978), talking is the vehicle through which knowledge building takes place, and dialogic teaching fulfills the requirements for student learning to be maximized. Three important features of knowledge building are: (a) knowledge is situated, (b) knowledge is socially constructed, and (c) knowledge is built through talking (Wells, 1999).

Knowledge is created and recreated in meaningful activities. Wells, (1999) asserted that the object of the activity might be an understanding or it could be an artifact. Nevertheless, the object will be transformed by the actions of the group through conversation. Knowledge is also situated in that it is related to the nature of the activity. A critical understanding of situated knowledge is to realize that, sometimes, people make significant advances when they are acting alone. However, Wells (1999) argued that the issue is not whether people are alone at the time, but that the project on which they are working is shared with others.

Wells (1999) further posited that knowledge building is always situated in a discourse in which each contribution is responsive to what has preceded and what response will follow. Finally, knowledge is built through talking, or discourse. Of course, not all discourse is concerned with knowledge building, but the dialogic

principle is a crucial component. Conversational participants contribute to knowledge building by continually and recursively talking and responding to what is said (Wells, 1999). In this way, knowledge building becomes a spiral of ever-increasing complexities of understanding. As discussed earlier, theoretical knowing relies on the previous modes, including practical knowing. Students will not be able to hypothesize and think theoretically if they are not allowed to talk with each other and with the teacher.

Difficulties with dialogic teaching. The teachers' roles in dialogic teaching are complex and multi-faceted. Their responsibilities range from deciding content to knowing how to intervene with students. Thus, difficulties arise as teachers prepare for dialogic teaching. Some teachers find it extremely difficult to relinquish control to students (Chinn, Anderson, & Waggoner, 2001). Their reasons vary, but many appear rooted in teachers' long-standing ideas about interaction and students' abilities (Chinn et al., 2001). Mercer (1995) reported that teachers had difficulty with transitioning to dialogic teaching because of institutionally-expected behavioral norms. Some school administrators view teachers as weak if students are participating in discussion. In those situations, absolutely silent children are signs of a teacher's good classroom management skills.

Another difficulty with dialogic teaching is that some teachers feel that allowing time for discussion will interfere with the time needed in content areas (Chinn et al., 2001). Other times, teachers may be so intent on their own interpretation that they are

blinded by their students' points of view (Barnes, 1992). Students may also have reasons for not participating in classroom discussions. They may fear negative feedback or disapproval from the teacher.

Recent research suggests that teachers are often not aware of the power of their own talk (Chinn et al., 2001). Chinn, Anderson, and Waggoner (2001) found that teachers have great difficulty constraining their own talk in order to affect the greatest benefits for students. Sometimes less talk is actually of more benefit to student learning. However, despite the difficulties, learning how to achieve dialogically oriented instruction should be a primary skill for teachers.

Contrasting patterns of student and teacher interaction. In summary, the differences in monologic and dialogic instruction are distinctly recognized by ways in which students and teachers interact. Gutierrez (1993) argued that the different patterns of interactions define important contexts that affect (a) the rules and rights of students, (b) the social relationships among students and teachers, and (c) epistemology, or the extent to which knowledge is transmitted by the teacher or actively constructed by all conversational participants. Gutierrez (1993) outlined distinctive features of monologic recitation:

- Classroom exchanges follow a strict I-R-E pattern.
- The teacher decides which students speak.
- The teacher initiates all topics.
- The teacher ignores or discourages students' attempts at initiating topics.

- Student responses are short with the teacher requiring little elaboration.
- Teachers' questions are inauthentic and test-like and there is generally only one right answer.

Gutierrez (1993) characterized dialogic exchanges as:

- The boundaries of talk are significantly relaxed. More students respond after the teacher initiates an exchange. Sometimes student contributions build on previous responses, which contribute to constructing shared knowledge.
- The teacher plans the activity and acts as facilitator but keeps intervention into the conversation at a minimum.
- The teacher does little selection of speakers. Students either select themselves or select other students.
- The teacher and the students decide on subtopics for discussion.
- The teacher indicates to students that developing a shared understanding is a goal of the conversation. However, the teacher still relies on a strong preference for correct information.
- The teacher and students both initiate questions that have no specific correct answers as well as questions that arise from previous responses.
- The teacher supports an expansion of a topic and sometimes incorporates them into subsequent lessons.

In this section of the literature review, I argued for a stance of dialogic teaching as a means of supporting students' talk about texts. The purpose of the next section is to discuss the literature related to effective teacher professional development.

Professional Development

Fueled by the No Child Left Behind legislation [NCLB] (2001), educational stakeholders are turning their attention to the ways teachers teach and how students learn. The requirement for schools to achieve Adequate Yearly Progress (McNeal, 2008) is creating a whirlwind in the world of professional development. Because the aim of this case study is to coach a teacher in order to observe subsequent student behaviors, I discuss the literature related to (a) traditional professional development, (b) job-embedded professional development, (c) characteristics of effective teachers, and (d) a coaching model of job-embedded professional development.

Traditional Professional Development

Following is a description of traditional professional development in schools. The implementation of traditional forms is pervasive in American schools. Yet, there are barriers to successful transfer of knowledge and training into teachers' practices.

Description of traditional professional development. Traditional forms of professional development usually involve one-shot approaches, where a consultant conducts training, usually for a day or two, and teachers are then expected to fully implement the new skill or strategy in their classrooms without follow-up support (Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust & Shulman, 2005; Knight, 2007).

Teacher reactions to these types of trainings vary widely, depending upon many variables, some of which are: (a) teachers' backgrounds, (b) support from administrators for the new initiative or idea, (c) the time of year the training is conducted, and (d) teachers' perceptions of the trainer (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). Even though trainers may be experts, they, nevertheless, interact with a group of strangers about whom they have no knowledge. Thus, sometimes the training is redundant material for teachers, failing to recognize teachers' expertise, and sometimes the experts' theoretical presentation is irrelevant or boring to the group (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). Knight (2007) insisted that these kinds of professional development experiences may be worse than no training at all, because teachers often report feeling disappointed, frustrated, and in some cases, insulted. Knight (2007) further asserted that these one-shot trainings actually serve to lower teachers' expectations of future professional development, thereby eroding their willingness to actively participate. The more ineffective sessions that teachers attend, the less willing they become to embrace any new practice (Knight, 2007).

Routinely, as teachers become less engaged with innovations or new ideas from professional development, administrators search for explanations as to why the trainings are not working (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Knight, 2008). Not surprisingly, teachers are often blamed for being resistant, while they tell themselves that the new innovation or idea will fade away just as all the others have (Knight, 2008). The cycle of blame and resistance continues to the extent that the entire learning community is

jeopardized, and the status quo in teaching and learning is maintained. In such situations, the professional development, no matter how good it may be, may actually cause a lack of progress in students (Knight, 2008).

Barriers to traditional professional development. There may be several overriding barriers to the success of traditional approaches to professional development. Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) argued that teachers' have so many pressing needs that they simply do not believe they have time to implement something new. Demands are placed on teachers almost every second of every day. Meeting children's needs while attending to lesson plans, grading, attending meetings, conferencing with parents, and many other requirements tend to become overwhelming. Teaching requires a great deal of energy as well as emotional resilience in order to manage requirements of everyday life at school.

A second barrier to the implementation of new initiatives is that districts tend to implement many of them at the same time, with some being theoretically contradictory (Knight, 2008). Most new innovations are presented with the aforementioned one-shot approaches, with no continuing support, leaving teachers feeling overwhelmed. Without supported practice of any new initiative, teachers tend to develop misunderstandings and confusion about what they need to do and when they need to do it. Even teachers who try to go through the motions of implementing a new strategy soon lose interest if they feel they are not successful.

Thirdly, changing behavior is difficult. Even if teachers really want to make changes in their practices, they will only be successful when they are able to overcome their habitual current practices (Loehr & Schwartz, 2003). Loehr and Schwartz (2003) asserted that sheer willpower and desire are not enough, but rather human nature causes people to maintain the status quo. Change requires a change in habits and creating new routines. If teachers are tired and overwhelmed, they are not likely to learn a new practice or a new routine for their classrooms.

Finally, as Fullan (1992) asserted, every classroom community is different, and teachers tend to base their pedagogy on their own personal experiences. Teachers seem to have difficulty envisioning how a new innovation might be situated within their own classrooms. Their visions of teaching are clouded by what they have experienced and what they believe from their own practical knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin, 1985; Fullan, 1992). Ball and Cohen (1999) argued that teachers' practical knowledge results in more didactic instruction, especially when the teaching community tends to rely on positivist approaches to teaching and learning.

In summary, while educational stakeholders are showing unprecedented interest in improving instruction, traditional one-shot professional development fails to have any significant positive effect on teachers' instructional practices. Thus, educational systems are poorly equipped to produce more complex learning in teachers as well as students. However, one model of professional development holds promise for providing teachers the support they need to effect change, job-embedded professional development.

Job-Embedded Professional Development

Teachers learn both during practice and from practice (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Fullan, 1992; Joyce & Showers, 2002; Knight, 2008). Ball and Cohen (1999) showed that since teaching occurs in particular situations with particular students, no supply of knowledge can fully prepare teachers for the many scenarios they encounter in classrooms. However, since teaching is increasingly understood as a socially mediated practice, professional development training must also be situated in that practice. Joyce and Showers (2002) argued that four conditions must be met if professional development is to have a significant impact upon student learning:

- The community of professionals must study together, practice what they are learning, and share results.
- The content of professional development must be developed around theoretically-proven practices and strategies that have a high-probability of affecting student learning and students' abilities to learn.
- The degree of the change generated must be sufficient that students' gain in knowledge and skill is recognizable.
- The process of professional development must prepare teachers to develop the skills necessary to effectively use what they are learning.

A recent publication, *Standards for Professional Learning* (NSDC, 2011), further asserted that professional development cannot provide answers to all of the challenges that teachers encounter, but when the professional development reflects standards and

when educators want to increase their effectiveness, student learning will be positively impacted. The relationship between teachers' professional development and student learning is maximized when professional development:

- occurs within the learning communities,
- has skillful leaders who develop teachers' capacities and create support systems,
- provides adequate and appropriate resources for teachers, and
- is driven by student data,
- integrates theoretical models and research-based practices,
- applies research on change and sustains support for implementation through long-term professional learning opportunities, and
- aligns its outcomes with educator performance and curriculum standards (NSDC, 2011).

Thus, current research supports the use of job-embedded opportunities to maximize teacher learning and student outcomes (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Hirsh, 2009). Job-embedded professional development is primarily classroom-based and takes place during the course of a teacher's workday. The most critical characteristic of this type of professional development is the fact that its structure is aligned with a constructivist paradigm for learning. The action is relevant and situated, using authentic contexts and the teacher's own students. An expert-other provides assistance as needed, and knowledge is actively co-constructed. Consequently, learning

is formed and re-formed in a recursive spiral that enables teachers to practice more effectively, thereby providing better opportunities for student progress.

What Teachers Need to Know

In 1989, Anderson, Armbruster, and Roe theorized that teachers needed three types of knowledge: (a) knowledge of the curriculum and content or declarative knowledge, (b) knowledge of procedural tasks or procedural knowledge, and (c) knowledge that allows them to predict, anticipate, revise and adapt teaching plans, or conditional knowledge. The International Reading Association (2000, p. 2) responded by further stating that excellent reading teachers need to “understand the definition of reading as a complex system of deriving meaning from print” and that they must understand how to assist students in developing the ability to:

- sustain motivation to read,
- apply appropriate reading strategies in order to construct meaning from print,
- use prior knowledge and vocabulary to aid in reading comprehension,
- read fluently,
- decode words, and
- understand how phonemes are connected to print.

Snow, Griffin, and Burns (2005) further describe how teachers' knowledge needs to shift across time. Each of the steps they outline is necessary, and they characterize the type of knowing that determines each point:

- Declarative knowledge is a stage of knowledge development where an individual learns disciplinary knowledge. The person can learn from books or lectures and has the capacity to answer questions. It refers to learning on a literal level.
- Situated procedural knowledge describes a stage where the teacher understands how to manage procedural tasks in the classroom.
- Stable procedural knowledge describes a stage where the knowledge base would support functioning under normal circumstances.
- Expert, adaptive knowledge describes the teacher's ability to deal with a range of new instructional issues from prior experiences with similar circumstances.
- Reflective, organized, analyzed knowledge refers to a master teacher who is able to reflectively analyze what is read in books or heard in lectures and then to evaluate the usefulness of the information.

While all of these guidelines specify what teachers need to know or to be able to do, they are not specific in addressing how teachers integrate new systems for learning into their existing teaching theories and routines. The research on teacher expertise addresses the more technical aspects of helping teachers appropriate, or internalize, new theories and constructs for teaching. The following section addresses the research literature on teacher expertise.

Teacher Expertise

Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford (2005) argued that there is strong evidence to suggest that teachers' development is influenced by the nature of the initial preparation they receive. Conversely, as Connelly and Clandinin (1985) asserted, other data reveal that teachers tend to rely on their own practical knowledge and wisdom. So, the research base suggests that teachers vary in their sources of content knowledge. However, in the 2000 Educational Testing Service report, *How Teaching Matters*, Wenglinsky asserted that teachers' knowledge of content is associated with student achievement gains. Therefore, with knowledge ever-changing and expanding rapidly, teacher expertise must also continue to grow. Teachers also impact student achievement by: (a) developing higher-order thinking skills, (b) providing hands-on experiences, and (c) working well with special populations of students (Wenglinsky, 2000). These findings suggest that while content development is critically important in student success, so is the teacher's pedagogy (Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, & Rodriguez, 2003, pp. 3-28; Wenglinsky, 2000). Joyce and Showers (2002) described how teachers needed to continually develop their theoretical constructs about learning, all the while questioning their assumptions about teaching and student achievement through reflective practice. Communities of learning tend to promote skill development and reflection (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

In addition to content and pedagogy, researchers assert that developing a set of dispositions, habits of action and thinking about teaching and the roles of teachers and

students, is equally critical to student success (Crawford, Schlanger, Toyama, Riel, & Vahey, 2005; Joyce & Showers, 2002). Since personal dispositions require the ability to reflect upon practice and to learn from reflection, they define a stance of inquiry (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999; Wells, 1999). Dispositions about the roles of a teacher include flexibility in allowing students to take more control of their own learning. Ladson-Billings (1994) asserted that teachers' dispositions toward beliefs that all students can become successful are particularly important in classrooms that have African American children. Dispositions also include personal values such as appreciation for the need to build strong relationships with students, and commitment to respect and care for students (Haberman, 1996).

The expertise of teachers that promotes student success is clearly multi-faceted. In the next section I discuss different levels of teacher expertise and what the research reports about helping teachers develop their own expertise in ways that assists student learning. Hatano and Inagaki (1986) characterized the two types of experts as routine experts and adaptive experts.

Routine experts. Hatano and Inagaki (1986) characterized routine experts as those who become good at solving particular sets of problems. Efficiency is the most important characteristic of routine experts (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986). However, efficiency tends to become overemphasized to the extent that teachers do not usually continue to learn, except to learn even more efficient new routines (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986). Teachers' practice does not grow with experience, but teaching is more focused

on management of routines. Even in the area of content, when routine experts devise what they deem an efficient plan of delivering the prescribed information, that same pattern of teaching tends to continue throughout the career of the teacher. Routine experts are apt to hold onto an outdated or incomplete theoretical position simply because they have always thought or taught in that manner. Routine experts exhibit a tendency to reduce situations or problem solving to simple explanations, thereby risking inferior performance (Crawford et al., 2005). While routine experts are able to solve familiar types of problems quickly and accurately, they have little capacity in solving new types of problems (Holyoak, 1991, p. 310).

Efficiency is needed in some situations, like in decoding unknown words, because it frees a learner's attention to problem-solve (Clay, 1991; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Furthermore, as learners are presented with similar problems, efficiency in sub-routines allows for a problem to be easier to solve. In this way, the sub-routines allow the learner to focus more attention on the other aspects of the new situation (Clay, 1991; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). This characteristic of efficiency leads some educators to argue for highly-scripted instructional programs, especially for at-risk students (Sawyer, 2004, pp. 12-20). The idea is that a reduction in the variability of implementation will produce better student achievement than what might be expected from a teacher, or teachers, using a variety of techniques or strategies (Sawyer, 2004, pp. 12-20). However, Sawyer (2004, pp. 12-20) argued that the effort for teachers to develop more routinized approaches to their teaching is in response to two factors: (a) a perception

that low levels of teaching skill is what is needed for student learning, and (b) an effort to create more standardization for students' experiences, both across schools and classrooms, is beneficial for students.

Adaptive experts. Barnett and Koslowsky (2002, pp. 237-267) characterized adaptive expertise as transferrable expertise. According to Crawford, Schlager, Toyama, Riel, and Vayeh (2005), it is a broad construct that captures a range of cognitive and motivational components as well as dispositions. While routine experts are capable of solving familiar types of problems quickly, they have meager capabilities to deal with new problems or new types of problems (Holyoak, 1991). Adaptive experts, on the other hand, are innovative (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986; Barnett & Koslowsky, 2002). Because they are adaptable and flexible, they are able to rearrange their thinking in response to new situations, ideas, and problems (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986; Schwartz, Bransford, & Sears, 2005, pp. 1-51). Adaptive practice is characterized by a stance toward knowledge building rather than maximizing efficiency (Crawford et al., 2005). Research also confirms that adaptive experts characterize knowledge according to underlying theory while routine experts tend to categorize according to superficial details of the problem (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986; Barnett & Koslowsky, 2002, pp. 237-267). Additionally, adaptive experts are more inclined to connect new knowledge within their existing knowledge base, and they tend to focus on implicit concepts (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986; Barnett & Koslowsky, 2002, pp. 237-267). Dunbar (1995), from his research on scientists, reported that an adaptive expert tends to

explore deep structural features of a problem, whereas a routine expert has tremendous difficulty working with deeper features. Another finding in his study is that the adaptive expert actually appears to treat deep structural features as if they were surface features (Dunbar, 1995). An explanation for this situation may lie in Sawyer's (2004) research. He posited that adaptive experts are inclined to automatize schemas and routines that provide enough background efficiency to keep the experts from becoming overwhelmed with the complexity of the new problem (Sawyer, 2004). Adaptive experts learn from their own problem solving. Hammerness et al. (2005) asserted that adaptive experts attempt to be acutely aware of the larger social contexts within which the problem is situated. The sociocultural contexts help adaptive experts in finding appropriate solutions.

The processes of efficiency and innovation may seem complementary, but they may actually be antagonistic forces within a classroom. For example, a reading teacher who is routine expert may insist that students follow a routine of sounding out when they encounter an unknown word. Yet, when children have difficulty in hearing sounds in words, they will not have success in the sounding out process (Clay, 1991). A teacher who is a routine expert will not understand how to provide a different kind of assistance to the child, whereas an adaptive expert will rely on creativity and innovation to search for an alternative strategy in helping the student solve the word.

The amount of experience teachers have is not a predictor for success in attaining adaptive expertise (Barnett & Koslowski, 2002, pp. 237-267; Karmiloff-Smith, &

Inhelder, 1974-75). Hecht and Proffitt (1995) showed that sometimes experience may, in fact, have a detrimental effect on performance. Data from their study suggest that routine experiences can induce a perspective that is incorrect for new tasks, thereby indicating that performance does not always improve with experience (Hecht & Proffitt, 1995). Further, Lesgold (1988) asserted that the use of an imperfect framework or theory for problem solving can be more detrimental than having no framework at all. The result is that if routine experts use a theory that is inappropriate for tasks, students' learning is likely to be jeopardized.

While Hatano and Inagaki (1986) characterized teachers' orientations in certain situations as either being routine experts or adaptive experts, Schwartz, Bransford, and Sears (2005) further described two additional dimensions of expertise to describe teachers who are not efficient: (a) novice, and (b) frustrated novice. They described a novice as having both low efficiency and low innovation, while a frustrated novice is characterized as having low efficiency and high innovation. Further, the term novice does not refer to the length of teachers' careers. Rather, it refers to someone approaching a novel task or theoretical construct. It is also important to remember that levels of expertise are not characteristics of individuals, but rather are orientations that are exhibited, or not, in given contexts (Crawford et al., 2005). Nevertheless, most researchers insist that the development of adaptive expertise in teachers is the exemplar of professionalism (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986; Hammerness et al., 2005).

In terms of socio-constructivist theory, adaptive experts learn how to help themselves through a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), based on their background knowledge of successfully working through similar problems. Further, their previous experiences become internalized and automatized to the extent that sub-routines for particular problems and situations are cognitively available. Adaptive experts unconsciously apply appropriate sub-routines to situations or problems, all the while making problem-solving more efficient and effective. Therefore, the dilemma for researchers, administrators, and professional development experts is how to help novices and routine experts become more adaptable. Schwartz et al. (2005) argued that efficiency should not be extinguished, but that it should operate in balance with adaptability. One of the ways to meet the challenge is to examine the research on transfer.

Transfer

Transfer refers to the degree to which individuals use previous experiences and knowledge in new situations. Joyce and Showers (2002) identified several characteristics of teachers' practices that contribute to transfer: (a) deliberate practice, (b) theory-based reasoning, (c) breadth of experience, and (d) working collaboratively with peers or coaches. In the following sections, I describe each characteristic related to transfer of learning.

Deliberate practice. Joyce and Showers (2002) argued that mastery of component skills in a complex task or procedure is rarely sufficient for successful implementation. Reducing complexity to simple tasks does not increase understanding

in learners, and teachers experience disequilibrium, or discomfort, when this occurs (Joyce & Showers, 2002). Practice of new behaviors, in their complexity, is required for teachers to integrate new constructs into their existing frameworks (Joyce & Showers, 2002). Teachers who take the time to understand the need for new behaviors and how they can be effective are much more likely to sustain implementation (Joyce & Showers, 2002). Joyce and Showers (2002) argued that transfer of training is a metacognitive task and is separate from transfer of learning. For example, teachers may attend professional development on how to engage students in discussion during read-alouds. However, when they try to implement the new procedure, their actual practice may not reflect what was discussed in the training. Joyce and Showers (2002) maintained that both trainers and teachers underestimate the cognitive structures needed to transfer training. Many teachers believe that they will be able to implement a new practice after seeing it and learning about it, and trainers often assume that telling teachers what to do or a cursory demonstration will lead to effective implementation. Joyce and Showers (2002) insisted that teachers must have deliberate practice in order for transfer, both of training and of learning, to take place.

Theory-based reasoning. Teachers often complain about training being too theoretical, to the neglect of more practical aspects of teaching. However, Fullan (1990) asserted that without a thorough understanding in the theoretical constructs of the new practice, teachers will only be able to use the new skills or strategies in a superficial manner. They may be able to go through the motions of the practice, but they will not

have the understanding to adapt the usefulness of the practice to their individual students. Teachers must necessarily understand the theoretical framework in order to apply the practice flexibly and in multiple situations. Otherwise, the new innovation will become nothing more than a recipe for teaching (Fullan, 1990; Joyce & Showers, 2002). Teachers who understand the theoretical basis for the practice tend to implement it in ways that are congruent with the research (Joyce & Showers, 2002). An understanding of theory makes transfer of learning more likely.

Breadth of experience. As previously discussed, teacher expertise does not always improve with experience (Barnett & Koslowski, 2002; Karmiloff-Smith, & Inhelder, 1974). However, some research suggests that the breadth of a teacher's prior experience may be important to the development of transferable understandings (Holyoak, 1991). Brown (1989) showed that the degree to which training examples are varied is critical to the degree that the understanding is transferred. Additionally, Dunbar's (1995) suggested that, with group problem solving, the breadth of relevant experience of everyone in the group, as a whole, is a factor. Teachers, who have wide experiences with different ages of students or with applying the same learning strategy in different content areas, have a greater possibility of adapting procedures or techniques to new situations. In the Vygotskian (1978) sense, learning is reformulated, based on prior experience. Teachers are more likely to become flexible and adaptable as their breadth of experience increases. Hatano and Inagaki (1986) suggested that an important dimension in developing adaptive expertise is the extent to which an

individual's experience encompasses a wide variety of contexts or forms that rely on the same theoretical constructs.

In order to better understand how teachers are transferring learning and training, Joyce and Showers (2002) described that a hierarchy exists. From their research in analyzing teachers' lesson plans, conducting interviews, and participating in classroom observations, Joyce and Showers (2002) developed a continuum to assist coaches in determining teachers' levels of transfer. They ranked the continuum in levels, from 1 (low) to 5 (high):

- Level 1 indicates imitative use. In this level, teachers use exact replication of lessons that are demonstrated.
- Level 2 represents mechanical use, or horizontal transfer. A teacher, who is adept in imitative Level 1, begins to use the same practice in another domain. Practice increases but there is little variation in different kinds of implementation.
- Level 3 is routine use. Certain strategies and types of lessons are identified with types of teaching. Strategy use is frequent, but alternative strategies are not considered.
- Level 4 is integrated use. In this level, teachers make connections between knowledge. Categories are formed and reformed as their new learning is assimilated into existing knowledge.

- Level 5 is executive use. Teachers have complete understanding of underlying theories, and they make appropriate decisions about models of teaching to use in order to maximize student learning (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

To develop teachers' expanding knowledge bases, increase the likelihood that transfer of learning and training takes place, and consequently assist teachers in becoming more adaptive experts, a socio-constructivist would argue that socially-mediated opportunities for learning are critical. The following section describes how the collaborative process of coaching, as a method of professional development, offers the most efficient and effective framework for teachers initiate changes in their practices.

Working Collaboratively with Peers or Coaches

Hatano and Inagaki (1986) argued that working collaboratively as part of a team increases the likelihood of teachers developing adaptive expertise. They surmised that because teamwork requires participants to supply justifications for their thinking, individuals must clarify and reformulate prior knowledge. Barnett and Koslowski (2002) furthered the argument by suggesting that perhaps group dynamics are conducive to participants becoming more motivated to work collaboratively. Teachers who are allowed to work with peers and colleagues may feel responsible for the success of the group's work, and thus may become more proactive (Joyce & Showers, 2005). Joyce and Showers (2005) also suggested that observing other teachers' implementation of the new practice is a valuable learning experience and that collaborative analyses of a

shared experience, like watching a colleague's lesson, is a powerful tool for ensuring that new practices are implemented.

A coaching model of professional development is one of the most effective and efficient methods for ensuring transfer of learning (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Hammerness et al., 2005; Joyce & Showers, 2005; Moran, 2007). Coaching experiences may be conducted with peers or other experts such as literacy coaches. Moran (2007) outlined the observation cycle as usually containing three steps: (a) pre-observation meeting, (b) actual observation, and (c) debriefing after the observation.

In the pre-observation meeting, the teacher describes the lesson that will be observed, including goals, activities that will be used, and any relevant information about students (Moran, 2007). Moran further stated that, together with the observer, the teacher sets the focus for the observation using goals and objectives that have been identified. Then, the coach has an opportunity to ask clarifying questions about the lesson (Moran, 2007). In the debriefing session, the coach and teacher have a reflective conversation about the lesson (Moran, 2007). Bean (2004) suggested that there are three major ways that the coach works with the teacher during the debriefing time:

- The coach is a mirror for the teacher. The teacher assumes the leadership role in the meeting and is self-reflective.
- The coach and teacher analyze the lesson together, determining the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson in relationship to the goal that were set.

- The coach is an expert who helps the teacher with effective implementation of appropriate practices.

During the debriefing time, research suggests that the peer collaborator or coach should not provide feedback (Joyce & Showers, 2002). The current research by Joyce and Showers (2002) suggests that feedback is imbued with distracting comments that may be taken as personal attacks, especially if the coach begins to take more of a supervisory tone. Or sometimes teachers may view feedback as obligatory, especially if the coach has a habit such as providing a positive statement at the beginning of each debriefing session. Joyce and Showers (2002) argued that the deletion of feedback has not been counterproductive to student growth.

Bean (2004) added another step to Moran's (2007) model of coaching. After the observation and before the debriefing, she suggested that the step of analyzing and reflecting should be added (Bean, 2004). There is a need for the coach to analyze and reflect on the observation in preparation for the debriefing conference with the teacher. In this phase of the process, the coach transcribes notes or scripts. If the lesson was videotaped, the coach would take time to review the video and make necessary transcriptions. The purpose of this time is for the coach to consider how to engage the teacher in reflection about the lesson (Bean, 2004).

Effective Coaching Practices

The research defines several practices that define effective coaching practices. Robertson, Ford-Connors, & Paratore (2014) posited that a primary goal of coaching is

helping teachers move toward more strategic use of their talk in dialogic conversations. They recently, developed a Coaching Continuum that describes the coaching process in terms of levels of intensity in engaging teachers to reflect on their teaching practices and instructional talk: (a) discussing lesson observations; (b) listening to lesson audio or viewing a videotape of the lesson, followed by discussion; (c) reading and discussing transcripts of lessons; and (d) transcribing, analyzing, and discussing lesson video or audio (Robertson, Ford-Connors, & Paratore, 2014).

In discussing a lesson observation, the least intensive engagement, the teacher and coach follow the design by Moran (2007) discussed earlier (Robertson et al., 2014). The second point on the continuum involves listening to an audio tape recording or watching a videotape of the lesson. This practice provides concrete evidence of exactly what happened in the lesson, in time order. Robertson et al. (2014) argued that this level of analysis and intensity fosters teachers' increased awareness of their teacher talk, leading to more strategic talk moves and more effective teaching. The next level on the continuum involves reading and discussing lesson transcripts (Robertson et al., 2014). Teachers audiotape or videotape a lesson and then identify a segment they would like to discuss during debriefing. The coach transcribes the segment and engages the teacher in reflection and analysis of the lesson's effectiveness (Robertson et al., 2014). The purpose of this level of intensity is to help teachers develop an awareness of the dynamic relationship between teacher talk and its' effect on students' engagement and learning (Robertson et al., 2014). In the most intensive coaching

sessions, teachers participate in transcribing and analyzing their own instruction. This perspective allows close examination of teacher effectiveness and focuses the attention on individual turns in talking (Robertson et al., 2014). Transcript analysis is quite demanding for teachers, but Robertson et al. (2014) found it to be useful for helping teachers form instruction that leads to student success.

Recognizing that the level of intensity is based on the teacher's current level of knowledge, the relationship between teacher and coach, and the teacher's comfort level and ability to be reflective, Robertson et al. (2014) suggested that the teacher and the coach should decide jointly on the level of intensity at which the coaching will occur.

Summary

Within the socio-constructivist paradigm, the use of language as a mediator of meaning is of central importance. In most classrooms, a pattern of monologic discourse exists where the teacher is in control of the use of language and, consequently, students do not engage in constructing meaning. Therefore, dialogic conversations must take place between teachers and students and between students and their peers to ensure that students effectively construct their own understandings. This review of the literature described socio-constructivist theorists, the relevance of students' oral language in their learning, and a job-embedded professional development model of coaching to effect changes in teachers' practices.

The following chapter describes the methodology adopted for this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this descriptive case study was to investigate, from a socio-constructivist paradigm, the extent to which coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry influences meaningful dialogue about text with third grade readers. The overarching question for this study was: What happens when a teacher is coached on the use of dialogic inquiry? The guiding research question was: To what extent does coaching a teacher in dialogic inquiry foster changes in conversations with students about text? Two additional questions that required further clarification of the guiding question were:

- How do coaching experiences in the use of dialogic inquiry influence a teacher's conversations with students about text?
- How do student contributions to text conversations change when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry?

Chapter 3 describes this study's design and procedures, and it provides detailed information in the following areas: (a) general perspective (b) research design, (c) setting, (d) description of the participants, (e) timeline, (f) tools and data collection, (g) credibility and trustworthiness, and (h) summary.

General Perspective

Davis (1995) urged qualitative researchers to examine the theories and views that were likely to affect their research. I chose a qualitative design for this study for several reasons. First, my worldview embraces a post-positivist epistemology that regards social interactions and language as the foundation upon which human beings engage in the active construction of meaning. Secondly, in opposition to positivists' view that dichotomous thinking leads to a one truth, qualitative designs emphasize multiplicity and complexity as hallmarks of studying human experiences and phenomena (Merriam, 2009). Additionally, a post-positivist stance assumes that the researcher is a learner, rather than a judgmental tester (Agar, 1996). Further, as Wolcott (1990) asserted, post-positivist researchers regard themselves as conducting research among other people, learning with them, rather than performing research on them. Finally, as Hammersley (2000) posited, research can have an exploratory character that is open-ended. "Problems sometimes have to be *discovered*" (Hammersley, 2000, p. 456, original emphasis).

This study is situated within three theoretical perspectives; (a) socio-constructivism, (b) socio-cultural theory, and (c) dialogism. Socio-constructivism is based on Vygotsky's (1978) theoretical position that active participants construct their own meaning through socially mediated interactions. He further theorized that expert others aid novices in learning a new task by providing assistance through the learner's Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978). Theoretical constructs of socio-cultural theory are also rooted in Vygotsky's (1978) work. He viewed the interpersonal

function of language as providing a vehicle for a child's eventual self-thought. Bakhtin's (1981) theory of dialogism relied on the situated nature of language as the vehicle for negotiating meaning. These theoretical perspectives assert that unique and personal human conversations provide for the active construction of meaning, and qualitative methodology allows for descriptions of the process. While it is certainly not true that post-positivism inherently equates to qualitative methods, for this study, my worldview and the theoretical premises underpinning socio-constructivism, sociocultural theory, and dialogism, qualitative methodology was the best fit.

Research Design

This qualitative research was a descriptive case study. Bromley (1990) defined a case study as a "systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest" (p. 320). Three other prominent qualitative researchers, Merriam (2009), Stake (1995), and Yin (1994), agreed that case study is an investigation that is able to retain a holistic view of meaningful characteristics in real-life situations or events, and the design is especially suited to contexts in which it is impossible to separate the phenomenon's variables from their context. Stake (1995) further asserted that the object of the investigation is defined by interest in individual cases, not by methods of inquiry. Merriam (2009) and Stake (2007) offered descriptions of special features of a case study: (a) it is an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system; (b) the focus is specific in that it describes a particular situation, event, or phenomenon; (c) it is descriptive to the extent that it includes as many variables as

possible and portrays their interaction in order to literally describe the event under investigation; and (d) it is heuristic in the sense that new insights and new meanings may be generated or existing generalizations may be reinforced or modified. Merriam (2009) further asserted that attempts to define the case often focus on delineating what is unique about the research design. However, she cautioned that the uniqueness of case study is not defined solely through its methodology, but is more understood by the questions asked and their relationship to the end product (Merriam, 2009). Stake (2005) claimed that interpretations of case study yield findings that are different from other research in four ways:

- Findings are more vivid, concrete, and sensory.
- Findings are more contextual in that they are socially situated.
- Findings are more developed by a reader's interpretation, which lead to generalizations when new data for the case are added to existing data.
- Findings are based on reference populations that are determined by the researcher, and further interpretation of the case study is open to readers for extending generalizations.

Finally, Merriam (2009) asserted that the methodology of case study offers the greatest advantage of making significant contributions to the practice of education.

Strengths of Case Study

Because case study is anchored in real life situations, data are rich and yield holistic accounts of the event or phenomenon. As a result, readers' experiences may be

expanded since the descriptions offer insights that may be construed as tentative hypotheses to help structure future research. Hence, case study may play an important role in advancing a field's knowledge base (Merriam, 2009; Stake, 1981). Even though generalizability is not a goal in case study methodology (Merriam, 2009; Stake, 2005), Erickson (1986) argued that what one may deduce in a particular case may possibly be transferred to similar situations because it is the reader, nor the researcher, who determines if or how data analysis and findings may apply to other contexts. Merriam (2009) and Stake (1995) further purported that case study is particularly valuable for applied fields, such as education, because of its situated context.

Limitations of Case Study

Merriam (2009) and Stake (2005) argued that there are distinct limitations of case study:

- The amount of description, analysis, or summary material is left to the sole discretion of the researcher(s).
- Case study is limited by the ethical sensitivity and integrity of the researcher.
- There are no formal guidelines in constructing the final reporting of findings.

With respect to the first limitation, researchers must decide how much to make the report a narrative, how much to compare with other cases, how much to formalize generalizations or leave such generalizing to readers, and how much description of the researcher should be include in the results (Merriam, 2009; Stake, 2005).

Denzin (1994) asserted that the ethical issue of bias in qualitative case study

becomes a crisis in interpretation. Guba and Lincoln (1981) offered suggestions of caution to both researchers and readers of case studies to be aware of biases that affect the overall study design and its findings. As the researcher is situated within the study, he or she has an influence upon it (Merriam, 2009). This perspective assumes that observations are a context for interactions among those involved in the research (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; and Wolcott, 1990). Transparency and reflexivity are purported to be critical for qualitative researchers in order to ameliorate issues of bias (Merriam, 2009; Stake, 1995; Wolcott, 1990).

Another ethical issue is that of positional power relationships between the researcher and study participants (Denzin, 1994). Researchers in the field of qualitative inquiry argue that investigators must maintain critical self-reflection through thorough accounting of how the investigator's position within the research context influences it (Merriam, 2009; and Stake, 1995). Otherwise, the effects of power relationships permeate and affect all aspects of the study, from design to implementation, to data collection and analysis, and finally to interpretation of findings (Merriam, 2009, and Stake, 1995).

Further, concerns regarding reliability, validity, and generalizability must be resolved and thoroughly explained *a priori* (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). These characteristics of research are generally characteristics of quantitative research designs (Merriam, 2009), and qualitative methodology is more closely associated with issues of credibility and trustworthiness and how the researcher provides for transparency and

reflexivity (Merriam, 2009; and Stake, 2005). With regard to reporting data, Merriam (2009) and Stake (2005) maintained that researchers must be required to provide a detailed description of the case, its setting, and every aspect of data collection, analysis, and reporting of findings. Through their reporting, researchers invite readers to view the event or phenomenon as it is situated and couched within the researcher's epistemological perspective. In this way, reports of findings are then offered as an interpretation (Merriam, 2009, Stake, 2005, and Wolcott, 1990).

Case Study in This Research

This study provides a “thick description” (Geertz, 1973, p. 6) of coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry, the teacher's subsequent use of dialogic inquiry with students during text conversations, and the students' resulting conversations. Because this study was concerned with studying in-depth teacher and student talk surrounding text reading within the context of a natural classroom setting, case study methodology was the preferred method of inquiry.

Merriam (2009) and Stake (1995) agreed that the case, or unit of study, should: (a) be a complex functioning unit, (b) be investigated in its natural context, and (c) be contemporary. Stake (2005) further suggested that case study represents the researcher's choice about what is to be studied. The *what* is a system that is bounded and is selected because: (a) it is an example of a process, concern, or issue; (b) it is interesting to the researcher; or (c) it potentially may achieve a more complete understanding of a phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). By focusing on a single case as a unit of study, a

researcher deliberately purposes to uncover how the interaction of factors characterizes the event or phenomenon. I chose one 3rd grade teacher and her students as the unit of inquiry because of my long-standing concern about students' apparent difficulties in accessing deep comprehension structures of text. Since meaning is negotiated through language in a social context (Vygotsky, 1978), I chose case study as a method of developing thick descriptions of teacher and student conversations about text.

I used Merriam's (2009) and Stake's (2005) perspectives in defining and addressing the research questions.

Setting

Upon approval from the Texas Woman's University Institutional Review Board (IRB), access was requested and obtained from the East Texas public school in which this study took place. The unit of analysis for this study was one 3rd grade teacher and her classroom of students. The classroom was one of three third grade classes in a Pre-K-5th grade Title I school-wide elementary public school in a small East Texas city. The naturalistic setting of the teacher's literacy block was used for all classroom observations. The Texas Education Agency (2013) reported that ninety-three percent of the students in the school were economically disadvantaged, and forty-six percent of students were English language learners. Student groups were as follows: (a) African American, 37%; (b) Hispanic, 59%; and (c) White, 4%. Spanish-speaking students were offered bilingual classes in pre-K through second grade and English as a Second Language assistance was provided for students who were taught in English but needed further English language

development. According to TEA (2013) the school's performance rating was "Met Standard" for the 2012-2013 school year, but no distinctions were awarded for above average performance in Reading/English Language Arts. Since I worked in this particular school previously, my collegial relationship with the principal allowed me to gain easy access. Pseudonyms were assigned to the names of the school, teacher, and students. The study was conducted during the Fall semester, 2013 (August-December). I worked with administrators to secure appropriate permission forms for all study participants.

Participants

Participants for this study included one 3rd grade classroom teacher, Mrs. Wood, and 15 of her students from an East Texas school district.

Teacher Participant

Mrs. Wood volunteered to participate in this study, and all events in the study were held in her classroom. She hosted me, during her literacy block, for a baseline observation, 5 subsequent observation periods, and a final observation. She also attended an initial coaching session as an orientation to using dialogic inquiry techniques as a way of discussing text with students, and she participated in five subsequent coaching sessions, after my classroom observations, in order to refine her dialogic stance toward text conversations with students. All coaching sessions were held during the school day, when Mrs. Wood's students were attending special classes. Mrs. Wood was also responsible for reflecting on her practice by keeping a journal, with entries made subsequent to all of my classroom observations and coaching sessions. All observations

and coaching sessions were audio and video recorded. More relevant information about Mrs. Wood is described in detail in Chapter 4.

Student Participants

Fifteen students in Mrs. Wood's third grade classroom participated in the study. I placed the video camera at the back of the room so that students' faces were not visible on the recording. The three students who did not participate in the study continued to function normally in their classroom environment. However, I did not include any of their conversations about text in any form of data collection or analysis. Their contributions to classroom conversations were not considered during researcher or teacher reflections. More thorough and detailed descriptions of the students are included in Chapter 4.

Description of the Researcher

I am a teacher with 33 years of experience in Texas public schools. Throughout my career I have taught grades 1, 3, 4, 6, and 7. I also taught Reading Recovery® and was a Reading Recovery Teacher Leader for 15 years. During the last eight years in the district, my office was housed in this particular school, Morton Elementary. While the principal of this school was never my supervisor, I held Reading Recovery training sessions at this site and personally taught Reading Recovery to several Morton Elementary first grade students from 2000-2008. The principal and I continued to maintain a collegial relationship, although I had not personally worked with him in the six years prior to this study.

A fundamental concept of case study methodology is that the researcher, assuming an inductive investigative strategy, is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis, thus providing an end product that is richly descriptive (Merriam, 2009). After designing the study, I collected, transcribed, and analyzed all data, and additionally acted as the coach for the classroom teacher's reflections on her practice. My role also included audio and video recording all activities of the study. Two peer debriefers, who were currently doctoral students at Texas Woman's University, reviewed data analysis and findings as a means of providing challenge and legitimation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Timeline

All data were collected during the fall semester of the 2013-2014 school year (August-December). The baseline observation and the first coaching session began within the first two weeks of the school year. It was important that I observed text conversations in the classroom prior to planning the first coaching session. I wanted to have an idea of how students interacted with Mrs. Wood and with each other, and I also thought it was important to observe Mrs. Wood's literacy routines. This baseline observation gave me the advantage of learning the students' names, where they sat in the classroom, and allowed me some insight into their personalities. I arranged with Mrs. Wood to observe her literacy block on a bi-weekly basis, with our coaching sessions scheduled on the weeks between observations. The pattern of observing and coaching continued over a 10-week period, totaling 5 observations and 5 coaching sessions. A final observation and debriefing with the teacher took place at the end of the fall semester

in December. The purpose of the last observation was to observe how well Mrs. Wood's dialogic stance continued in her text conversations with her students. It also gave me a unique perspective into students' expanding conversations with their teacher and with each other.

Tools

Several tools were used to provide rich descriptions of the unit of study. All data sources were kept in a combination safe in my home office when not in use, including audio and video recordings. Any data sources on the hard drive of my computer were password protected.

In this section, I describe the tools that I used in conducting the research. I used Wells's (1999, 2001) coding protocols to perform discourse analyses of the classroom observation transcripts. In the next section entitled Discourse Analysis, I describe both the theoretical principles underpinning Wells's protocol as well as the actual coding schemes that I chose for this study. The second section, Dialogic Inquiry Tool, describes the instrument both Mrs. Wood and I used to determine how she and her students were progressing toward a dialogic stance in text conversations. Finally, in the last section, Coaching Tools, I discuss two tools that helped me design each coaching session: (a) Levels of Transfer (Joyce & Showers, 2002), and (b) Increasing Progressive Differentiation and Career Points (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005). I also include recent research by Robertson et al. (2014) that validates coaching decisions that I made throughout this study.

Discourse Analysis

While there are several coding protocols available for discourse analysis, I chose to use that of Wells (1999; 2001). His work is rooted in the study of dialogic inquiry, and his coding schemes most closely matched the intent of this study. The following two sections describe both the underlying theoretical principles of discourse analysis from a socio-constructivist paradigm and the coding schemes adopted by Wells (1999; 2001).

Methodological framework. In keeping with Vygotsky's (1978) constructivist principles and furthering the work of Leont'ev (1981), Wells (1999) proposed that classroom events are organized into three strata: (a) activity, (b) action, and (c) operation. In this definition, *activity* does not refer to a single curricular event, but it assumes the entire "Practice of Education" (Wells, 1999, p. 233). The second stratum, *action*, transforms the activity into reality, and, as such, it has a goal (Wells, 1999). Wells (1999) argued that the third stratum, *operation*, accounts for the means by which the goals are attained. Wells (1999) explained that, within this three-tiered framework, discourse is viewed as a tool that is used in achieving the goals of actions. In this regard, language plays a central role in mediating activity and, thus, becomes a semiotic tool (Halliday, 1978; Leont'ev, 1981; Wells 1999). Wells (1999) posited that these acts of meaning occur dialogically as meaning is constructed, exchanged, and recreated through conversations. Drawing from Bakhtin's (1981) theory of speech genres, Wells argued that meaning is specifically situated in certain contexts, and, therefore, spoken texts uniquely and dialogically act to mediate activity, and, thus, meaning.

Categories for discourse analysis. In the following sections, I discuss the coding protocols that I adopted for the analysis of classroom discourse. I decided to use coding that Wells defined in his work on dialogic inquiry. The categories were relevant to this study because they were defined in Barnes's, Halliday's, and Wells's work as being important analyses of classroom discourse toward defining teachers' and students' monologic or dialogic stances. Wells (1999; 2001) identified several attributes that are critical to understanding how meaning is created and co-created through dialogic conversations: (a) moves, exchanges, and sequences; (b) prospectiveness of moves; (c) function of moves; (d) length of students' responses; and (e) hypothetical mode in students' responses. Each attribute plays a critical role in studying how the use of language can be used to support a dialogic stance in conversations. Applying these characteristics to the discourse patterns in Mrs. Wood's classroom allowed me to examine the effectiveness of coaching in moving Mrs. Wood's text conversations towards a dialogic stance. See Appendix A for an example of the coding sheet.

Moves, exchanges, and sequences. A *move* is defined as an utterance (Bakhtin, 1981) from one person. Most often in classrooms, it is a statement or a question. An *exchange* is formed when one person initiates a move and another person responds. According to Wells (1999; 2001), the exchange is the smallest unit for analysis of spoken discourse because the emphasis is on two participants actively co-constructing meaning. Wells further defined attributes of an exchange. Every exchange consists of an *initiating*

move and a *response* move, and, oftentimes there is a third, *follow-up*, move (Wells, 1999; 2001).

There are two types of exchanges: (a) *nuclear* exchanges which can independently stand alone and which contribute new content to the discourse, and (b) *bound* exchanges which cannot stand alone but are dependent on the nuclear exchange in some regard (Wells, 1999, p. 236). Wells (1999) asserted that the most important bound exchange is the *dependent* exchange in which some aspect of the nuclear exchange is further developed. For example, a dependent exchange might be used to add further clarification, justification, or rationale to the nuclear exchange. A second category of bound exchanges is the *embedded* exchange, which deals with problems in the uptake, or carrying forward, of a move in the current exchange. An embedded exchange may be repetition of a previous comment or question, or it may clarify a referent. A final bound category, the *preparatory* exchange, deals with the identification of the next speaker and is particularly noticeable in classroom conversations. Preparatory exchanges include students bidding to talk and the teacher's nomination of students. Sometimes gestures and facial expressions are also considered as exchanges, particularly when they take the place of spoken words. For example, teachers sometimes nod in agreement in a follow-up move, or they may point in a preparatory exchange to nominate the next speaker.

A *sequence* is the unit of discourse that includes a single nuclear exchange and any exchanges that are bound to it, and Wells (1999) argued that it holds the greatest functional significance in understanding the role of talk in joint activity. In Halliday's

(1984) terms, the sequence unit involves introducing, negotiating, and bringing some form of information to completion. Wells's (1999) choice of the sequence as the unit of language analysis highlights the collaborative nature of oral text construction in that at least two participants contribute to meet the expectations of the initiating move. Wells further maintained that the precise meaning constructed in a sequence can never be determined until its conclusion. Additionally, since it is the co-constructed meaning that forms the point of departure for the following sequence, no one conversational participant can ever predict or control how the succeeding discourse will develop beyond the current move, even when one participant has unequal control of the topic. Figure 1 depicts the levels of discourse analysis as proposed by Wells.

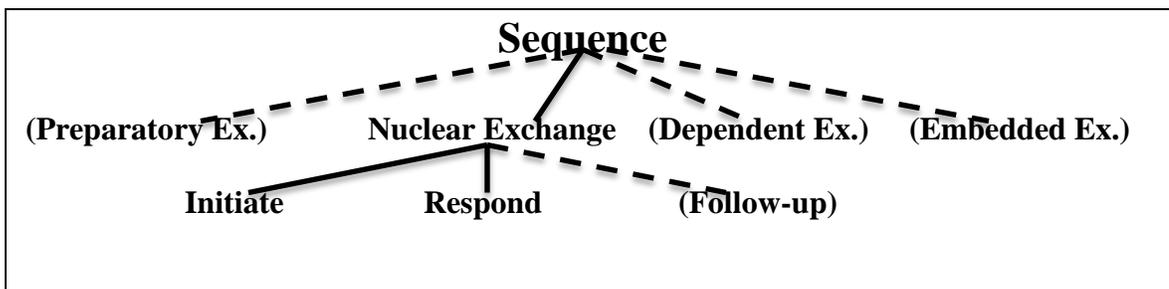


Figure 1. Sequential Organization of Spoken Discourse. Note: Ex. = Exchange. Adapted from Wells, G. and (DICEP) Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project. (2001). *Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse*. Bristol, UK. Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251.html

The value of the sequence as it relates to extending conversation holds significant implications for classroom teachers. Wells (1999), in his research on conversations between mothers and their toddlers, found that the response move in a nuclear exchange

acted as a springboard for the introduction of a further bound, or dependent, exchange, thus extending conversation and meaning-making. While it may be impossible for teachers to function as these mothers did in their response moves, Wells (1999) suggested that exploiting the follow-up move in order to extend the sequence is an alternative strategy that may be more feasible with larger groups of children. In most United States classrooms, teachers tend to use the follow-up move to evaluate a student response (Mehan, 1979). However, by using the follow-up move differently, teachers provide students with opportunities to extend their thinking through language (Wells, 1999).

Prospectiveness of moves. Wells (1999) asserted that prospectiveness is a general principle to consider when analyzing classroom discourse. Prospectiveness of a move defines the way in which a teacher exerts control over conversational exchanges, and, thus, influences classroom talk toward a monologic or dialogic stance. There are three categories of prospectiveness: (a) *demand*, (b) *give*, and (c) *acknowledge*. The demand is the strongest prospective move in that it requires a response. A give move is less controlling, or less prospective, than a demand move because it does not require a response. Finally, the acknowledge move is the least prospective. It always occurs in response to a more prospective move, and it does not require a response. The prospectiveness of moves is roughly correlated to moves in an exchange. Often in classroom conversations, teachers make the controlling, initiating move that is a demand, and they expect a response. Then, students typically respond by making a give move that is less controlling in terms of prospectiveness. Teachers then have the option of making a

follow-up move. Follow-up moves often exert no control over the conversation, and they qualify as an acknowledge in prospectiveness.

A critical principle of prospectiveness in conversational moves is that, at any point after the initiating move, a conversational participant can increase the prospectiveness of the current move so that it, in turn, expects or requires a response (Wells, 1999). For example, when a teacher asks a question, he or she initiates a move that demands a response. Students generally respond by giving an answer. Then, the teacher might follow-up by acknowledging the response. In this scenario, the sequence contains only the nuclear exchange and the conversation is abruptly halted. Consequently, the conversation consists of many disjointed sequences containing only nuclear exchanges. However, if the teacher uses the follow-up move to ask a clarifying question, the prospectiveness of the follow-up would increase from acknowledge to demand, and, thus, the conversation would be extended.

Since Wells (1999) placed emphasis on teachers' follow-up moves in extending conversations, it was important for me to understand how Mrs. Wood exerted control over the conversations about text in her classrooms. Therefore, I coded each conversational move in this study in terms of prospectiveness in order to study how the teacher's shifting control of the conversation influenced students' talk.

Function of moves. Conversational moves also serve functions. The function of a move describes the speaker's intent, and often a move may serve more than one function (Wells, 1999). For example, an initiating move may be a question posed by a teacher. In

this case, the prospectiveness of the move would be a demand, and the move may function to request information. A student's response move may function to be an answer to the teacher's question. The prospectiveness of the response would be a give, and this move would function to inform.

The function of follow-up moves is also important toward shifting classroom conversations to a more dialogic stance. Mehan (1979) found that teachers' follow-up moves most often function to evaluate students' responses. The implication of Mehan's (1979) findings is that the critical attribute was not the follow-up moves themselves that hinder classroom conversations. Rather, it was the function of evaluation in the follow-up moves that was critical to the outcome of his study. According to Wells (1999), the Initiation-Response-Follow-up pattern of conversational exchanges is not inherently negative. In fact, he argued that the pattern is often useful in classrooms under certain conditions. However, it is both the prospectiveness of conversational moves and the functions of those moves that define a monologic or dialogic stance (Wells, 1999).

In this study, I used the coding for functions of moves as suggested by Wells (1999). The function of Mrs. Wood's follow-up moves was of particular importance in helping her shift toward a more dialogic stance in her conversations with students about texts. As the follow-up move changed in function from being evaluative to being an initiation of a dependent exchange, dialogic conversations were initiated and extended.

Length of students' responses. In the Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse, published by Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in

Education Project (2001), the length of student contributions to conversations is mentioned as a guide to notice how students engage with their teacher and their peers.

The coding for student contributions is based on the following characteristics:

- 1 indicates a minimal response,
- 2 indicates a main clause and a dependent clause, and
- 3 indicates at least 3 clauses.

It was important to the intent of the study to gauge the quality of students' contributions in conversations about text. Although the length of the response is a linear measure, I wanted to consider how the prospectiveness of students' moves, the functions of their moves, and the lengths of their responses influenced extension of conversations.

Hypothetical mode in students' responses. Another qualitative factor in observing students' growth toward participating in more dialogic conversations about text is to consider a function of talk, the hypothetical mode. Hypothetical discourse is a valued mode of discourse in education because it signals a speaker's tentativeness (Barnes, 1992; Halliday, 1978; Wells, 1999). When students are willing to converse about their uncertainty, other conversation participants have opportunities to further develop these ideas. A hypothetical move acts as a springboard from which new possibilities in thinking arise, and this newly created thinking functions as a feed-forward mechanism (Bruner, 1986) to extend conversation in a meaningful way. Its use is considered to give evidence of children's thinking about consequences and suggests that students have the ability to project into the future in context-free ways (Barnes, 1992;

Halliday, 1978; Wells, 1999). Researchers also posit that students who are engaged in hypothetical thinking are engaged with the task and find it meaningful (Barnes, 1992; Halliday, 1978; Wells, 1999).

Students who respond to conversation in the hypothetical mode often use words like *maybe*, *perhaps*, *possibly*, and *I wonder* (Barnes, 1992; Halliday, 1978; Wells, 1999). However, Barnes (1992) cautioned that the use of so-called *signal* words may not actually indicate that a student response is in the hypothetical mode. Those who analyze discourse must take into account the genuineness with which the move is rendered (Barnes, 1992).

Summary. In coding the classroom discourse for this study, I used Wells's (1999; 2001) coding protocols. This coding protocol included Wells's (1999) suggestions for basic discourse analysis as well as two additional categories that he and members of the DICEP used to evaluate the quality of students' conversations. For each move, I coded six categories as follows:

- exchange type (Nuclear, Dependent, Embedded, or Preparatory),
- move type (Initiating move, Responding move, or Follow-up move),
- prospectiveness (Demand, Give, or Acknowledge),
- function (Request information, Request opinion, Inform, Suggest, Evaluate, etc.),
- length of students' responses (1, 2, or 3), and
- hypothetical mode in students' responses by coding a "yes" or a "no." See Appendix A for an example of a coding sheet.

Dialogic Inquiry Tool

The Dialogic Inquiry Tool was designed by Reznitskaya, Glina, and Oyler (2011) as a means of examining the extent to which teachers and students participated in a dialogic approach to text conversations, using a stance of inquiry. Although data analysis techniques used by researchers of classroom discourse are often too time-consuming and too complicated to be used by practicing teachers (Chinn, O'Donnell, & Jinks, 2000), the D-I-T (Reznitskaya, Glina, & Oyler, 2011) not only allows teachers to gather rich data, but it is also efficient for school settings (Rezniskaya et al., 2011). Reznitskaya et al. (2011) designed the D-I-T as an anchored classroom observation scale that is specifically purposed to assist elementary school teachers in examining and rethinking the quality of talk during discussions about text (Reznitskaya et al., 2011). Initially influenced by Argumentation Theory as it related to research in Collaborative Reasoning (Anderson, Chinn, Chang, Waggoner, & Yi, 1997; Anderson, Chinn, Waggoner, & Nguyen, 1998; and Anderson, Nguyen-Jahiel, McNurlen, Archoudidou, Reznitsksya et al., 2001), Reznitskaya and her colleagues argued that the D-I-T allowed them to describe subsequent research pertaining to dialogic conversations within literature discussion groups (Reznitskaya et al., 2011).

Based on Bakhtin's (1981) theory of dialogism and Wells's (1999) theory of dialogic inquiry, the D-I-T consists of two rubrics, one to examine the teacher's stance and the other to examine students' participation in a dialogic inquiry approach to conversations about texts. Reznitskaya et al. (2011) defined six characteristics of

dialogic teaching, classroom practices and key verbal behaviors in the D-I-T rubrics: (a) authority, (b) questions, (c) feedback, (d) meta-level reflection, (e) explanation, and (f) collaboration. Further, the researchers defined eight specific teacher indicators to describe those characteristics of dialogic teaching and five student indicators to characterize students' developing conversational behaviors toward assuming an inquiry stance.

After the baseline observation, I coached Mrs. Wood on the theoretical perspectives underpinning dialogic inquiry and the benefits for engaging students in meaningful conversations about texts. Then, I introduced Mrs. Wood to the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011). I had previously identified sample video recordings of various teachers during classroom discussions of interactive read-alouds. As Mrs. Wood and I viewed the short video segments that I had selected, we discussed D-I-T indicators and marked the rubrics together.

Following the initial coaching session, I used the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) to examine video clips of the Mrs. Wood's conversations with her students and students' conversations with each other about texts. Subsequent to each classroom observation, I transcribed all classroom conversations, marked the D-I-T rubrics for both the teacher and students, and identified relevant video clips to use in the subsequent coaching sessions. Then, during the coaching session, Mrs. Wood and I viewed the selected clips together, she took observational notes, and then she marked the D-I-T rubrics. Finally, Mrs. Wood used the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) to set a goal toward improving a

dialogic stance in her classroom conversations about text. This routine continued four more times for a total of five classroom observations followed by five coaching sessions, within a 10-week period. I made one final classroom observation toward the end of the semester, in December. I marked the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubrics after the final observation, but Mrs. Wood did not.

In the following two sections, I describe the teacher's and the students' D-I-T rubrics. While Reznitskaya et al. (2012) originally designed and used the rubrics for studies of literature discussion groups, the indicators, nevertheless, apply to any classroom conversational exchanges. The researchers based the rubrics on Wells's work in dialogic inquiry.

Teacher's D-I-T rubric. Reznitskaya et al. (2012) described eight indicators to assess how a teacher is progressing toward a dialogic stance in conversations about texts. D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) teacher indicators are: (a) sharing the floor, (b) dividing responsibilities, (c) asking open-ended questions, (d) requesting reasons, (e) prompting for alternatives, (f) monitoring discussion processes, (g) connecting students' ideas, and (h) clarifying meaning/summarizing. Each indicator on the teacher rubric exists on a continuum with a teacher-directed, authoritative, monologic stance toward instruction at the lower end of the continuum, represented by numbers 1 and 2, and a student-centered, open-ended, dialogic stance diametrically opposed and at the other extreme end, at numbers 5 and 6. Numbers 3 and 4 on the continuum are considered to lie about midway between an extreme monologic stance and an extreme dialogic stance. Teacher

indicators are defined on the rubric, with exemplars for each section of the rubric. Thus, teacher's behaviors and routines are considered to lie at varying points along the continuum. (See Appendix B.)

Student's D-I-T rubric. Similarly, teachers consider indicators of students' participation in text conversations as a means of determining the effectiveness of their own dialogic stance toward students' text conversations. The student D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) has a continuum like that of the teacher. The continuum on the student rubric also has 6 numbers, with categories 1 and 2 describing student conversations that suggest a monologic stance and categories 5 and 6 suggesting a dialogic stance. Student indicators include (a) engaging in co-reasoning, (b) providing reasons, (c) offering alternatives, (d) reflecting on discussion processes, and (e) connecting with peers (Reznitskaya et al., 2011). (See Appendix C.)

I marked both the teacher and student D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) after I transcribed and coded data from each observation in order to plan succeeding coaching sessions. I did not share my D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubrics with Mrs. Wood. She completed her two rubrics in coaching sessions, after viewing video recordings and studying transcripts of each observation.

Coaching Tools

Along with the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al, 2011), I used two scales to help me plan coaching sessions: (a) Levels of Transfer (Joyce & Showers, 2002), and (b) Increasing Progressive Differentiation and Career Points (Snow et al., 2005). Further, the decisions

that I made are reflected and validated in recent research by Robertson et al. (2014). Even though their scale, Coaching Continuum (Robertson et al., 2014), was not available during the course of this study, I discuss how that research validates the decisions I made in planning coaching sessions.

Levels of Transfer scale. The Levels of Transfer scale, developed by Joyce and Showers (2002), is used to determine how a teacher transfers learning from coaching sessions into practice. The scale is a hierarchy with five levels that correlate to the ways in which teachers assimilate what they learn into common routines for practice (Joyce & Showers, 2002). The levels of the scale define the ways teachers use and assimilate new routines or teaching strategies into their existing practices. Further, the extent to which teachers are able to integrate these new practices is predictive of transfer occurring (Joyce & Showers, 2002). I considered the levels of transfer after each of the classroom observations in order to plan ways that I could provide coaching support:

- Level 1 indicates imitative use. The teacher exactly replicates what is seen.
- Level 2 represents mechanical use, or horizontal transfer. Teachers increase in their practice of the new routine, but there is little variation in the type of implementation. For example, if a teacher asks a child to propose an “I wonder” statement in science to successfully promote an inquiry stance, he or she might ask students to write or ask an “I wonder” statement about a text they read, assuming that the mechanical use of the statement qualifies as an inquiry stance in language arts.

- Level 3 indicates routine use. In this stage teachers comfortably and consistently use well-proven strategies, but to the exclusion of alternative approaches. For example, a teacher who routinely asks students to retell a narrative text as an indicator of successful comprehending will use the retelling strategy consistently, disregarding other strategic routines for assessing comprehension.
- Level 4 indicates integrated use. At this level, teachers begin to understand which routines and strategies are appropriate for certain situations. For example, a teacher using a routine of having students retell a narrative text will understand that retelling is not sufficient in estimating how well students comprehended a text. Thus, the teacher will use the retelling strategy sparingly and only in appropriate circumstances. A teacher's intellectual and professional judgment weighs heavily in this level of transfer.
- Level 5 represents executive use of the content of training. It is characterized by the teacher's complete understanding of theories underpinning professional development training, new routines, or new strategies. Teachers make appropriate decisions about the use of models within their teaching practices. They also have the ability to select various models of teaching and combinations of models in integrated ways. As teachers reach this level of transfer, student learning is propelled into deeper levels of meaning (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

Increasing Progressive Differentiation and Career Points. Snow, et al. (2005)

discussed the growth in teachers' expertise in terms of their knowledge base and effective

implementation of literacy practices in a scale called Increasing Progressive Differentiation and Career Points. This scale is complementary to that of Joyce and Showers (2002), but it considers how teachers manage their usable knowledge at various junctures in their careers or practices (Snow et al., 2005). An important caveat in using the scale for this study is that, although teachers may have lengthy careers, any new learning may still progress through the hierarchical levels as designated by Snow et al. (2005) in order for the knowledge to become usable. Therefore, it is possible for veteran teachers to have only surface-level knowledge about a new approach or a new teaching routine. Additionally, if teachers do not work through the levels of knowledge building, that knowledge will only remain at the surface level and will not become automatized within the teachers' framework for their practice. So, the length of a teacher's career does not automatically correlate with the building of a usable knowledge base for new practices (Snow et al., 2005).

I considered how Mrs. Wood was developing a knowledge base for applying a dialogic stance to her conversations with students about texts after performing a discourse analysis on each observation. Snow et al. (2005) identified and describe categories as follows:

- Declarative knowledge marks a stage where basic disciplinary knowledge is acquired. Theoretical constructs are not considered, and declarative knowledge is not a sufficient basis for good practice.

- Situated procedural knowledge is characterized by the amount of knowledge needed for teachers to function effectively in relatively simple situations and under normal circumstances.
- Stable procedural knowledge refers to the knowledge that teachers need to function effectively in circumstances that are outside the realm of normal practice. Teachers will need to draw on their declarative and situated procedural knowledge and apply what they know to new and different situations.
- Expert, adaptive knowledge indicates a teacher's ability to deal with a full array of instructional challenges. Teachers in this category use their knowledge base to identify problems for which current research is inadequate and they seek new, relevant research-based knowledge. Teachers also adapt new information into their existing knowledge structures.
- Reflective, organized, and analyzed knowledge is required for teachers to analyze and evaluate all knowledge bases in order to make effective instructional decisions. Reflective teachers evaluate whether new understandings are usable in their practices.

Coaching Continuum. Although the Coaching Continuum (Robertson et al., 2014) was not yet published prior to data collection, I used the research findings to further analyze my decisions about coaching sessions. The continuum is based on the researchers' stance that joint inquiry encourages teachers' self-reflection and, thereby, fosters conceptual change, especially when practiced in the context of teachers' own

lessons, students, and classrooms (Robertson et al., 2014). Robertson et al. (2014) constructed a continuum of four research-based coaching approaches that engage teachers in reflecting on their own teaching practices: (a) discussing a lesson observation, (b) listening to a lesson audio or viewing a lesson video recording followed by discussion, (c) reading and discussing lesson transcripts, and (d) transcribing, analyzing, and discussing lesson audio or video recordings (Robertson et al., 2014). The placement of the four coaching approaches on a continuum represents both an increase in the level of coaching intensity as well as an increase in the time demands for both the coach and the teacher. (See Figure 2.)

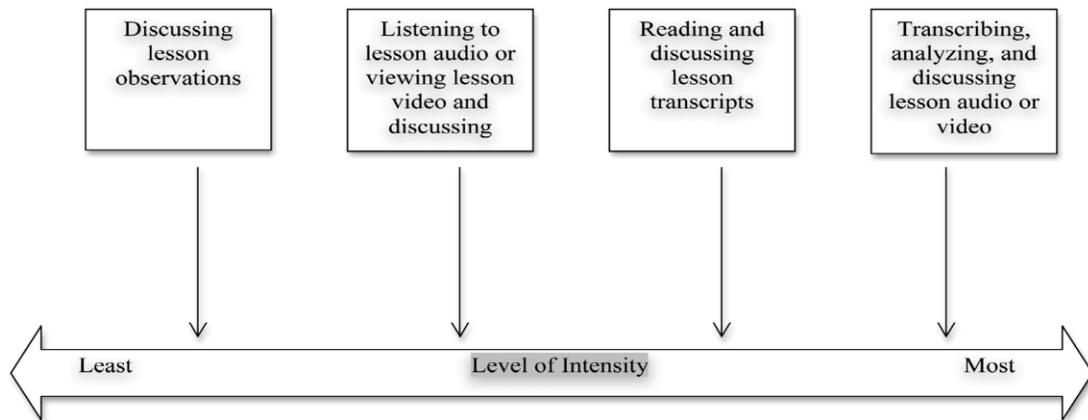


Figure 2. Coaching Continuum. Adapted from Robertson, D. A., Ford-Collins, E., and Paratore, J. R. (2014). Coaching Teachers during Vocabulary and Comprehension Instruction. *Language Arts*, 91(6), 416-428.

Robertson et al. (2014) intended for the Coaching Continuum to guide the selection of the type and intensity of coaching sessions based on: (a) the teacher's level of knowledge, (b) the teacher's willingness to engage in reflective thinking, and (c) the relationship between the teacher and the coach. For example, in order for me to ask Mrs. Wood to participate in the most intensive coaching experience, she would need to have a well-grounded knowledge base about dialogic inquiry, she would need to have a willingness to become reflective about her classroom conversations, and she and I would need to have a well-formed collegial relationship.

I chose to begin the coaching sessions by having discussions with Mrs. Wood as she watched video recordings of her classroom conversations with students about texts. As the study progressed and the coaching sessions were not effective, I chose to continue discussing the video recordings, but also to engage Mrs. Wood in studying and analyzing selected parts of the transcripts. As Robertson et al. (2014) would contend, I increased the level of intensity in the coaching sessions, and, as I will argue in Chapter 5, the approach worked to create a shift in Mrs. Wood achieving a more dialogic stance toward her conversations with students about texts. The Coaching Continuum (Robertson et al., 2014), thus, provided research-based validation of my decision-making processes for coaching sessions.

Video Recordings

All meetings between the researcher and teacher and all classroom observations were video recorded and analyzed, including the orientation session and each subsequent

coaching session. While the complete video recordings served as data sources, I selected video clips to view with the teacher during the coaching sessions. Video recordings were stored on my personal computer's hard drive, which is password protected. Video recordings and all other data were backed up on my personal external hard drive, which was also password protected, and stored in a combination safe in my home office.

Audio Recordings

All activities in this study were also audio recorded in order to ensure that conversations were captured. I positioned two audio recorders on opposite walls in the classroom during video recorded observations. In cases where the video recorder did not clearly record conversations, I used the audiotapes for transcriptions.

Field Notes

I conducted classroom observations and made observational notes of teacher and student conversations about texts during the teacher's entire literacy block, which included conversations during whole-group, small-group, and individual interactions. Students were identified by first name in the transcriptions, but pseudonyms were assigned and reported in the study itself. During classroom observations, I functioned as an observer and remained as unobtrusive as possible.

I also recorded field notes during my coaching sessions with the teacher. Since I had previously marked the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) with regard to the video clip, I noted our conversations.

Tuyay, Yeager, Green, and Dixon (2006) described the need in qualitative inquiry for separating actual observed phenomena and actions from the recorder's interpretations through his or her personal lens. As a result, the researchers (Tuyay, Yeager, Green, & Dixon, 2006) proposed a double entry journal system as a practice to assist the researcher in maintaining objectivity while still capturing personal thoughts during the process of observations. Hence, my field notes were written in this dichotomous system.

The left column on each page of the field notes was labeled "notetaking" (Tuyay et al., 2006, p. 202) and was used to record actual actions and conversations. The right column was used for "notemaking," (Tuyay et al., 2006, p. 202) and it included my interpretation of events. The notemaking column contained possible emergent trends in conversation, personal thoughts about classroom patterns of interaction, questions, reactions, impressions, and feelings about what was happening in real time.

Reflexive Journals

The problem of bias in qualitative research is a long-standing issue, and since validity cannot be claimed, qualitative researchers must have a means through which they have a method to practice critical self-reflection (Denzin, 1994; Merriam, 2009; and Stake, 2005). The practice of reflexivity allows researchers to recognize and discuss ways in which the products of their research are influenced by personal bias, thus making the process of data analysis as visible and transparent as possible (Denzin, 1994; Merriam, 2009; and Stake, 2005). MacBeth (2001) noted "reflexivity is a deconstructive exercise for locating the intersections of author, other, text, and world, and for penetrating the

representational exercise itself” (p. 35). Anderson (1989) asserted that reflexivity is a dialectical process consisting of (a) the researcher’s constructs, (b) the research data, (c) the researcher’s ideological biases, and (d) the structural and historical forces that shaped the social phenomenon under study. Denzin (1997) identified five reflexive strategies most commonly used in postmodern qualitative research to optimize transparency: (a) recognizing the researcher’s subjectivity and disclosing it, (b) recognizing the others in research and focusing on representing their voice and power, (c) recognizing that reflexivity does not make research more legitimate, more valid, or more truthful but specifies the self-critical nature of the researcher, and (d) recognizing that reflexivity can allow the researcher to transcend her own subjectivity and cultural context in ways that release her from the burden of misrepresentations. Such transparency empowers the reader of the research to make his or her own judgments concerning the integrity of the study as well as its usefulness in furthering new ideas, premises, or applications.

Both Mrs. Wood and I kept reflexive journals and posted entries after every observation and coaching session. I made an additional entry into my journal after the initial and final observations. Both the Mrs. Wood and I made an entry at the end of the research process.

In the current study, I acted on Denzin’s (1997) strategies for optimizing transparency by implementing the following specific strategies: (a) delineating between notetaking and notemaking in my field notes in an attempt to separate real-time actions and conversations from my personal thoughts, (b) asking the participating teacher to keep

a reflexive journal and using the data as a tool of analysis, and (c) making anecdotal comments after every observation, coaching session, and entry into my reflexive journal regarding possible personal biases during each particular activity in the study. As Lincoln and Guba (2000) suggested, my biases, dispositions, and assumptions regarding this research are discussed in the data analysis and findings sections.

Credibility and Trustworthiness

Credibility in qualitative research concerns itself with how congruent the findings are with reality, or internal validity, and determinations about the findings capturing reality (Merriam, 2009). Triangulation, a technique of examining a specific research topic by comparing multiple sources of data, is one means of ensuring consistency, dependability, and trustworthiness of the research methods and findings (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Merriam, 2009). In this study, data from classroom observations and coaching sessions were triangulated by the use of combinations of data as follows: (a) audio or video recordings of classroom observations and field notes, (b) audio or video recordings of coaching sessions and field notes, (c) my D-I-T rubrics and the classroom teacher's D-I-T rubrics, and (c) field notes and transcripts.

Denzin (1978) and Lincoln and Guba (2000) offered additional strategies for qualitative researchers to promote credibility and trustworthiness: (a) use of multiple methods or multiple sources of data, (b) peer examination, also referred to as member checks, (c) the researcher's position on reflexivity, and (d) an audit trail. In this study I described the multiple data sources and my position on reflexivity in preceding sections

of this chapter. I used peer de-briefers to help me identify my own biases and to provide clarity of thought. Thick descriptions of classroom observations and coaching sessions as well as copious observational field notes provide an audit trail sufficient to authenticate the findings of this study.

Summary

Chapter three presented the qualitative perspective and the context in which this case study research was situated. Information presented pertained to: (a) general perspective (b) research design, (c) setting, (d) description of the participants, (e) timeline, (f) tools, (g) credibility and trustworthiness, and summary.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this descriptive case study was to examine how coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry fosters students' contributions to conversations about texts. The overarching question was: What happens when a teacher is coached on the use of dialogic inquiry? The guiding research question was: To what extent does coaching a teacher in dialogic inquiry foster changes in her conversations with students about text? Further, I considered two aspects of the guiding research question as follows:

- How do coaching experiences in the use of dialogic inquiry influence a teacher's conversations with students about text?
- How do student contributions to text conversations change when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry?

The first section below, *Setting the Stage*, contains a thorough description of the setting and the study participants. All names are pseudonyms. Then, the *Analysis of Data* section contains a review of data as the study progressed in chronological order. Research events in this section are divided into three distinct phases that mirror how the teacher shifted from a monologic stance to more of a dialogic stance in her conversations with students about texts. This section contains patterns of interactions between the teacher and the students, the students and their peers, and the teacher and me during coaching sessions.

My decision-making rationales are also included to provide clear descriptions of research events as they happened, to discuss rationales of teacher training, and to establish a transparent audit trail. Finally, I include a summary of findings.

Chapter 5 specifically addresses the research questions.

Setting the Stage

Morton Elementary School

I chose Morton Elementary School because I was interested in working with teachers whose students were classified as “at-risk.” This particular elementary school had the most socio-economically disadvantaged students in the area, and students scored poorly on state reading assessments. I had an office in this school from 2000-2008, and I had worked with some of the first-grade students during those years in a reading intervention program. Hence, I developed a professional relationship with the principal and some of the teachers.

I chose third grade for the study because I wanted to explore children’s talk about texts at the grade level where the first statewide reading assessment was given. There were three sections of English-speaking third grade students in Morton Elementary School, and one of the teachers, Mrs. Wood, volunteered to participate in this project.

The skills-based curriculum at Morton Elementary School placed emphasis on student mastery, which, in turn, placed importance on the teacher as transmitter of knowledge. Necessarily, students practiced these skills through participating in activities like completing worksheets or providing other written evidence that they had learned the

skill. Hence, the curriculum served to preserve a monologic stance toward teaching, with teachers in control of all knowledge and learning and students being viewed as receivers of that knowledge.

The Teacher, Mrs. Wood

Mrs. Wood was a veteran teacher with 25 years experience, having taught most of those years in third grade at Morton Elementary School. I met Mrs. Wood when she was a frequent substitute teacher in another school where I had taught many years previously, and her children were acquainted with my children through the school they attended. I knew Mrs. Wood professionally during the years that I had an office in Morton Elementary School. While I did not work directly with her at that time, I observed her positive demeanor with her students and colleagues. I had a casual, friendly relationship with Mrs. Wood and her family, but we did not interact socially.

While Mrs. Wood was not familiar with dialogic inquiry, she told me that she wanted to improve her teaching, especially in the area of students' understanding of texts. Test scores on the state assessment were historically low in the area of reading comprehension at Morton Elementary School. In an effort to promote students' active involvement in constructing meaning from texts, the principal informed all third grade teachers about the study and stressed that participation might prove valuable for students. I believed that Mrs. Wood was motivated by a sincere desire to improve her teaching and also by a willingness to comply with the wishes of her principal.

Mrs. Wood seemed eager to participate in the study and readily agreed to the agenda, the study protocol, and the time requirements. Knowing her style of interacting with students as she substituted for teachers, I felt that Mrs. Wood embraced a child-centered approach to teaching, and I thought she would be reflective about her own practice. She appeared to work diligently to ensure her students' success, and she seemed to have a good rapport with them. However, I had not witnessed her teaching style in more than 25 years.

Mrs. Wood's reading block was scheduled for an hour and a half each morning, and it consisted mostly of whole-group instruction or students participating in independent work at their desks. Each day, Mrs. Wood wrote assignments for students to complete on the board at the front of the room. The literacy assignments consisted of paper and pencil worksheets, with some longer writing assignments. Mrs. Wood obviously realized the importance of writing in response to texts, however, the writing that students were to produce was very prescriptive in nature. Every time that I observed, the writing about reading assignment was inauthentic and consisted of students composing three statements, questions, or rationales. The structure of these writing assignments seemed contrived and it may have stifled students' creativity and imagination. At times, students seemed more concerned with creating lists in order to finish the assignment rather than participating in writing that would convey their thinking or deepen their understandings about texts. Often, when students could not think of something to add to their lists, they copied what their peers had written. Other times,

they simply wrote irrelevant statements that had little to do with the text itself.

Completion of the assignment was foremost on students' minds, and they seemed to approach the task in a cursory manner.

Even though Mrs. Wood reported that she taught students in guided reading instruction, I never observed it. She did, however, hold individual conferences with her students about their independent reading books from the library. She often pulled a chair to the students' desks to confer with them while she glanced through their texts. Students chose books for independent reading based on a beginning-of-the-year reading assessment that calculated students' reading levels. As they went to the school library, students found the section that housed books at their particular reading levels, and often students reported that they chose a book based on no other criteria than it was their assigned level. Students did not keep a reading log, nor did they write about their independent reading texts. As Mrs. Wood conferred with them, she often asked literal questions about their books, and students generally answered in one- or two-word phrases.

Mrs. Wood's students often worked quietly at their desks. As they worked on written assignments, Mrs. Wood monitored their work and supported their efforts as she moved around the room. Students had little interaction with each other during their work times, but many eagerly participated in activities where Mrs. Wood encouraged them to talk.

Mrs. Wood maintained many practices that were consistent with a child-centered teaching approach. She often read aloud to her students and encouraged children's participation in conversations about texts. In conferring with students, she sought to learn children's likes and dislikes both in terms of genre and reading habits. Mrs. Wood also encouraged her students to write about what they read. Students frequently made entries in their reading journals and shared their thinking and writing with each other. Because Mrs. Wood valued these student engagements, she was a good candidate for coaching in moving these activities toward a more dialogic stance.

The Room

Mrs. Wood's room contained 19 desks that were grouped in pairs, with all facing the front of the room. There were usually three or four students whose desks were pulled away from the rest of the larger group, even to the extent that they could not see what was happening in the room. Mrs. Wood commented to me that these students had behavioral issues that precluded them from participating with other children.

The teacher's desk was located at the side of the room, but I did not ever see Mrs. Wood sit at her desk. It contained students' completed work, other papers, and folders. Mrs. Wood tended to use the kidney-shaped table on the opposite side of the room for housing her teaching materials. She also called children to the table for some conversations about their work and for small group activities. There were two computers in the room, one at the front where students practiced phonics skills and the other at the back of the room where students took tests on books they read in order to earn points.

Students had hooks for their backpacks on the side of the room where Mrs. Wood's kidney-shaped table was. There were also a few cubby spaces below the hooks and some shelving on the side and back walls of the room. There was no classroom library and there were no leveled texts in the room. The only texts that I saw students read during the semester were their library books. It seemed that students often selected books that were too difficult, too easy, or were uninteresting to them.

Mrs. Wood had white dry-erase boards on three walls of her classroom. There was no student work displayed either inside the classroom or on the wall outside of the room. Mrs. Wood had a projector system with one component on a small cart by the kidney-shaped table and the other component mounted in the ceiling. As I observed, I sat toward the back of the room at a rectangular table.

Description of Students

Fifteen students, out of 18, participated in the study. All student participants were classified as "at-risk," either because of socio-economic status, limited English language proficiency, or academic performance. Two students, Amanda and Juan, participated in the school's Gifted and Talented Program, which consisted of their attendance at a special class one day per week, on Tuesdays. Two students, Ashley and John, attended a pullout Special Education reading class every day. They generally missed the majority of the reading block in their regular classroom.

Five students in the classroom were Spanish speaking and had varying levels of proficiency with English. Three of them, Christina, Juan, and Lupe attended the school

in previous years and received bilingual instruction in grades K-2. Although a bilingual third grade class existed at this school, all three of these students were proficient enough on a state-mandated observation protocol to attend an English third-grade classroom. Maria's family had been in the United States for many years, and she had been in an English classroom since kindergarten. Jose was a more recent immigrant and had not benefitted from bilingual education. He qualified to participate in this school's bilingual third-grade classroom, but his parents preferred he be placed in an all English-speaking classroom.

Juan was more verbal during class discussions than the other four students. Jose was the most reticent to talk and he often spoke in one- or two-word phrases. As the semester progressed, Jose often complained of stomachaches, and he was frequently ill during class or absent. Christina and Maria sat together in class and readily talked to each other, but they rarely volunteered to participate in group-discussions. Both girls' voices were extremely subdued, to the extent that their contributions to whole-group conversations were often difficult to hear.

A brief description of each student is provided below. I am also including the students' beginning-of-the-year reading levels as determined by the administration of The Benchmark Assessment System (Fountas & Pinnell, 2011a). According to Fountas & Pinnell (2010), the average instructional reading level of a child at the beginning of third grade should be M/N. Level O would be appropriate for third-grade children at mid-year,

and Level P would be expected by year's end (Fountas & Pinnell, 2010). Mrs. Wood used the assessment data as a basis for children choosing their library books.

- **Amanda:** Amanda was an African-American female whose instructional text level was R at the beginning of the year. She read widely, often enjoying two or three books per week. Amanda was eager to participate and talk during conversations about texts. Amanda had been on trips with her parents and siblings, and she frequently drew on her personal experiences as she participated in class discussions.
- **Ashley:** Ashley was an African-American female whose instructional text level was reported as B at the beginning of the year, consistent with that of a beginning kindergarten student. She was eager to talk during class discussions, but she often parroted statements made by other students.
- **Brandon:** Brandon was an African-American male whose instructional text level was reported as Q at the beginning of the year. Brandon seemed to be a risk-taker, and he was eager to participate in class discussions. He often volunteered to help other students, and he really liked to talk to Amanda, Brenda, and Eileen on occasions when Mrs. Wood asked students to discuss texts.
- **Brenda:** Brenda was an African-American female whose instructional text level was reported as F at the beginning of the year. Brenda liked to work with other girls during group activities. She was enthusiastic about school and readily participated in conversations.

- **Christina:** Christina was a Hispanic female whose instructional text level was reported as O at the beginning of the year. Christina sat at the front of the room. She rarely volunteered to participate in classroom conversations, and she preferred to only talk to Maria, who sat beside her.
- **Eileen:** Eileen was an African-American female whose instructional text level was reported as G at the beginning of the year. Eileen did not volunteer to talk during class discussions. While Eileen readily conversed socially with Amanda, Brenda, and Natalie, she mostly seemed unsure of how to answer the teacher's questions. Often the pitch of her voice was raised at the end of her answers to Mrs. Wood, indicating that she actually questioned whether her answer would be acceptable. Eileen frequently made connections between texts and her own personal experiences during classroom conversations.
- **John:** John was an African-American male whose instructional text level was reported as B at the beginning of the year, consistent with that of a child beginning kindergarten. John did not talk to anyone at the beginning of the study. His writing was organized and did not appear to coincide with his low instructional text reading level. I talked frequently with John throughout the semester and encouraged him to voice what he was thinking during text discussions. His academic vocabulary seemed quite extensive, and he was able to talk about texts in a more sophisticated way than most of the other students.

- **Jose:** Jose was a Hispanic male whose instructional text level was reported as P at the beginning of the year. Jose was very shy and reticent to talk. Because he was the child with the most limited English in the classroom, Jose's initial reading level seemed inflated. Jose's responses to his teacher's questioning often sounded as though he stuttered.
- **Juan:** Juan was a Hispanic male whose instructional text level was reported as R at the beginning of the year. He was extremely verbal and heartily participated in class discussions. Juan liked to read and write, and he often asked his teacher for permission to read more library books. Juan attended another school for about one month during the study, but he returned to Mrs. Wood's classroom before the end of the semester.
- **Louis:** Louis was an African-American male whose text level was C at the beginning of the year. Louis's assessment indicated that he was reading on kindergarten level. He tended to dominate most classroom conversations, but he was eager to engage in discussions about texts with both the teacher and his peers.
- **Lupe:** Lupe was a Hispanic male whose instructional reading level was reported as G at the beginning of the year. Lupe did not readily participate in class discussions. He frequently talked with students who sat around him, but he did not often share his thinking about texts with other children or the teacher.
- **Maria:** Maria was a Hispanic female whose instructional reading level was reported as P at the beginning of the year. Maria had been in English classrooms

since she was in kindergarten. She sat beside Christina and exclusively talked to her during classroom conversations when students shared their thinking with each other. She rarely raised her hand to speak during whole group activities.

- **Natalie:** Natalie was an African-American female whose instructional reading level was reported as O at the beginning of the year. Natalie sat beside Eileen and they liked to talk to each other during peer discussions about texts. Natalie seemed to like reading, and she often raised her hand to speak during whole class discussions. She eagerly participated in most classroom activities, including writing about reading. As Natalie spoke about her reading, she often had difficulty articulating her thinking, perhaps because she seemed to have so much to say.
- **Thomas:** Thomas was an African-American male whose instructional reading level was reported as H at the beginning of the year. Thus, Thomas began the year reading at a first-grade instructional level. Although he rarely talked to Mrs. Wood at the beginning of the year, Thomas often conversed with other students. He frequently chose sports-related books from the library, and he seemed eager to talk to Mrs. Wood about books that interested him.
- **Zoie:** Zoie was an African-American female whose instructional reading level was reported as J at the beginning of the year. Zoie began third grade about a year behind in her instructional reading level. She rarely participated in class

discussions about texts, and she was often engaged in off-task behavior during class discussions about texts.

The descriptions of the setting, the teacher, and the students suggest Mrs. Wood's class was organized in a way that was somewhat conducive to dialogic conversations. Students' desks were paired and they were given some opportunities to talk. While Mrs. Wood directed almost all classroom conversations, she allowed students to read independently from library books, and she conferred with each of them about their texts. Some students were reticent to talk, while others participated readily in conversations. However, Mrs. Wood's monologic stance seemed pervasive in most classroom interactions, and, thus, students' contributions to conversations were generally short and directed toward giving a one- or two-word response in classroom text conversations.

Analysis of Data

Three distinct patterns of teaching and conversation emerged from analysis of the data over the course of this study. Initially, Mrs. Wood displayed a strong monologic stance toward classroom conversations about texts. Her authoritative manner of questioning is discussed in the first section, *Initial Observations and Coaching: Teacher as Authority*. Mrs. Wood's stance toward monologism was evident in the initial baseline observation. Her monologic pattern of conversation continued after the initial coaching session and through the first three observations and the subsequent coaching sessions. I also discuss students' contributions to conversations that resulted from the teacher's

authoritative stance through an analysis of the discourse. My rationales for coaching sessions, as well as a description of each coaching session, is also provided.

The second section, Read-Aloud: The Turning Point describes the pivotal activity in the study that seemed to initiate a significant change in Mrs. Wood's conversational behaviors toward a more dialogic stance in talking with her students about texts. In this section, I describe the modeled read-aloud activity, how I established a few conversational protocols with the students, and how students' conversations began to shift toward a dialogic stance. Finally, I provide a description of the brief coaching session that immediately followed the activity.

Finally, the last section, Final Observations: Practicing and Sustaining a Dialogic Stance, describes how Mrs. Wood changed her stance toward more dialogic teaching during observations four and five and how the coaching sessions functioned to assist her shifting practices. Also included is an analysis of the final observation, which suggests that Mrs. Wood maintained her shift toward dialogic teaching during text conversations with her students.

Initial Observations and Coaching: Teacher as Authority

Patterns of teacher- and student-talk about texts were similar during my baseline observation and the subsequent three observations. Mrs. Wood displayed a strong Initiate-Respond-Follow-up (Wells, 1999) pattern in almost all of her interactions with students about texts, with primarily evaluative follow-up moves in each sequence.

Researchers refer to this particular pattern of conversational talk in classrooms as being

the most predominant in United States classrooms, and they additionally identify these exchanges as being responsible for stifling students' talk (Mehan, 1979; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Wells, 1999).

During my baseline observation and extending through the next three observations, Mrs. Wood's questions tended to be more closed rather than open-ended, and children were mostly required to raise their hands for permission to speak. Closed questions, in this context, refer to those questions for which there is only one answer, usually one word or a short phrase that the teacher, sometimes unconsciously, has formulated in her own thinking. Equally important was the fact that many of Mrs. Wood's questions seemed rhetorical, contradictory, or illogical, leaving students at a loss for "correct" answers. Mrs. Wood seemed to rely on a transmission method of teaching reading skills rather than on developing and deepening students' understandings. While Mrs. Wood tried to implement dialogic conversation, her professional development opportunities had not provided her with theoretical understandings to implement it effectively. Her transmission method of instruction was diametrically opposed to the transactional engagements she was attempting to implement. Mrs. Wood frequently redirected behavior when students were off-task. During this first phase of observations, one student in the study, Louis, tended to dominate all conversations.

The following sections describe in detail my observations of dialogue in Mrs. Wood's classroom and my decisions and actions in coaching her towards a more dialogic stance. In the first three observations and the subsequent coaching sessions, Mrs. Wood

made slight shifts towards a dialogic stance, particularly when talking individually with students. The coaching sessions were not as effective as I had hoped in securing a lasting shift towards dialogic conversations as Mrs. Wood remained in a monologic stance throughout the Baseline Observation and the following three observations.

Baseline observation. My baseline observation occurred during the third week of the school year. In this observation I wanted to analyze the talk around texts in Mrs. Wood's classroom prior to any coaching or discussion of dialogic inquiry.

Students' desks were grouped in pairs within the classroom, with the following students seated at isolated desks in different parts of the room: Louis, John, Brenda, and Zoie. These students were apparently isolated because they had been disruptive in some way. Louis and Brenda tended to disturb other children in the classroom with off-task conversations. John and Zoie had difficulty completing tasks, and, therefore, Mrs. Wood isolated them in hopes that their written work would improve.

Eighteen students were enrolled in the class and all 15 of the study participants were present for this Baseline Observation. Two activities, a read-aloud and small group work, centered on the text *Miss Nelson is Missing* by Harry Allard (1985). During the read-aloud, the teacher was seated at the front of the room and students were seated on the floor in front of her chair. For small group work, the teacher and students in the group were seated at a small kidney-shaped table in the front corner of the classroom. Two of the study participants, John and Ashley, went to a Special Education reading class during part of the literacy block, and they did not hear the read-aloud.

Mrs. Wood reiterated to students at the beginning of the read-aloud that the third-grade skill for the week, based on the district curriculum scope and sequence, was describing characters in a fictional text, and, during the text talk, Mrs. Wood mentioned synonyms and antonyms several times as descriptors of contrasting characters in the story. All teachers in this particular school district were required by administrators to teach the same skills from the curriculum each week.

As I observed Mrs. Wood's read aloud, it was clear that the I-R-F pattern was dominant, with the teacher making frequent evaluative follow-up moves. Mrs. Wood stopped on almost every page to ask questions. This resulted in a read-aloud that was quite lengthy (32 minutes). Due to the length of the lesson, many students seemed to lose interest either in the activity or the text itself. This necessitated frequent redirection of student behavior. Mrs. Wood understood the value of reading aloud to students, and the coaching sessions would assist her to have more purposeful conversations with her students.

Mrs. Wood's style of questioning could best be described as rapid-fire, with frequent changes of topics. This resulted in many separate conversational sequences (55) that contained only nuclear exchanges. Only 18 dependent exchanges occurred within the sequences. This meant that conversation topics shifted quickly, with few extensions in the conversation. Following the I-R-F pattern, Mrs. Wood made 60 evaluation statements as follow-up moves after student answers or comments. Student contributions were mostly limited to one- or two-word statements in answer to Mrs. Wood's questions.

Therefore, Mrs. Wood's stance during this initial observation would be considered monologic, or one-sided.

During the read-aloud, Louis tended to dominate the student conversations, contributing in 22 exchanges. He always raised his hand when Mrs. Wood asked a question, and she tended to allow him speak in almost every exchange. On occasions when she did not call on him, Louis would still blurted out his answers. Others students only offered contributions in two to eight exchanges. All children, as a group, responded chorally with one-word answers 13 times, further indicating a monologic stance toward conversations.

As I observed, students appeared confused by some of Mrs. Wood's questions. An example of this occurred in the beginning exchange of the read-aloud when Mrs. Wood asked the following question, "Anybody know why I might have picked this book?" The following exchange between Mrs. Wood, Christina, and Natalie is an example of ambiguous questioning.

Table 1

Baseline Observation

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	Anybody know why I picked this book?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	So we could read it.	Christina	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	OK, that's true.	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack	Evaluate
2	What else?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	So when our teacher is gone we would behave.	Natalie	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	So when you're teacher's gone you need to behave? That's why I picked this book. Well, that may be.	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack	Evaluate
3	What about...does anybody remember the word genre? Genre. Anybody remember the word genre?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
3	Genre can make you laugh or cry.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	Is that what you think when we talk about genre?	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack	Evaluate
3	Well, we've talked about text a little bit. Does anybody know what text is? Not texting on the phone (teacher laughs). Text is any type of print with letters that create words and sometimes maybe it doesn't have words we understand...might be a different language. Any type of print is text. And genre is the type of text. Like magazines, newspapers, historical fiction, fiction, any type of text like that. So we're gonna learn more about that later.	Wood	Nuc	F	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from Wells, G. and DICEP (Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project). 2001. *Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse*. Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251.html

The previous exchanges had little to do with the goal of the read-aloud, which was “understanding characterization.” Students did not know why she chose to read *Miss Nelson is Missing* (Allard, 1985), and many may have had difficulty connecting the relationships between text, genre, and analyzing characters. Christina, Natalie, and Louis appeared to guess at answers, and Mrs. Wood’s follow-up exchanges were rhetorical questions, such as “Is that what you think?” During the story when students were predicting what could have happened to Miss Nelson, many of Louis’s exchanges appeared to precipitate laughter from the other children, “Maybe she (Miss Nelson) went to um...what’s the...maybe she went to snakes on a airplane,” a reference to a popular movie; and “She probably got ate up by a alligator.” Mrs. Wood’s response to Louis each time was to laugh and to comment that maybe “You’ve been watching too many movies.”

After the read-aloud, Mrs. Wood gave students an assignment in their reading journals to write three descriptive sentences about the characters Miss Nelson and Miss Viola Swamp. Even though Mrs. Wood had mentioned characterization prior to the read-aloud, she asked many unrelated questions during the reading, which did not focus children’s attention toward that feature of text analysis. Nevertheless, Mrs. Wood gave students an example of the characterization assignment by writing a “t-chart” on the board with the headings Miss Nelson and Miss Viola Swamp. Then she instructed children to write what each character “was like.” Since Miss Swamp was actually Miss Nelson in disguise, the teacher focused mostly on Miss Nelson’s and Miss Swamp’s

physical appearances, how the tone of her voice changed, and the characters' teaching styles as examples of how to complete the t-chart on contrasting characters.

Then in small group work, Mrs. Wood had students fold a piece of manila paper into four quadrants. On the manila paper they were to write how Miss Nelson's character changed over four points in time. Mrs. Wood completed the first and last quadrants together with students in each group. During the small group work, Mrs. Wood worked with three different groups of six students. These children were not grouped according to their reading levels and every group participated in the same activity. There were 54 sequences in 37 minutes and 64 evaluation exchanges by Mrs. Wood, again suggesting that Mrs. Wood was in control of the monologic conversation. She redirected behavior four times, twice to the entire class, twice to both the small group and the entire class, and once to the group of children at the table.

Brandon and Thomas participated in the conversation during the first small group. Mrs. Wood's directions to the students were to "Write down how (Miss Nelson) was, at the beginning of the story, next, then, and last." Again, the students appeared to have difficulty describing anything except the character's physical appearance and her tone of voice. While children were working in the third quadrant of their paper, Mrs. Wood asked the following question about Miss Nelson's feelings: "Did she miss the kids?" Most of the children in the group answered "yes," with Mrs. Wood offering the following comment, "She missed the children because she wanted them to have story hour back." Brandon, however, rejected this theory and interrupted with "She didn't miss the

children. She seen the children.” He apparently was pointing out that Miss Nelson and Miss Swamp were the same person, but Mrs. Wood replied, “She missed the children, though, because she said ‘Don’t you want to have another story hour, a story hour again?’ She missed the children so she was trying to make up for Miss Viola Swamp.” Brandon then interrupted her with “Actually she said...” but he was not allowed to finish his thought.

Five of the study participants were members of the second group: Louis, Natalie, Juan, Brenda, and Maria. The directions were the same for this group, with students being urged to think about how Miss Nelson “was” at four different points of time during the story. Responses from children again centered on what the character looked like, the tone of her voice, or how she acted.

This group worked with Mrs. Wood for 14 minutes. The monologic conversation continued in this group with 21 sequences, and Mrs. Wood made 20 evaluative follow-up exchanges. Louis again dominated the discussion by participating in 18 exchanges, making funny statements that caused the other students to laugh.

Four study participants were in the final group: Brenda, Ashley, Amanda, and Jose. During the eight-minute session, there were 19 sequences, and Mrs. Wood offered 20 evaluative follow-up exchanges. The exchanges continued in the same pattern as the other two groups. However, each small group activity took less time than the preceding group because students had heard Mrs. Wood explain exactly what to write to the previous children. Amanda consistently raised her hand while Mrs. Wood allowed others

to talk at will. Toward the end of the group time, Amanda became frustrated and said, “It’s my turn.”

The result of the small group activity was that each student in the class had exactly the same characteristics, with the same language, in each of the quadrants. Some students copied from each other either during group time or as they returned to their desks.

Following the observation, I made anecdotal notes in my journal, viewed and transcribed the lesson, and made decisions about how best to coach Mrs. Wood toward a more dialogic stance in her conversations with students about texts. In order for the children to form and reform their thinking, it was critical that they be allowed to participate in more discussions rather than only answering Mrs. Wood’s questions. I was surprised by the degree to which Mrs. Wood’s stance was monologic toward text conversations, and I needed to plan carefully toward helping Mrs. Wood achieve a shift so that students’ voices would become a relevant part of classroom conversations.

In my journal entry after the baseline observation, I noted the patterns of students’ responding and classroom management issues as a means of helping me think about the direction that the initial coaching should proceed. I transcribed the video recording, and I completed the teacher and student D-I-T for both the read-aloud and the small group work. The data from all three sources indicated that Mrs. Wood favored a monologic pattern of I-R-F, with evaluation being her most dominant follow-up move, and this was my overriding immediate concern. While students were also responding in monologic

patterns with short answers that lacked reflection or alternative responses, I wondered if coaching the teacher to shift her pattern of interacting with students would also cause a difference in student contributions to text talk. I had some evidence that students were enthusiastic to contribute more. Brandon attempted to discuss his alternative view, but Mrs. Wood rejected his rationale. Amanda seemed to have more to say also, but she was not allowed to continue her thoughts aloud, and I was equally concerned that Louis was allowed to dominate conversations, many times appearing to talk in order to create laughter from other students and the teacher.

I noted two other trends in classroom conversations: (a) students appeared to have no routines for managing discussions around text, and (b) Mrs. Wood approached her classroom conversations from a skills-based perspective. Both of these practices served to reinforce a monologic stance. As I reflected on how practice with routines for discussions might give students a framework for their participation, I also considered how it might also prevent some inappropriate classroom behavior. I decided to mention the value of students knowing how to participate in discussions, and I also wanted to provide Mrs. Wood with teaching resources that would allow students to control their inappropriate behavior and actively participate in classroom conversations. While approaching the read-aloud from a skills perspective was of concern, I decided to concentrate the focus of the next coaching session with Mrs. Wood on identifying characteristics of the I-R-F conversational pattern. In doing so, I hoped that by focusing on Mrs. Wood's follow-up exchanges, she would shift her talk toward a more dialogic

approach. In this way, students would become more active in extending conversations while forming and reforming their own meanings as well as the shared meanings of the group.

Initial coaching after baseline observation. I gathered two Interactive-Read-Aloud videos from the Fountas & Pinnell Continuum of Literacy Learning Teaching Library (2011b). One video was of a third grade teacher reading *Owl Moon* by Jane Yolen (1987) to her students. The teacher in the video stopped three times during the read-aloud and had her students discuss the author's messages in the text. I thought this video was a good example of how to focus the read-aloud on one or two topics and hoped Mrs. Wood would observe how deeper conversations can result when there are fewer topics and fewer stops in the read-aloud.

While the teacher's goal in the video was having students understand how the author's use of descriptive words makes the story more interesting, I wanted Mrs. Wood to concentrate on how the teacher was using open-ended statements in both initiating and follow-up moves to create a dialogic conversational pattern. I also thought it was important for Mrs. Wood to view how third graders in the video were able to contribute in sharing their thoughts with each other.

The second video I chose was of a teacher reading Donald Crews' *Shortcut* (1992) to a group of second grade students. In this video, the teacher's conversation with students about the text was more of the I-R-F pattern, with evaluative statements in the

follow-up moves, leading students toward one literal answer. Then I chose a video from YouTube (Neou, 2012) that was a parody on the I-R-F questioning style.

The initial training was scheduled for 45 minutes. However, because Mrs. Wood had a significant life-altering event two days before this meeting, the first ten minutes consisted of talking about the changes in her life. We met privately in her classroom, and I began by explaining to her how and when to make her journal entries. Then we discussed the concept of dialogic inquiry. We looked at the D-I-T and discussed how we would use it as a means of describing the differences between monologic and dialogic conversational patterns, from both the teacher's and students' perspectives. I also gave Mrs. Wood the Levels of Transfer scale (Joyce & Showers, 2002) and the Increasing Progressive Differentiation (Snow et al., 2005) scale, and I explained that I would be using the continua to help guide my coaching sessions with her. See Appendices D and E.

We watched the clip of the parody, followed by the teacher who read the Donald Crews (1992) book. Finally, we watched the third-grade clip of Yolen's (1987) book, and afterwards Mrs. Wood remarked that she did not believe that her children could think that way because of their backgrounds, but she said she was willing and eager for the challenge. She also remarked that her students' behavior might be a "deterrent to opening a conversation." At that point, I felt that, although Mrs. Wood seemed enthusiastic about participating in this study, she might not believe that she could accomplish the goal of dialogic teaching and conversation because of her perceived

deficits in the students. I decided not to comment on her remarks, hoping that as she practiced shifting her conversation patterns, she would see more depth in her students' thinking and talk.

Mrs. Wood and I marked the D-I-T rubrics, for both teachers and students, after each video clip of the read-alouds, and we agreed on how we would mark every indicator. I asked Mrs. Wood to reflect on her teaching and think about how the D-I-T continuum applied to her practice. She said that she definitely would not fall into the category of dialogic teaching and that she wanted to work on dividing responsibilities for talking between her and her students where she is not exclusively in control of the conversation. Mrs. Wood made comments in her journal about how she looked forward to her students "learning about text through questioning each other and making up their own questions about text." She also remarked that this practice was her "style of teaching" and that it was "very successful when consistent." In my journal I wrote that I felt confident about Mrs. Wood understanding the intent of dialogic teaching and that I felt she would be able to objectively reflect on her practice. I also noted that my major concern at this point was that Mrs. Wood did not believe her students were capable of participating dialogically in conversations.

Observation 1: The monologic stance continues. The first observation occurred one week later. Mrs. Wood began the class by asking students to talk about why people read books. Then, she directed them to turn to a partner and share their thoughts. Mrs. Wood reminded the students that they had worked on some routines to manage talking

with their peers, and she called on Brandon to share what he knew about peer talk. He offered that one person talks while the partner listens and vice versa. Students seemed to enjoy talking with their peers, and Mrs. Wood allowed them to continue for a few minutes. Following the peer talk, Mrs. Wood had the partners share what they discussed about why they read. Some of the students replied as follows:

- “to learn,”
- “for the test,”
- “so you can get better grades,”
- “I think people should read books so they won’t go down a level, and feel good when they go up;” and
- “to get more points.”

The implication of these responses was that reading is just a means to an end of surviving in school. These students positioned reading as being important to help them pass the state-mandated assessment, or to help them get better grades, or to increase reading levels. Rather than reading levels describing the books, they, sadly, have come to be labels for children. Further, children at Morton Elementary School are concerned about the points they attain for reading books and passing literal-level comprehension tests because the school gives bicycles in every grade for the students that have amassed the most points. Gallagher (2009) in his timely book, *Readicide*, posited that high-stakes testing and a system of extrinsic rewards are systematically killing the love of reading

among our young students. Students' answers about why they read seemed to validate Gallagher's (2009) position.

Students practiced turning and talking to peers two more times during the 90-minute reading block. Many students were off-task during these peer discussions, and I noted in my journal that they might need more practice with routines. I wondered if Mrs. Wood believed that the activity of participating in peer talk was indicative of a dialogic stance. She had seen students talking with each other in the video that I used in the previous coaching session, and I thought she might assume that participation in the activity equated to dialogic conversation.

Following this group interaction, Mrs. Wood instructed her students to read their library books independently while she conferenced with each child about his or her book. Mrs. Wood used 50 minutes to talk with different children individually about books, and students were to sustain their independent reading for the entire length of time. I commented in my anecdotal notes that I wondered if students had the stamina to meaningfully sustain such a task. I also made notations that I felt some of the books were too difficult for children to read or some books were not interesting to students because right away, during the first conference with Brandon, six children began talking to each other and two children were not reading at all.

Brandon's conference of three minutes had six conversational sequences. Three included dependent exchanges, indicating that Brandon could readily extend conversations. However, Mrs. Wood made nine evaluative follow-up exchanges with

Brandon. This monologic pattern was so routinized in all of Mrs. Wood's conversational exchanges that I wondered if she realized Brandon's potential for engaging in dialogic discussions. Even though Brandon made mention that his book was "really a second grade book," he seemed eager to read it, and he appeared to enjoy discussing the plot of the story with his teacher. Mrs. Wood often asked Brandon for his thoughts, which precipitated two dependent exchanges, but she initiated the final dependent exchange. In this conference, Mrs. Wood was still in control of the conversation.

Mrs. Wood then conferenced with Juan for three minutes. The conversation contained twelve sequences, all initiated by Mrs. Wood. Because Juan is reticent to talk, there were only four dependent exchanges. The child obviously read his book about the Navy but he seemed to have some difficulty expressing his thoughts. Consequently, Mrs. Wood asked many questions quickly, without waiting for responses as follows:

- "Now what do these people do to help us?"
- "And how do you know that they were gonna help us?" and
- "When you walked up to look at this book, I want you to know. I want to ask you a question. How did you know? Were you just interested in boats or were you interested in people that ride in boats or drive the boats?"

Natalie's conference was next. It was almost three minutes in length and was comprised of three sequences, two with dependent exchanges, with the student talking twice. Natalie responded to most questions with a head nod. The conference began with

Mrs. Wood asking her to talk about what she had read and how she understood it.

Natalie's response follows:

I read a book about Martin Luther King. And he was married to Coretta Scott. And he had four kids with her. And white people had separate things and they went to separate schools 'cause the law doesn't like white people and black people living together. But when Martin Luther King said nobody needs to be on the bus because Rosa Parks had said no to the bus people and he had told everybody in the country to not never get on the bus until the white people...

At this point Mrs. Wood interrupted and asked, "And how did that book help you understand what it [the book] was about?" Natalie appeared to not know how to respond and Mrs. Wood continued, "Did it help you?" Natalie nodded in agreement, then Mrs. Wood questioned, "By doing what?" to which Natalie replied, "By being nice and don't give in to whites or blacks." Mrs. Wood's follow-up was "OK, Keep reading."

Obviously, in this situation, Natalie had much to say and was quite interested in the book she was reading. However, Mrs. Wood interrupted her with a question that did not make sense to the child. I was also unsure what Mrs. Wood meant by her question to Natalie concerning how the book helped her know "what it was about." Consequently, the conversation abruptly stopped.

Next, Thomas and Mrs. Wood discussed his book about a professional football player. The conference spanned two minutes, and there were five sequences with three dependent exchanges. Mrs. Wood asked several rapid-fire questions that Thomas answered with head nods, and many times Mrs. Wood answered her own questions:

Did you, did you enjoy learning how he did it (caught the longest pass) in the book? Did it tell you anything else about the statistics? Were there any words in

here you didn't understand? Were there any charts? Oh lots of charts. Oh, that's a good one.

Mrs. Wood's reference in the first statement above concerns how the football player in Thomas's book caught the longest pass in the NFL, but I wondered if Thomas actually realized that point.

Mrs. Wood's talk with her students in these independent conferences seemed cursory to the extent that she only made obligatory acknowledgements about the details in the texts. She actually appeared, at times, to be talking to herself. Another critical aspect of these exchanges was that Mrs. Wood dominated the conversation with a barrage of questions, many of which were never answered.

Mrs. Wood then conferenced with Christina and Maria, for 55 seconds and 43 seconds respectively. The teacher had commented to me earlier that these two students were particularly hesitant to talk, yet she allotted to them the shortest conferences. Table 2 contains an example of one of Mrs. Wood's exchanges with Christina, and it illustrates rapid-fire questions.

Table 2

Observation 1, Mrs. Wood and Christina

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	What kind of book would you read about next time?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	Why do you pick a certain kind of book?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	Do you know? It's OK. There's not a right or wrong answer.	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
3	Why did you choose that book?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
4	Was it because of the pictures?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
5	Or do you like birds?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
5	Or do you just want to learn more about birds?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
5	To learn more about birds.	Christina	Nuc	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness, Req. cl. = Request clarification. *Note:* Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from Wells, G. and DICEP (Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project). 2001. *Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse*. Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251.html

In the previous exchange, Christina may have just used the last option her teacher offered, to learn more about birds, as her response. While Mrs. Wood's questions seemed open-ended, the context of the questions was closed. Students were limited in the books they were allowed to select, and Christina may have chosen the book solely because it was her specified level.

Jose, who was equally reticent to talk, conferenced for four-minutes on his book about the sport of professional wrestling. There were 15 sequences, with seven having dependent exchanges. Some of Jose's responses were also head nods while all others were categorized as 1 for length, providing evidence that Jose's conversational moves were minimal.

Eileen’s conference about her Junie B. Jones book lasted about three minutes. It had three sequences and three dependent exchanges. However, again, while Mrs. Wood allowed for follow-up moves to induce dependent exchanges, she frequently answered her own questions. Eileen’s intonation in her answers seemed to indicate that she was unsure of her “answers,” as noted by a question mark at the end of her answers indicating a raised pitch in her voice.

Table 3

Observation 1, Mrs. Wood and Eileen

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	Junie B. Jones book. Oh, you like to read fiction. Why do you like fiction?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	Because...so I can read them.	Eileen	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	And do what else?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	And learn about them?	Eileen	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	Why do you think you like the fiction books about a little girl and boy?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
3	Because they're...(child looks at her book)	Eileen	Nuc	I	Give	Inform
3	I'm over here (directing child to look at her)	Wood	Emb	I	Demand	Red. Beh.
3	Friends?	Eileen	Nuc	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness, Emb = Embedded exchange. Adapted from Wells, G. and DICEP (Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project). (2001). *Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse*. Bristol, UK: Retrieved from <http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses Folder/EDUC251.html>

It seemed that Eileen was practicing how to answer the teacher correctly, while guessing at what the teacher wanted her to say. The pitch of her voice seemed to indicate that she questioned her own comments. Mrs. Wood’s assumptions also appeared to interfere with authentic conversation. Mrs. Wood’s first question assumed that Eileen

liked all books in the genre of fiction. It occurred to me that Eileen may not have chosen the book because she liked to read fiction books about a little girl and a little boy. Maybe Eileen only likes the Junie B. Jones series. Clearly, Mrs. Wood was expecting a certain answer when she asked the child, “and do what else?” Eileen did not know how to answer and Mrs. Wood appeared frustrated when the child flipped through the pages of the book in search of something to say.

Brenda and Amanda were the final two children with whom Mrs. Wood held conferences. Both of these girls seemed eager to discuss their books, with Brenda having several moves that were 2 in length and Amanda having two responses that were categorized as 3. Students’ response lengths of 2, indicating a main clause and dependent clause, and 3, indicating at least three clauses, established that these students were able to sustain their talk. However, Mrs. Wood continued to favor an I-R-F conversational pattern, with evaluative follow-up moves, and she used further questions to interrupt these students’ talk.

I noted in my journal and in my anecdotal notes that dependent exchanges were more obvious than in the baseline observation, but as I analyzed the conversations further I noted that children’s contributions to discussion were mostly literal, in nature, with only one hypothetical statement offered in all of the conferences. This attribute of students’ responses indicated that, while their response moves might be longer, the quality of the moves did not indicate talk that would serve to extend the conversation. Students continued to answer the questions with only the facts, without engaging in hypothetical,

or critical, thinking. Mrs. Wood commented after the lesson that she was surprised some students like Thomas were eager to talk. Barnes (1992) posited that students' talk changes according to perceived demands of the situation, and I wondered how the dynamics of one-on-one conferences with the teacher affected the conversational patterns in relationship to both whole-group and small-group discussions. Mrs. Wood's journal entry noted that the class time allotted to the conferences was probably too long, but she did not want to stop students from having "light bulb moments." She also noted that students' vocabulary was very weak and that the peer interaction improved their "range." I was surprised and concerned about how the discourse progressed during this first observation. After the initial coaching session, I expected that the teacher would change some of her follow-up moves in ways that would support students' extension of conversation. While Mrs. Wood did initiate some dependent exchanges, issues with the moves themselves may have precluded children's discussions. These moves included questions that did not make sense, questions that were initiated so rapidly that students had little time to speak, and instances where Mrs. Wood answered her own questions. Although Mrs. Wood's monologic stance seemed firmly established in her practice, she had begun to teach her students how to engage in conversations with their peers. Teachers' moves toward a more dialogic stance would be expected to occur slowly and incrementally, especially when theoretical paradigms are shifting. As Mrs. Wood continued to assimilate new theory into her teaching practices, the practices, themselves, would necessarily change. Importantly, in achieving a dialogic stance, Mrs. Wood would

allow her students to become active participants in their own understandings. Thus, the meanings of the teacher, individual students, and the group would be formulated, reformulated, and enhanced.

Coaching after observation 1. In marking the DIT rubric, I noted that both teacher and students functioned at the lowest end of the monologic category, at 1. Although there were more dependent exchanges, Mrs. Wood seemed in control of every conversation and she even dissuaded some students from more prolific conversation with barrages of further questions. I also considered Joyce and Showers (2002, p. 102) Levels of Transfer continuum and thought that she was using what she knew about peer interaction to focus on accomplishing the task rather than thinking about how the task might benefit the outcome of more dialogic talk about texts. Based on the Snow et al. (2005) continuum of increasing progressive differentiation, I felt that Mrs. Wood was struggling with situated procedural knowledge in that she seemed to have difficulty using conversation to develop more of a dialogic stance. Therefore, I made the decision to scaffold the coaching experience with more examples of dialogic teaching along with specific talk about how to accomplish more dialogue within Mrs. Wood's classroom. I chose two video clips of teachers conducting reading conferences with students from the Fountas and Pinnell (2011b) video series. Both clips were of third-grade teachers and in both clips the teachers asked open-ended questions to students in both initiating and follow-up moves.

As Mrs. Wood and I met, we discussed the value of her conferring with students. Mrs. Wood reported that she often talked with students about what they are reading so that she can guide them toward texts they may like and so that she might check on how often they are reading their independent level books. We also discussed how students, even those reticent to talk, were eager to have a conversation with her.

As Mrs. Wood and I viewed the Fountas and Pinnell (2011b) video clips, we talked through the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al, 2011) instrument and agreed on marking the conversations on the dialogic end of the continuum for both the teachers and students. Then I showed Mrs. Wood three video clips of her own teaching. I chose Christina's, Eileen's, and Maria's conferences because they were the most obvious I-R-F patterns with evaluative follow-up, and they contained many rapid-fire questions. She marked all of the teacher indicators on the DIT within the middle-range of the continuum, at 3. On the student DIT she marked the following indicators at 3: (a) Engaging in Co-reasoning, (b) Providing Reasons, and (c) Connecting with Peers. She marked the remaining indicators, Providing Reasons and Reflecting on Discussion Processes, at 1. While I felt that her rationales for marking the teacher DIT were a bit generous, I noted that they were still referenced on the monologic side of the rubric. Finally, I asked Mrs. Wood what she would like to improve in her teaching toward a more dialogic style. She again commented that she would like for the students to have more control of their talk. After asking her what that might look like in her class, Mrs. Wood said that she would like for the students to be responsible for generating conversation without her intervention. I

asked her if she would like some help with routines for managing and encouraging conversation, and I provided a reference to Chapters 17-19 in Fountas and Pinnell's (2000) *Guiding Readers and Writers*. These chapters give specific examples for minilessons that provide a framework for children to talk, listen, and respond to each other during text discussions. Mrs. Wood had access to the Fountas and Pinnell (2000) text, and we talked about how to teach for students controlling their own discussions. She said that she had read those specific chapters before and that she would review them and would use some of the suggestions.

In summary, the conversations about text during Observation 1 continued to portray Mrs. Wood's monologic stance. While there were more dependent exchanges in some of the conversations, I felt that group-size was the overriding factor that precipitated the change. Barnes (1992) argued that a different context for discussions may be a powerful predictor in shifting toward a more dialogic framework. As relationships take on different dynamics according to the group size, conversation participants are likely to change in their degree of participation. Whole group conversations may actually preclude some students from talking, but those same students may participate more in small-group or individual contexts. Therefore, I was not certain that the slight increase in dependent exchanges was due to shifts in Mrs. Wood's stance. In fact, I did not see any difference with her conversational style, except that the texts were more personalized to the students.

Additionally concerning was the fact that Mrs. Wood was adept at analyzing video clips of other teachers, but she did not appear to notice important aspects of her own teaching. Robertson et al. (2014) noted that having teachers view and analyze their own teaching increases the intensity of coaching since teachers may believe they are teaching in certain ways that the video data does not support. I noted that I needed to think about how Mrs. Wood was reflecting on her own practice. While I originally felt that self-reflection about her own teaching would be relatively easy for her, I now wondered how I could change my coaching support to help her analyze her teaching more critically. I also considered that Mrs. Wood might not be fully invested in this project. With these issues in mind, I planned to conduct observation 2, determine if the same monologic pattern existed in Mrs. Wood's conversations, and possibly adjust the coaching emphasis to spend more time reflecting on how the students were contributing to talk about texts rather than focusing so much time on her teaching. According to researchers, the sensitive observation of students is of primary importance as teachers analyze their practices (Clay, 1991; Wells, 1999).

Observation 2: A monologic stance with nonfiction texts. Because of planned fire drills the morning of observation 2, Mrs. Wood began her literacy block later than normal, resulting in a total time of 1 hr 15 min. for the observation. Juan checked out of school during this period, John was in the nurse's office, and Jose complained of a stomachache. He had his head on his desk the entire morning and did not participate during class.

Mrs. Wood told me that students had researched Johnny Appleseed's life and that they needed to make a timeline that included important facts about him. Each student had a book about Johnny Appleseed from the school library or from the public library. Mrs. Wood spent about 5.5 minutes giving instructions about how students were to make their individual timelines and how work would be graded using a rubric.

Pappas, Varelas, Barry, and Rife (2003), in their study on dialogic inquiry around informational texts, argued that informational texts could serve to expand Bakhtin's (1981) notion of heteroglossia because speakers have opportunities to practice their personal use of language in the co-construction of mutual understandings, or facts. However, this whole-group discussion about what to put on the timeline continued for 55 minutes. The teacher and students were off-topic during most of the exchanges, taking time to talk at length about most aspects of Johnny Appleseed's life. There were 50 sequences, all initiated by the teacher, with only eight dependent exchanges. Fifty-six of Mrs. Wood's follow-up exchanges were evaluative in nature and she redirected behavior 14 times. Louis again dominated the whole-class discussion, contributing to 34 exchanges. While Natalie contributed 13 exchanges and Brandon contributed to 11 exchanges, all other study participants contributed to six exchanges or less. Neither John, Zoie, nor Christina participated in any conversational exchanges. Mrs. Wood's whole-group conversational pattern was similar to the read-aloud during the baseline observation. She asked questions rapidly and expected students to answer with one word or a phrase. The following exchange was typical of those recorded in observation 2.

Table 4

Observation 2

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	What else could we place on the timeline about the date he was born that we learned in the research? I'm asking a question. What else could you place besides the year and the date he was born?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	On the timeline. Something important about being born.	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	Clarify
1	What fact?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	When did he travel, what kind of travel.	Brandon	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	No	Wood	Nuc	F	Ask	Evaluate
2	Something about being born.	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	When he died.	Lupe	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	No	Wood	Nuc	F	Ask	Evaluate
3	Somethin' about when he was born. The year and the day he was born and what else is important about when you're born. When were you born?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
3	Uh 2003	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	Yeah, that's important	Wood	Nuc	F	Ask	Evaluate
4	In what town?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
4	Uh, in (name of town)	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
4	So, it would be important for Johnny Appleseed to know the town or state he was born in.	Wood	Nuc	F	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from Wells, G. and DICEP (Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project). (2001). *Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse*. Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251.html

The conversational pattern continued in this manner and students began to exhibit off-task behaviors, like hitting each other with pencils. Most student responses were

literal in nature, with only two categorized in the hypothetical mode, and they were generally short, with only 13 rated as 2 in length.

After 40 minutes of such conversation, Mrs. Wood asked students to “share learning with somebody else in the room about something really cool that you found out about Johnny Appleseed.” At that point, Mrs. Wood encouraged students to move around the room to talk with others. I noted that students frequently repeated their answers or their peers’ contributions to conversational sequences. For example, Louis repeated an episode in Johnny Appleseed’s life when he lived in the woods and was helped by Indians in three different conversational exchanges during the observation, regardless of the topic being discussed. In the last two minutes, Brandon initiated an exchange with a statement that he wondered if anyone’s book told about how Johnny Appleseed died. This statement prompted Thomas and Lupe to look for that reference in their books and Lupe began whispering to Brandon about that topic. As Wells (1999) and Barnes (1992) note, true inquiry begins with students’ questions. Clearly, Mrs. Wood was attempting to include authentic conversations into discussions about texts. As she allowed students to talk, Brandon voiced his wondering which could have led to authentic inquiry. While the boys’ conversational moves were not extended, they nevertheless signaled a shift in these students’ conversational patterns toward a more dialogic stance.

Finally, Mrs. Wood called on Louis to come to the front of the classroom and to become in control of questioning the other students. His job was to ask students if they

had anything to add and then to call on those who raised their hands. Mrs. Wood commented after each child's response, either evaluating the contributions or initiating another exchange herself.

In summary, conversations about texts during Observation 2 continued to reflect a monologic stance. Mrs. Wood was firmly in control, and her follow-up moves were not shifting toward initiating dependent exchanges. I wondered if she thought that having Louis stand at the front of the room and ask each child the same question was Mrs. Wood's idea of teaching students how to be in control of conversations. She was, however, initiating a different practice by allowing students more control both in talking to peers and in talking to each other during whole-class discussions.

I saw a spark of inquiry when Brandon voiced his wondering. I made a note to use his talk, together with the reactions of the other boys, as an example in the subsequent coaching session. It seemed to me that students like Brandon, Thomas, and Lupe were actually being constrained in their talk and in their thinking by Mrs. Wood's monologic stance toward text conversations. I began to believe that, if Mrs. Wood initiated more shifts in her stance toward dialogic teaching, these students might delve more deeply into interesting and analytical conversations. At this point I also wondered which other students might be equally as eager to embrace authentic, genuine talking about texts. I noted that since Mrs. Wood was attempting a few changes in her practice toward a dialogic stance, I needed to support her efforts. This type of change requires time and is gradual in both understanding and implementation.

Coaching after observation 2. After transcribing the conversations during observation 2, I made several plans in my journal for coaching 2. I noted that rather than focusing on the teacher's portion of the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011), we should shift our initial discussion to observing and noting children's conversational behaviors. I made the decision to change the focus of the coaching because I thought Mrs. Wood viewed her own teaching as being a step toward authentic dialogue, and I felt that she needed to observe her students' responding. Taking into account Mrs. Wood's earlier statements, I surmised that she viewed her students as being unable to participate in dialogic conversations. Therefore, I felt that we should concentrate our attention on the student portion of the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) before we focused on her teaching.

Secondly, I noted that we should spend some time looking at the framework for text discussions from Chapters 17-19 in *Guiding Readers and Writers* (Fountas & Pinnell, 2000) and specifically talk about how to implement the routines in Mrs. Wood's classroom. In my journal I documented my concerns about helping Mrs. Wood increase her usable knowledge into practice. On the Snow et al. (2005) scale, she now seemed at the Declarative Knowledge level, which is on the novice end of the continuum. (See Appendix E.) Mrs. Wood was able to identify dialogic teaching when she viewed it, but she did not know how to incorporate the theory into her own teaching procedures. I also thought that Mrs. Wood, from her worldview perspective, might not have considered that her routines for having text conversations necessarily had to change. Nevertheless, I believed that functioning at the Declarative Knowledge end of the scale might account

for the misalignment between what she said she was practicing and what was really happening in the classroom. Mrs. Wood could identify some conversational routines that were aligned with a dialogic stance, but she did not understand the theoretical constructs necessary to integrate it into her practice. This Declarative Knowledge, or knowledge of systematic routines, was not a sufficient basis for consolidating this new theory of dialogic inquiry into her existing practice. I needed to renew the focus of the coaching toward the value of embracing a dialogic stance in classroom conversations.

I chose a 10-minute video clip toward the end of the recording that included the rapid-fire questions, referenced above, with Louis. When I arrived at Mrs. Wood's room for our training, I asked her to reflect on the most recent observation. She replied that she thought the children were much more in control of the conversation. We discussed how students were actively engaged in talking with their peers about their books, and that they seemed excited to talk with each other.

I then played the video recording in short clips, stopping to point out dominant I-R-F patterns with evaluative exchanges. I asked Mrs. Wood to mark the student D-I-T rubric first and I gave examples of each indicator at each point on the continuum. After considering the student rubric in depth, Mrs. Wood commented to me, "we might not get much from these children." She further stated that third grade children might not be developmentally ready to talk in such a sophisticated manner. She said that she had worked on sharing control of the conversations, but she had noticed that Louis monopolized most conversations. We talked about how her allowing him to choose who

would talk was an extension of her own I-R-F pattern and that she was still providing evaluative statements. Then, we talked about Brandon's "I wonder" statement and how she might use that as a springboard for developing interesting and meaningful conversations with her students. Mrs. Wood related his exchange to the inquiry approach they had been studying in science. I felt that Mrs. Wood made an important connection, and we talked about how children's thinking is encouraged in the inquiry-based scientific process. We further discussed how she required her students to write their thoughts in science, and how that could be valuable for thinking about texts as well. Mrs. Wood's goal, after considering the student rubric, was to practice conversations about texts with her students in the same manner as she encouraged them to write about their thinking in science.

We then looked at Mrs. Wood's D-I-T rubric and she still tended to mark her teaching behaviors toward the middle range of the continuum. I asked Mrs. Wood if she had guided reading groups with her students. I suggested that perhaps that context might be a wonderful opportunity to talk more deeply with students about texts. I mentioned that her students seemed to relate well to her and each other when they worked with her or with a few peers. She said that she had started guided reading, and I told her that I looked forward to observing it. Before leaving, I asked Mrs. Wood if she would reflect in her journal on two topics and share them with me before the next observation: (a) How would she plan to help students clarify their thinking? and (b) How specifically would she shift her conversations with students from the evaluative I-R-F pattern? I noted later

in my journal that I was concerned that the teacher saw herself as being dialogically oriented but that her students were somehow deficient in their abilities to participate in sophisticated conversations about text, leaving them on the monological end of the continuum. I thought perhaps Mrs. Wood did not connect the fact that her teaching would be responsible for a shift in her students.

If the strategy of focusing on children's conversations did not achieve a shift in Mrs. Wood's conversational moves toward a more dialogic stance, I began to plan to model a read-aloud lesson for her with her students, and I felt that she would be open to the idea. Providing a model of a read-aloud would allow both Mrs. Wood and me to consider how dialogic inquiry would be accomplished with her particular group of students. It would also give Mrs. Wood a chance to observe her students as they reacted and participated in a read-aloud discussion, and we could further discuss how my conversational moves influenced students' talk.

Thus far, I could not determine if Mrs. Wood was invested enough in the study to make changes in her practice, if she was not accustomed to being so reflective about her practice, or if she truly did not understand the theories underlying dialogic inquiry. As previously mentioned, the principal at Morton Elementary School had encouraged all of the third grade teachers to volunteer for this study in hopes of improving students' reading comprehension as their dialogic conversations developed. Since teachers' evaluations are tied to their students' progress, I wondered if Mrs. Wood was participating in this project in order to placate the principal. Secondly, the goal of Mrs.

Wood becoming more reflective about her practice might also be a consideration for me in planning the coaching. I knew that Mrs. Wood was making entries into her journal because I had reminded her after each lesson and coaching session. I thought that perhaps we might begin to share our entries during the coaching sessions, and then I would use her comments and thinking as springboards for our coaching conversations. Finally, while I was impressed that Mrs. Wood had made some shifts toward practicing some teaching routines consistent with a dialogic teaching stance, I thought that I might need to provide more theoretical constructs in order for her to assimilate dialogic inquiry into her teaching. Ultimately, I decided that if no significant changes were obvious in conversational patterns in the next observation, I would need to make some additional adjustments in the coaching sessions.

Observation 3: A slight shift in follow-up moves. Mrs. Wood's objectives during observation 3 were to have students identify text features in biographies, a literal-level task, and then she extended that objective to having students identify text features in an expository nonfiction big book about animal facts. Two different whole-group activities occurred during this time: (a) a read-aloud with children seated on the floor in front of the teacher, and (b) a round-robin reading with a big book about animal facts as students were seated at their desks.

Before the lessons, Mrs. Wood talked briefly with me about how she wanted to help clarify children's thinking by having them write in their journals. I asked her how she planned to change the evaluative nature of the I-R-F pattern, and she commented that

she would have students share with their partners more during text reading and that she would have them write “I wonder” statements about the big book of animal facts. Then, students would discuss the statements with their peers. Mrs. Wood, again, was making shifts in her practice toward a more dialogic stance. She appeared to value students’ peer talk, and she was making a connection between scientific inquiry and dialogic inquiry.

Since the entire literacy block was whole-group instruction, students had great difficulty maintaining attention. Mrs. Wood held the floor most of time, questioning students in quick I-R-F exchanges. Her evaluative follow-up moves were noticeable in almost every exchange. Mrs. Wood stopped on every page of both books, to talk about various features of non-fiction texts as well as to initiate discussion about vocabulary words, interesting topics, or any significant ideas that Mrs. Wood thought necessary. Hence, the discussion was disjointed, and most students became disengaged. Several children began to exhibit inappropriate behavior, and Mrs. Wood applied her discipline policy of taking students’ recess privileges away.

During the first 27 minutes, Mrs. Wood reviewed text features in biographies with the students as she read a short biography about Dr. Seuss. At the beginning of the lesson, several children went to a big board in the room and wrote what they knew about biographies in a graphic organizer.

Table 4

Observation 2

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	Does anybody know what a text feature is?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	I do.	Louis	Emb	R	Demand	Bid
1	What?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	A text feature is, a text feature is something that you look up in a dictionary that go through the text. It's a text. Text is something you look up in a dictionary. It's for, it's like for, it's for, ummm (long silence)	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	Text feature	Wood	Nuc	I	Give	Clarify
1	Oh, text feature is something like um, like um, like um the um like Johnny Appleseed book. That's what, that's what a text feature is like.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	What things in the Johnny Appleseed book?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	Like um, like when, like when, like when he was born, and um, and he was raised. And then he died and his mama died. That's what a text feature is.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	That's some facts in that biography	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack	Evaluate
2	How could that be presented as a text feature in the book? How could they present facts as a text feature in the book?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI

Then, the read-aloud proceeded just as the Baseline Observation, with Mrs. Wood's rapid-fire questions in mostly nuclear exchanges. One added behavior this week was that Mrs. Wood gave "high-fives" to students whose answers she particularly found valuable. Even though text features were discussed in the earlier timeline lesson, many

students were still confused about the term “text feature.” The following table illustrates that confusion.

Table 5

Observation 3, Text Features

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	Does anybody know what a text feature is?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	I do.	Louis	Emb	R	Demand	Bid
1	What?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	A text feature is, a text feature is something that you look up in a dictionary that go through the text. It's a text. Text is something you look up in a dictionary. It's for, it's like for, it's for, ummm (long silence)	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	Text feature	Wood	Nuc	I	Give	Clarify
1	Oh, text feature is something like um, like um, like um the um like Johnny Appleseed book. That's what, that's what a text feature is like.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	What things in the Johnny Appleseed book?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	Like um, like when, like when, like when he was born, and um, and he was raised. And then he died and his mama died. That's what a text feature is.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	That's some facts in that biography	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack	Evaluate
2	How could that be presented as a text feature in the book? How could they present facts as a text feature in the book?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Req. Cl. = Request clarification. Adapted from “Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse,” by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251.

Another example of confusing conversation during the reading of the biography of Dr. Seuss is illustrated in Table 6.

Table 6

Observation 3, Subheading

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	Did anybody notice on this page right here? Do you know what this is called? (teacher points to subheading) What's that title called?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	Something that you, it's kinda like a chapter.	Natalie	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	Caption	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	It's kinda like a chapter, but	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack	Evaluate
2	What's down underneath a chapter?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	The words	Brandon	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	It's kinda like a title	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	What's it called whenever the prefix is down under? Does anybody, does anybody know this prefix for down under? (No response)	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
4	What about a special machine that's down under the water. What's it called? It's used by the Army or the Navy	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
4	Uh, it's called uh.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
4	Down under	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	Repeat
4	It's called um...um...under and bottom.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
5	It's also a special type of train that they ride underneath.	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	Give
5	It's called um underground.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
5	It's also	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
5	Subway	Amanda	Nuc	R	Give	Give
5	Subway. Ooh. What it is called is a subtitle or subheading.	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack.	Evaluate/Extend
6	Subway, that's where you eat.	Eileen	Nuc	I	Give	Inform

Note: Seq. = Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from "Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse," by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

The pattern of students' using previous "right" answers to answer following questions seemed more evident during this observation, as in Louis's responses about Johnny Appleseed. Another example of this pattern of conversation occurred when Mrs. Wood told the students they were reaching the end of the Dr. Seuss book and the timeline. She pointed to an arrow above the timeline that indicated the time in his life that page was referencing. She asked the children if anyone knew why the timeline had that special mark, the arrow. Louis replied, "It's kinda like a sub." Louis seems to try to remember correct responses from previous conversations in order to answer subsequent questions. Interestingly, Eileen made a connection to a restaurant from the word "subway," and I wondered how Mrs. Wood's monologic questioning patterns led to other students' confusions.

The exchanges in Table 6 were also examples of a typical teacher questioning strategy. Documented by several prominent researchers, this discourse pattern continues to be pervasive in schools, and it is characterized by teacher questioning that is designed to have children say a certain "correct" word that the teacher is thinking (Barnes, 1992; Cazden, 2001; Wells, 1999). In this case, Mrs. Wood used various questions as clues to help children think of the prefix "sub" in hopes that the prefix would help them think of the word "subtitle" as a text feature. This technique caused students' thinking to shift off-topic as they began guessing answers to her clues. Barnes (1992) and Cazden (2001) refer to this technique as a game, and they argue that this pattern of questioning reinforces monologic discussions.

For the next 32 minutes, students participated in a whole-group, round-robin reading of a nonfiction expository big book on animal facts followed by a short writing activity. Before beginning the reading of the nonfiction book about animal facts, Mrs. Wood had students write on a sticky note what they thought the book would tell them about animals just from looking at the cover.

After students shared their thoughts about the big ideas of the book, Mrs. Wood held the text at different children's desks while they took turns reading the pages aloud. She stopped on each page to discuss the text features in that nonfiction text as well as interesting facts about each animal. In this book, the author's leads on each page were in the form of questions and Mrs. Wood had the children stop reading mid-way through the book and write an "I wonder" statement on their individual sticky notes. Children then shared their statements as they posted them on the board at the front of the room. Several are as follows:

- I was watching a movie about the leopards that was messin' with lions and they was runnin.' (Natalie)
- Why do snails are small? (Ashley)
- I wonder what snails eat. (Brandon)
- I wonder where snails live. (Lupe)
- I wonder about a polar bear baby's fur. (Eileen)
- I wonder why leopards grow. (Brenda)

Some of the children's "I wonder" statements seemed rehearsed. The first statement from Natalie could have led to something about which she was really curious,

but she did not seem to complete her thought. The second statement from Brandon may also have been genuine, but the following statement from Lupe seemed to be contrived from Brandon's statement, especially since no one except Brandon had mentioned snails earlier. The last statement about leopards growing seemed as though Brenda was grasping for something to say.

Finally, Mrs. Wood gave students an additional assignment to write two entries in their journals: (a) something they learned about text features in biographies, and (b) something they learned about text features in nonfiction books. I noticed that Louis, Christina, and Maria had difficulty with the writing task. They wrote facts that they learned in the book about animals rather than writing what they knew about text features. Mrs. Wood monitored the students' writing, and then she asked students to turn to a partner and share what they had written.

I wrote in my observations that this writing activity did not correlate well with the factual, literal, recall questions that dominated the conversations. In fact, Mrs. Wood did stop and talk about each page of the book's content. She also focused her conversations with students on naming text features of each nonfiction text rather than showing students how text features support comprehension. Therefore, this task may have seemed confusing for students. Mrs. Wood wrote in her journal that her class needed "lots of 'talk'," and that they were "full force into our routine so I (Mrs. Wood) am hoping they will understand and communicate their thoughts about print."

During the entire literacy block, there were 83 sequences but only six dependent exchanges. Louis still dominated the conversation with 46 conversational moves, and most of his answers about biographical text features concerned facts he learned in the Johnny Appleseed research project. Jose was absent, but all other study participants offered moves in conversations, contributing between two and ten times. All students' contributions to conversations were literal in nature, answering questions that Mrs. Wood posed, and most of their responses were categorized as 1 in length. Hence, the monologic stance was maintained. Importantly, Mrs. Wood redirected children's behavior 43 times, indicating that the institutionalization of Mrs. Wood's monologic teaching stance, along with long whole-group activities, may be inducing students' disengagement from classroom activities and conversations.

A slight, but critical, shift did occur in two of Mrs. Wood's exchanges during this observation. Although she made many evaluative comments in her follow-up moves, she also began to use follow-up moves that advanced the conversations into dependent exchanges. The phrases "Can you add to it?" and "What do you think about that?" were suggested in the routines noted in the Fountas and Pinnell (2000) text as a way to extend conversations. In this context, Mrs. Wood extended the conversation to students by only asking for further factual information, but she appeared to initiate language conducive to dialogic teaching.

Bruner (1973), in his theory of serial order in learning skilled actions, described learning new actions in three stages: (a) feed-forward, (b) feed-back, and (c) knowledge

of results. In the feed-forward stage, the learner makes an anticipatory move that may result in clumsy or awkward attempts. Initially, the attempt may result in successful management of the new skill, or help from a more expert other may be needed. Mrs. Wood's anticipatory move in changing her follow-up statements may have indicated her desire to learn a new teaching action, establishing a dialogic stance toward conversations about texts. I made a note in my anecdotal observations that I needed to support her attempts and that Mrs. Wood may be transferring her learning from declarative knowledge to situated, procedural knowledge (Snow et al., 2005). I saw evidence that Mrs. Wood was practicing what we had discussed in previous coaching sessions and that she had read and initiated some of the conversational routines from the Fountas and Pinnell (2000) text suggested in an earlier coaching session.

Importantly, I thought that although Mrs. Wood began to make a connection between scientific inquiry and dialogic inquiry, she tended to reduce the theory to an activity that produced false results, with disingenuous "I wonder" statements as the activity. These children probably did not really want to know what they wrote; they were only completing an assignment. The teacher's actions with this assignment may be another signal that her declarative knowledge may be progressing to procedural knowledge on the Snow et al. (2005) continuum. Or, I considered that her actions might be based on a Behaviorist paradigm where learning is viewed as a simple process of learning "how to do" process. It appeared that Mrs. Wood believed the activities and her

teaching were the critical components in students' learning. I thought that I might need to support her attempts with more specific examples and modeling.

Coaching after observation 3. In studying my anecdotal notes, my journal entries, and the transcript of the third observation, I made a list of the current issues with respect to helping Mrs. Wood move toward initiating dialogic conversations about texts: (a) Mrs. Wood spends an inordinate amount of time redirecting behavior; (b) Mrs. Wood is still directing her conversation with an I-R-F pattern, with evaluation as her follow-up move; (c) Mrs. Wood may think changing or adding activities, like having students write "I wonder" statements and peer sharing, is accomplishing her responsibility toward dialogic teaching; she may not realize that accomplishment of the goal will only be realized when her conversation and her teaching positively impacts students' conversations toward a dialogic stance; (d) Some of the study participants appear to be less engaged in conversation; one child is allowed to dominate the discussion; and (e) Classroom conversation still appears to be confusing, with rapid-fire, teacher-directed questions that sometimes may not make sense to students. I marked the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubrics for both Mrs. Wood and the students on the monologic end of the continua. One important shift that I had observed was that a few of Mrs. Wood's follow-up exchanges in the last observation extended the conversation.

Therefore, my plan for the next coaching was to show brief video recordings, with transcripts, of Mrs. Wood's teaching and then for us to jointly mark the D-I-T rubrics. The actual conversational transcripts were important concrete evidence that we could

read and reread as Mrs. Wood considered her own stance toward conversations.

Following the discussion of the rubrics, I planned to ask her if I might model a read-aloud with her students. I also wanted to show her a video clip of third grade students during their first literature discussion group from the Fountas and Pinnell (2011b) video series. My objective was for Mrs. Wood to notice how students specifically talked to each other and how the teacher, through conversational exchanges, prepared students for talking more deeply about texts.

On the day of the coaching, we looked at the transcript with the video of Mrs. Wood's class. The transcript helped her notice that, not only were her students functioning toward the monologic end of the D-I-T continuum, but that her language was also directed toward a monologic stance. At that point we watched the video clip of the third grade literature discussion group talking about Patricia Polacco's (1996) *Rechenka's Eggs*. As we watched the video I stopped at various places for us to notice how the students in the group were functioning on the student D-I-T rubric and to talk about specifics of how to accomplish that level of sophisticated discussion with Mrs. Wood's children, focusing on the teacher's follow-up exchanges like "What are you thinking?" Students in the video were looking at each other while they talked, and conversation was extended as they thought about what their peers were saying before commenting themselves.

I then asked her if I could come another day to her class and model an interactive read-aloud with her students. She agreed to allow me to come the following day. I had

already decided to read Eve Bunting's (2000) *Memory String*, and I had a copy with me. Mrs. Wood was familiar with the story, but she had not read it to her students. I planned the lesson while we were talking about the text, choosing and marking two places in the text where I would stop and initiate discussion. We discussed the value of preplanning only a few places to stop in a read-aloud.

Finally, I asked Mrs. Wood to notice two characteristics during the read-aloud the next day: (1) my language, especially on follow-up exchanges and (2) children's conversations. I asked Mrs. Wood to try to document the language both students and I used during the read-aloud.

Read-Aloud: The Turning Point

I chose *The Memory String* (Bunting, 2000) because of its emotional appeal. It is about a girl, Laura, whose mother has died and whose father has remarried. Laura does not like her stepmother only because she resents the fact that her own mother is no longer living and she doesn't want someone else to be a "substitute" mother. Laura has a collection of stringed buttons that represent important times in the lives of her family and she loves to look at her buttons to remember happier times, when one day some of the buttons fall off the string. Laura's stepmother's kindness in helping find the missing buttons becomes the beginning of a new relationship.

I noted in my journal that I needed to teach the children a few management routines for conversational talk. So, I decided to teach them two of the routines Mrs. Wood and I had discussed in the previous training: (a) When someone is talking, no one

may have their hand raised. (b) When someone is talking, others need to look at that person and think about what he or she is saying. Both routines were important to help students think about what others are saying.

On the day of the lesson, I took about five minutes to teach and rehearse the two management routines. These were new to the children and I was unsure how frequently I would have to redirect behavior during the lesson. They were accustomed to Mrs. Wood stopping often to address behavior issues.

The entire lesson, with teaching and rehearsing the two routines, spanned twenty-nine minutes. While this time span is normally too long for a read-aloud, we had to rehearse routines and I did have to stop and redirect students' behaviors. I sat in a small chair and students sat on the surrounding floor area. Thomas and Louis exhibited behaviors with me that they had practiced all semester, such as scooting around the floor to sit with different friends. I did not allow that behavior to continue because I wanted the mood of the group to be intent on the messages of the text.

During the conversation about the text, there were only six sequences with several dependent exchanges in every sequence. Students talked equally, with Natalie and Brandon contributing to five exchanges each. Other children contributed to fewer exchanges, and Louis offered only one move. There were more hypothetical mode responses, and there were more conversational moves that were categorized as 2 in length than those in the 1 category. Additionally, there were two responses that ranked in category 3 for length. These characteristics provide evidence that these students eagerly

participated in dialogic conversations. The following exchanges, in Table 7, occurred during the read-aloud of *The Memory String* (Bunting, 2000) and illustrate the students' moves toward a dialogic stance in discussions about text.

Table 7

The Memory String, Sequence 1

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	Why do you think she's pulling that memory string out in front of her stepmother so often? Why is she doing that? What do you think?	KN	Nuc	I	Demand	RO
1	To look at it.	Luis	Nuc	R	Give	Opinion
1	Does anybody have anything to add to that?	KN	Dep	I	Demand	RO
1	So she could remember her mother.	Natalie	Dep	R	Give	Opinion
1	She might remember her great-grandma.	Thomas	Dep	R	Give	Opinion
1	Can you add to it?	KN	Dep	I	Demand	RO
1	She might be giving the necklace to her stepmother.	Brandon	Dep	R	Give	Opinion
1	I don't think so. Because um, so, because, so her stepmother can look at it and she can touch the buttons.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Opinion
1	Because she might miss one of her family members at night and she might pull out the string to see if it might remind her of them.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Opinion

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from "Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse," by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

During the sequence in Table 7, I did not comment for evaluative follow-up exchanges, but validated each child's contribution by nodding my head in agreement.

Interestingly, the students readily commented on the thinking of their peers, without

much intervention from me. The second set of exchanges concerned the issue of why Laura did not want a substitute mother. While students' conversations appeared disjointed initially as they focused on their own connections with stepmothers, as the conversation developed into a dependent exchange, Eileen and Brandon began responding to each other.

Table 8

The Memory String, Sequence 2

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
2	What do you think when the author said, "It's like a mother, no substitute allowed." What do you think?	KN	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	My stepmother, I don't like her at all. Because she always gets mad. She gets on my nerves. She talks a lot. And she takes stuff away from me when I'm not doing anything wrong. I don't like a stepmother like that.	Brenda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	I got a stepmother and I got a stepdaddy too.	John	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	My stepmom, when it was my birthday, she bought me a Hello Kitty necklace and she helped me.	Natalie	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	Because she, um, her stepmom was a substitute because she's not her real mom.	John	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	Can you say more about that?	KN	Dep	I	Demand	RE
2	Because she, um, her stepmom was a substitute because she's not her real mom.	John	Dep	R	Give	Inform
2	I don't think so. Because um, so, because, so her stepmother can look at it and she can touch the buttons.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform
2	She's trying to get to know her.	Brandon	Dep	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from "Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse," by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

As mentioned previously, I did have to stop a number of times to redirect behavior, but in all of these instances I was reminding students of the two routines I wanted them to observe at the beginning of the lesson. This one lesson with practicing these two routines was probably not enough to shift students' behaviors permanently, but I felt that there was overwhelming evidence that students' responded positively to the dialogic stance. John, who did not normally speak at all, was eager to contribute his thoughts, and I was satisfied with the distribution of exchanges from all children in the study. The fact that the dependent exchanges continued in every sequence was additional evidence of a shift toward dialogic inquiry.

Mrs. Wood and I met briefly during her conference period after the literacy block. I asked her what she noticed about the conversations. I video-recorded the entire lesson, but I felt it was important to talk about her reactions right away rather than waiting to schedule another meeting time to watch the video and review the actual transcript. Mrs. Wood said that she was surprised that children thought as deeply as they did and she was "shocked" that John contributed so much. Mrs. Wood then said that this was all new to the students because they did not talk about texts at all in second grade. She reiterated that her students usually improved in their ability to talk about texts in the spring semester, and then she noted that she was going to try being more open-ended with her follow-up exchanges and give students more "wait time" to talk. We discussed the D-I-T (Reanitskaya et al., 2011) indicators for both the students and the teacher, but we did not physically mark the rubrics. She mentioned that I, too, had to redirect behavior several

times. Then we discussed the importance of teaching routines for behavior within a classroom community of learners. I showed her an additional reference in *Guiding Readers and Writers* (Fountas & Pinnell, 2000) about building a community of learners in the classroom and explained that the process would not be accomplished in one day or during one lesson.

I remarked in my journal that I was surprised how quickly students responded to more dialogic conversations and, secondly, how important management routines would be to the sustainability of the process.

Final Observations: Practicing and Sustaining a Dialogic Stance

Observations 4, 5, and the Final Observations had several patterns in common. *The Memory String* (Bunting, 2000) read-aloud seemed to be the turning point in helping Mrs. Wood practice routines within a framework that would support dialogic inquiry. Her teaching changed in the following ways during the last three observations, as noted in my journal, my anecdotal notes, and the video transcripts: (a) Mrs. Wood reduced the number of evaluative statements in her follow-up exchanges, and instead remained more neutral in her comments; (b) Sequences contained more dependent exchanges; (c) More students were engaged in talk about text; and (d) Children began conversations with each other and physically moved at will to join conversational exchanges with their peers.

Observation 4. Mrs. Wood once again planned a whole group read-aloud of the book *Roxaboxen* by Alice McLerren (1991). Roxaboxen is a place that neighborhood children made for themselves on a cliff by a river where they could go and pretend. They

had fun imagining it was a town with houses and it was a happy place that they could think about all of their lives.

This read-aloud activity lasted for 57 minutes. The length of time for this activity was longer than any other read-aloud. Mrs. Wood did not take my advice to plan two or three important places in the book. Instead, she stopped on almost every page and invited conversation. Because students participated in conversation so readily, the length of the activity was extended. While I was not certain that the students' learning was situated around achieving a comprehending goal, I noticed a monumental shift in both Mrs. Wood's stance and the students' toward dialogic conversations. Even though the conversation seemed fragmented at times, students participated more as Mrs. Wood shifted her stance.

There were 34 sequences in conversation, and 25 of those sequences contained dependent exchanges. While Jose and Christina were absent and Ashley was in her Special Education class, all other students in the study contributed conversational moves to the discussion. Louis once again offered moves to many exchanges in the discussion. However, he talked less while the other students participated in more exchanges. Brandon participated 22 times and Amanda and Brenda each contributed in 13 exchanges. Mrs. Wood made 20 evaluative follow-up exchanges, and she redirected behavior 23 times. Students spoke in the hypothetical mode more often, in 14 exchanges, and the length of their contributions increased, with 35 of the exchanges categorized as 2 in length and 14 categorized as 3. I thought this shift in students' conversations was

remarkable, given the one- or two-word responses that were pervasive only a few weeks earlier.

An example of children talking with more dialogic conversation during the nuclear exchange, leading to a dependent exchange is displayed in Table 9. The teacher read, “Roxaboxen is always waiting,” (McLerran, 1991, p. 30).

Table 9

Roxaboxen Sequence 1

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	What does that mean?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	Because it's a, they made it. That it was permanent.	Brenda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	Roxaboxen is never gonna leave 'cause it's a place that they made.	Lupe	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	It's permanent.	Brenda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	They might take it down one day.	Amanda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	Can you say more about that?	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	RI
1	You can't take it down.	Brandon	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	They could build something else there.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Inform

. Adapted from “Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse,” by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

In the previous exchange, Mrs. Wood withheld a follow-up exchange until after four comments were made. Then, Amanda challenged Brenda’s idea that Roxaboxen was permanent by suggesting “they might take it down one day.” Rather than evaluating students’ comments, Mrs. Wood’s follow-up was open-ended, asking students to extend or clarify their thinking. At that point, Brandon, who had not participated in the

exchange, offered his idea about the permanence of Roxaboxen, and Amanda continued her use of the hypothetical mode by suggesting what might happen in the future.

At the end of the story, Mrs. Wood asked students to return to their desks and write their thoughts about Roxaboxen. Interestingly, the writing assignment, itself, was open-ended and did not focus students' attention on literal recall of facts. I believed that the genre of this text contributed to the ease with which Mrs. Wood and the students participated in more dialogic conversations. Previous nonfiction texts were probably not as conducive to orienting a teacher toward a dialogic stance, particularly when the teacher places value on literal facts and details within the framework of skills lessons.

Mrs. Wood walked around the room and interacted with students as they wrote, and all students were engaged in writing. As Mrs. Wood talked with Eileen, Brenda spontaneously turned around in her chair to join the discussion as in Table 10. Other students also joined in the discussion and their conversation was more dialogic as their moves were responsive to a student's previous comments.

Table 10

Roxaboxen, Writing Conversation

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	What was your favorite part (to Eileen)	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	The play fighting but they had safe forts too.	Eileen	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	(Brenda joins the discussion) They made shops and they were in a play war.	Brenda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	Why did you like the war?	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	RI
1	I like it because they had sticks. The weapons.	Brenda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	They shot at people. And they had a graveyard just in case anybody died, but it was only the lizard (buried there). They decorated it every year so they can keep him in mind.	Brenda	Dep	I	Give	Inform
1	(Louis brings his chair to join the discussion). When they had sticks and they were fighting with the sticks like they was having a Christopher Columbus war. They had on costumes.	Louis	Dep	I	Give	Inform
1	(Amanda turns her chair around to join the conversation also). I think, um, that Roxaboxen remind me of when um we had, when me and my dad and mom, we had went to a museum in um South Dakota and then um there was this, there was a big little cave and a cavern and then they, and they had builded some stuff and there was um, there was some people, like some fake people in there.	Amanda	Dep	I	Give	Inform
1	Are you saying those fake people reminded you of Roxaboxen?	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	Req. Cl.

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	Yes, I was using my imagination. You can use your imagination to fake like they are real.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Clarify
	(Eileen turns her chair around to face the small group talking and joins the conversation) Um, um Roxaboxen remind me of, it remind me of this place my mom and my dad and, my mom and my dad took me, my brother, and my sister to a water. It has lots of water, it has lots of water and 3 boats in the water and um they had this museum um and um we seen a lot of fake people inside. Like, like, like um this man on the TV show and this um, and Lady Gaga, and after that we went to Sea World and Sea World had a waterpark and um dolphins, dolphins and seals, and um a whale. And the whale name is Shamu. And um, um, we um after that we went to the hotel and um, and we went to the hotel and change our clothes and got on and got on our swimming um things and went to the pool and um the hot tub.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from “Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse,” by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

Children's willingness to participate in a conversation without interrupting each other is evidence that they should be able to transfer this routine into everyday classroom practice. Some children, like Eileen, were participating in what Barnes (1992, pp. 28-30) termed "exploratory talk." In the last exchange in Table 10, Eileen had many hesitations, with "ums," and false start repetitions, "my mom and my dad and my mom and my dad," before she consolidated her thoughts enough to voice her thinking without hesitations. Louis displayed similar tendencies in earlier exchanges similar to those in Table 5 where he said, "Oh, text feature is something like um, like um, like um, the um, like Johnny Appleseed book. That's what, that's what a text feature is." Barnes (1992, pp. 28-30) argued that allowing students to grope toward meanings is necessary as children assimilate and accommodate new learning into their existing systems of both language and comprehension. Language has a function of communicating, but in this example children were actively involved in using language as a mediator of meaning (Barnes, 1992; Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1999). This use of language, as reflection, is akin to thinking aloud and helps the speaker to accommodate, modify, and consolidate his or her thinking (Barnes, 1992; Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1999).

Coaching after observation 4. As I was marking the student D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubric after I transcribed the video, I noted that students were shifting toward a more dialogic stance on the following indicators: (a) Engaging in Co-reasoning, (b) Providing Reasons, (c) Offering Alternative Viewpoints, and (d) Connecting with Peers.

As students joined each other in conversations, they collaborated to extend the ideas of their peers. Since students responses were more hypothetical in mode, they remarked more on their reasoning and their answers were not as brief. As students posed alternative viewpoints, they provided each other with their rationales. Finally, students began relating previous conversational moves to their own thinking, thus extending the thinking of each individual as well as that of the entire group. Since students were not reflecting on their own discussion processes, they were still functioning at the monologic end of the continuum on that specific indicator. Nevertheless, there was a clear shift in the students' conversations about text. On the teacher D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubric, I marked the teacher within the middle range, 3-4, of the continuum on every indicator, but on the following indicators Mrs. Woods operated toward the dialogic end of the middle range, at number 4: (a) Sharing the Floor, (b) Dividing Responsibilities, (c) Asking Open-ended Questions, and (d) Clarifying Meaning and Summarizing. Mrs. Wood definitely allowed students to contribute to discussions with longer answers, and she allowed them to freely engage with each other without placing restrictions on their interactions. While Mrs. Wood led most of the discussions, there were times when she allowed peer conversations.

Importantly, Mrs. Wood made a shift in her follow-up moves by using more open-ended questions, and she increased her wait time between her questions and students' responses. Also in this observation, Mrs. Wood asked students to clarify their thinking by asking other students to "add" to what was said. She also asked several

students to expand their remarks in order to justify or provide rationales. While the open-ended questions were positioned within the middle range of the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011), Mrs. Wood continued to favor skills lessons that necessarily led students to provide literal, detail-oriented answers. Her propensity to return to the more monologic stance was likely driven by the degree to which the school adhered to a skills-based curriculum.

As I reviewed the Joyce and Showers (2002, p. 102) Levels of Transfer and the Progressive Differentiation continuum by Snow et al. (2005) I determined that Mrs. Wood was probably transferring her knowledge at the imitative or mechanical use level in that she used a similarly constructed read-aloud to the modeled lesson that I taught. In congruence with the transfer of knowledge level, she seemed to be able to manage procedural knowledge in that particular situation, with my support.

In planning for Coaching 4, I decided to choose two video clips, one from the whole-group read-aloud that still showed the I-R-F sequences with evaluative follow-up statements, and I wanted to contrast that with the conversation where students joined peers for discussion. I also wanted to show the spontaneous exchanges first and then contrast those sequences with the aforementioned read-aloud sequences. I planned to begin the coaching session with a conversation about how Mrs. Wood saw her students progressing on the dialogic continuum, the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011).

Mrs. Wood and I met at our regularly scheduled time. I began the discussion by asking Mrs. Wood what changes she had noticed in her students' use of language when

talking about texts. Mrs. Wood said that she was pleased that more students were engaged in discussions and that she thought that her attention to the “I wonder” statements had helped her students. She also said that she concentrated on providing statements in her follow-up exchanges that were less evaluative. She liked asking students to “add to” what another child said, and she particularly liked providing students with some wait time during conversations rather than feeling as though she needed to get to another question so rapidly. We then watched the video clips together and she marked the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubrics by herself. Surprisingly, we marked the students within the same range on the continuum, in the middle portion, with some indicators favoring the dialogic side. On the teacher D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubric, Mrs. Wood marked her teaching toward the dialogic end of the continuum on the same indicators that I had marked: (a) Asking Open-ended Questions, (b) Requesting Reasons, (c) Prompting for Alternatives, and (d) Clarifying Meaning/Summarizing.

Finally, we set a goal for Observation 5. This would be the last observation in the study, except for a follow-up observation at the end of the semester, and I asked Mrs. Wood what she would like to have her students accomplish. She replied that she wanted them to continue to expand their conversations. She also thought that having students write about texts was important in that it seemed to give her students more to discuss. Then, I asked her how she needed to shift her teaching in order for students to move toward a more dialogic stance. She replied that she would like to work toward helping students use language to clarify or summarize their thinking about the texts, the last

indicator on the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) teacher rubric. We then brainstormed some techniques she might use to that end: (a) Ask students to paraphrase what a peer stated; (b) Invite students to say what the previous person stated “in a different way;” (c) Ask students to “say more about” their thoughts; and (d) Teach students how to politely agree or disagree with a previous statement, based on text evidence.

In thinking about the Mrs. Wood’s view of her teaching, I wrote in my journal that I was surprised by how well the students were talking about texts. However, I was somewhat concerned that Mrs. Wood remained at the Imitative Use or Mechanical Use transfer level on Joyce and Showers (2002, p. 102) rubric. I surmised the Mrs. Wood was practicing transferring knowledge only in certain situations, in this case when a model was supplied. Even though I thought she might be functioning in the middle range of that continuum toward more stable, procedural knowledge, I had no evidence within the scope of this study. This type of knowledge transfer would be most prevalent in novice teachers, and Mrs. Wood was a novice to dialogic inquiry even though she had many years of teaching experience. As Joyce and Showers (2002) posit, novice teachers tend to mimic practices. They tend to not internalize theoretical constructs and, thus, they perform actions in a cursory manner. With respect to Mrs. Wood, I felt that she chose two behaviors that she saw me model: (a) using more open-ended follow-up moves, and (b) allowing students more wait time for responses. However, I was unsure as to the sustainability of Mrs. Wood’s shift toward a dialogic stance.

I made a list of my thoughts in my journal as to why this was occurring: (a) Mrs. Wood's paradigm of the relationship between teaching and student learning was based on a transmission, recitation model where the belief is if students do not succeed they must have a deficit (Clay, 1987; Wells, 1999); (b) The overriding constraints of the curriculum may be focusing too much emphasis on sub-skills of reading, leading teachers to view their job as "teaching, or telling facts" (Wells, 1999); and (c) Perhaps Mrs. Wood does not understand the importance of oral language in the process of making meaning (Cazden, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1999).

Observation 5. The reading block during Observation 5 lasted 1 hr 3 min. There were only 21 sequences, with 12 of them containing dependent exchanges. Louis did not dominate the discussion. Students shared in the discussions more evenly, and 40 of the exchanges were in the hypothetical mode. Most of the student responses were lengthy, ranking in categories 2 and 3 for length, with only six moves in length category 1. Mrs. Wood continued to redirect behavior frequently, 41 times, and she made 27 evaluative statements.

The entire class time was devoted to whole group instruction. First Mrs. Wood read a poem to her students about parts of a friendly letter. Then, the remainder of the time was spent on reading new sections of the previous text about animal facts, followed by a writing-about-reading activity and subsequent conversation. The different activities in the literacy block were based on Mrs. Wood's curriculum goals of understanding and using features of nonfiction texts to assist students in comprehension. However, Mrs.

Wood again focused only on the skill of having students name text features in both read-alouds. She also wanted students to think about the content of the animal facts book, so she spent time discussing what the authors wrote about each animal. Students were seated in front of Mrs. Wood's chair for the poem and the read-aloud.

After the poem, Mrs. Wood reminded children of routines they had discussed for listening and responding to conversations about the text. While the read-aloud was again focused on the skill of understanding text features in nonfiction texts, Mrs. Wood paused frequently to discuss the meaning of the text, and to bring attention to other reading strategies such as predicting unknown words from context.

Students were listening carefully to what Mrs. Wood read and they were apparently feeling more confident about expressing misunderstandings. Jose, who had been reticent to talk throughout most of the semester, raised questions about something he did not understand in the following sequence shown in Table 11. Mrs. Wood covered up the word "protect" on a page about a leopard. Her objective was to read up to the word and have the students predict what the word might be from the context of the sentence. The sentence read, "How does its fur protect it?" Mrs. Wood read, "How does its fur 'blank' it?" In the following exchange, many of the children carried on the thought through initiation of dependent exchanges and Jose even voiced his misunderstanding. He thought that when Mrs. Wood said, "blank it" that she meant "blanket."

Table 11

Observation 5, Sequence 1

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	M	Prosp.	Function
1	What do you think the fur could do?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	So it can keep it really warm and camouflage it from its predators.	Brenda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	Can you add to that?	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	RI
1	Is that a blanket?	Jose	Dep	I	Demand	RI
1	You have a blanket to keep you warm.	Wood	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	What else? Can you add to that?	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	RI
1	If they didn't have any fur, it would be freezing. It would freeze.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	They would die. They would get sick.	Ashley	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	They would freeze like a ice cube.	Thomas	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	No, They live in Africa. In Africa it's warm at night.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	Their fur lets you know they are alike.	Jose	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	Oh, their fur identifies what kind of animal they are.	Wood	Dep	F	Ack.	Repeat
1	If they don't have fur, bugs would get all over them and they would bite them.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	So they could camo, camouflage. In the trees.	Brandon	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	Um, like when, um their fur come up and then when people try to find it um they can leave, they can leave the fur where they are.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	If he didn't have no fur, if he didn't have no fur, then people could kill it.	Thomas	Dep	R	Give	Inform

(Continued)

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	M	Prosp.	Function
1	Um, like cheetahs, and, and um cheetahs and leopards, um they're both the same but not their stripes because um those leopards got more than cheetahs and the um cheetah got a big spot and leopards got like little spots.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. RI= Request information. Adapted from “Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse,” by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

Because Mrs. Wood was not making evaluative follow-up statements in Table 11, the students carried the conversation forward with more dependent exchanges. They were talking about their thinking, many in the hypothetical mode and the lengths of their exchanges increased. Eileen’s use of exploratory talk was evident once again, but even in the short period of time from the last observation to this one, her thinking seemed to be more consolidated, with fewer “ums,” and her thought processes were easier to follow. Mrs. Wood chose an excellent book for discussion because the author used questions in the text to invoke children’s inferential thoughts. The following exchange in Table 12 is evidence of how children propelled each other’s exchanges into more complex thinking and conversation. Although some students’ comments seem disconnected from the previous conversational move, Mrs. Wood allowed many more student turns before offering a follow-up move.

Table 12

Observation 5, Sequence 2

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
2	Look at the picture and think about what the text said. The question says, "How did it use its wings?" (referring to grasshoppers)	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	Uh, the wi-, the wings help them kinda jump. It kinda helps them jump.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	Uh, they use their wings to escape from, escape from something that would eat them or step on them.	Lupe	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	It's like when an animal tries to eat them.	Christina	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	It said they had two pairs of wings. I wonder why it has two pair of wings.	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	RI
2	So it could jump and start flying. He'll jump and then...he'll jump and then he'd fly up in the air. So he can get away.	John	Dep	R	Give	RI
2	Can anyone add to it?	Mrs. Wood	Dep	I	Demand	Extend
2	The um grasshopper might. The grasshopper might, he might um jump first and then he start flying. Because grasshoppers can jump fast and can move fast and they can jump high in the air.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
2	But why would they have two pairs of wings?	Wood	Dep	R	Demand	RI
2	Cause one of the sets probably have...probably one set, the little ones, they might be, have, they little 'cause when they open 'em, might be big ones comin' out.	Brandon	Dep	R	Give	Inform

(Continued)

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
2	If the big ones, if the big ones break off, then the little ones will grow bigger.	Brenda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
2	They have little ones. The little ones can grow. 'Cause I think that, that grasshoppers is a baby one and I think the reason why they have little wings is because it's smaller than the big grasshopper.	Natalie	Dep	R	Give	Inform
2	Or I think it just like a bird.	Louis	Dep	R	Give	Inform
2	Or when they fly.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform
2	It goes, the other set they kinda alone. The other set makes it go higher.	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness, Req. Cl. = Request clarification. Adapted from “Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse,” by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

In the previous exchange in Table 12, the teacher’s and students’ engagement is at a dialogic level as they converse. Mrs. Wood did not make any evaluative statements, but she allowed students to work out their thinking about why grasshoppers had wings, and, further, why they might have two sets of wings. At that point, rather than Louis dominating the conversation, he apparently listened to the other children and commented when appropriate on previous conversational moves. Mrs. Wood used her follow-up move, “But why would they have two pair of wings?”, to turn the conversation back to the relevant issue, and she allowed students to work on their meanings through their conversations. Students’ use of words like “if,” “probably,” and “could” are examples of hypothetical thinking, and they functioned to propel the conversation forward. In a later

exchange, about how bees and grasshoppers are alike, Eileen further consolidated her thoughts,

Um, that the grasshopper and the bee are the same because they protect themselves and they both have wings and they both fly. And, um, when they like, when a grasshopper um, like a grasshopper and a bee they both, they both um. A bee sits on a flower to get honey from, to give honey to the next flower so it can grow more flowers. And the um grasshopper, the grasshopper does, the grasshopper like do what the bee does but they're both different.

While Eileen was still working on her thinking through exploratory talk, her exchanges were longer, and with fewer “ums.” According to Barnes (1992), this consolidation in thinking aloud is a sign of growth both in Eileen’s thought processes and in her ability to express what she is thinking.

After the read-aloud, Mrs. Wood gave the students a writing assignment to work on at their desks. They were to write about how polar bears, grasshoppers, and bees are alike and how they are different. Then she wanted them to write three “I wonder” statements. Mrs. Wood monitored the children’s writing and stopped at desks to read what students wrote. Toward the end of the period students were to share with each other what they wrote. Brandon, on his own, brought his journal to where Amanda, Eileen, and Brenda were sharing. During the following exchange in Table 13 Amanda spontaneously became the moderator of the conversation.

Table 13

Observation 5, Sequence 3

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
3	Share with your partner how bears, grasshoppers, and bees are alike and how they are different.	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
3	OK alike. Bees and grasshoppers and leopards are all born. Bees and chickens, I mean bees and leopards and grasshoppers have their way of living. Different. Bees, grasshoppers, and leopards, um (unintelligible) Bees have a stinger and grasshoppers...that's what I got.	Amanda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	What is yours?	Amanda	Emb	I	Demand	Nominate/RI
3	They all have camouflage and they all have food and they all have babies. And they don't have wings. And they all do not have...they all don't have fur. And they all don't have...they all don't have...	Brandon	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	You can work on yours since we're done. (Brandon complies)	Amanda	Emb	I	Give	Inform
3	OK, a bee has a stinger and a grasshopper has spots, spots, spots on (she is writing as she talks) them and a leopard, leopard has, has um little spots but the spots are not equal because um the spots are taller than each other, bigger than each other (editing as she reads).	Eileen	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	And I wonder how they survive in the winter and I wonder how they hibernate and I wonder...	Amanda	Dep	I	Give	Inform
3	You wrote your "I wonders?"	Brenda	Dep	I	Demand	RI
3	And I wonder how they...gather food in the winter.	Amanda	Dep	I	Give	Inform
3	And your turn (to Brenda)	Amanda	Emb	I	Demand	Nominate

(Continued)

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
3	It has pokey spots on it...pokey spots on it. I have to think in my mind. And a leopard has spots on their back but not the same size (talks as she writes; Brenda goes back to her writing to finish it while Amanda and Eileen are still talking.) OK, I wonder if, how a cricket was eaten, if a cricket was in the wilderness, I wonder how it would survive.	Brenda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	Come on!	Amanda	Dep	F	Ack	Evaluate
3	I wonder how...I wonder if, if a bee, a bee and a cricket fight. Like if they ever see each other if they fight or something and sting. And if the cricket fly away. And I wonder if the bee would come at it. I wonder that.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	I wonder why...how animals...well the bees and the crickets when they're when they're in the uh woods, and the reps preds...there's predict...	Brenda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	Predators	Amanda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	And I wonder why...ooh I got a good one.	Brenda	Dep	R	Give	Inform/ Evaluate
3	Say it.	Amanda	Emb	I	Demand	RI
3	OK...let's (unintelligible)	Brenda	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	They are all...they are some differences like the grasshopper and the bee are insects but theleopard is not an insect. A leopard is a mammal (reading what she wrote). I wonder can a leopard be a insect. Can a grasshopper be a mammal? I wonder if a bee can eat meat. And then I wonder how a cricket survive in the wild.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from "Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse," by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

It seemed that many of the students wrote “I wonder” statements in response to the assignment, rather than generating true wonderings of their own. Wells (1999) discussed at length how creating such fabricated statements is not dialogic inquiry at all, and these children were writing something so they would receive “credit” for having completed the assignment. Nevertheless, in the previous conversation in Table 13, I noticed growth in both the students’ use of the hypothetical mode, “if” exchanges, and in the length of their conversational moves. Eileen showed tremendous growth in both her speech and her thinking as she was able to compartmentalize similarities and differences of the three animals and insects, and her speech was consolidated. Barnes (1992) and Wells (1999) argue that writing is a powerful tool for helping students both accommodate and consolidate their thinking, and Mrs. Wood allowed her students to document their thinking about texts without having the constraints of editing.

As students shared with the whole class toward the end of the lesson, Mrs. Wood did not make evaluative comments about misunderstood information or facts, but she turned their thoughts back to them. In the following exchange in Table 14, Natalie made a statement about how the polar bear, the grasshopper, and the bee were all warm-blooded. It is critical for engagement of students that Mrs. Wood did not make an evaluative exchange in the follow-up but rather that she turned the follow-up back to the child or children.

Table 14

Observation 5, Sequence 4

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
4	What did you write? (Reading from her paper) Bees and grasshoppers are the same. They eat, they play, and they fly in the sky. They can walk.	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
4	They can protect themselves. They can...they can...they do have...they can move the same thing. They are warm-blooded.	Natalie	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
4	They not.	Brandon	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
4	They cold-blooded	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
4	We'll have to check and see.	Wood	Nuc	F	Ack	Req Cl
4	I'll look in my book at home.	Amanda	Nuc	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness, Req. Cl. = Request clarification. Adapted from "Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse," by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

Mrs. Wood's response in the follow-up exchange allowed students to become more active and to find the information for themselves.

Coaching after observation 5. In Observation 5, Mrs. Wood showed several shifts toward dialogic teaching. She allowed students to comment without evaluative statements from her. She reminded them how to politely converse with each other and students were able to courteously maintain their conversations. Mrs. Wood's follow-up exchanges were more open in nature, inviting students to share their thinking. She allowed them to write, which seemed to provide a boost toward consolidating their

thinking. While giving children an assignment to write three similarities, three differences, and three “I wonder” statements about the text seems disingenuous, the teacher nevertheless gave students opportunities to think alone and to think and talk with each other. As Mrs. Wood released control of the conversations, students spontaneously took roles for themselves. Brandon automatically joined a group of three girls for conversation about what he wrote. Amanda took on the role of moderator for this particular group, inviting others to finish their work and she called on children to take turns with their conversations. (See Table 13.)

I was surprised by the students’ ability to organize themselves in group work. Children also challenged each other toward successful completion of their project. Amanda challenged one of Brenda’s statements with, “Come on!” when she thought Brenda’s work was substandard, leading Brenda to rewrite that particular section. See Table 13. Several students’ exchanges challenged a child’s content or facts about what was written, as in the previous exchange where the conversation focused on whether all of the creatures were warm-blooded or cold-blooded. (See Table 14.) At one point, Amanda became a scaffold for Brenda when she helped her recall the word “predators.” (See Table 13.)

As I reviewed my anecdotal notes, my journal entry, and transcribed the video recordings, I decided to choose clips from the exchanges noted above. I marked the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) student rubric with category 5 on the following indicators: (a) Engaging in Co-reasoning (b) Providing Reasons, and (c) Offering Alternative.

Students were still at a monologic stance, category 1, on Reflecting on Discussion Processes, but they functioned at a category 4 on Connecting With Peers. These students made important shifts toward dialogic conversations over the course of the study.

On the teacher D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubric, the data showed that Mrs. Wood, too, had made significant progress toward dialogic teaching. Her teaching was a category 5 on (a) Sharing the Floor, (b) Dividing Responsibilities, and (c) Asking Open-Ended Questions. While she scored at a one on Monitoring Discussion Processes, she was on the dialogic end of the continuum, at category 4, on (a) Asking Open-Ended Questions, (b) Requesting Reasons, (c) Prompting for Alternatives, (d) Connecting Students' Ideas, and (e) Clarifying Meaning/Summarizing.

In reviewing the Joyce and Showers (2002, p. 102) Levels of Transfer continuum, I noted that Mrs. Wood was able to transfer her knowledge into routine use and perhaps integrated use, in that she was using the concepts with many different activities in the literacy block. Translated into the Snow et al. (2005) continuum on Increasing Progressive Differentiation, Mrs. Wood appeared to be transferring her knowledge into stable, procedural relationships. The conversation and her follow-up exchanges seemed to come naturally to her. Even though she made some evaluative exchanges, most of her follow-up exchanges were geared toward the dialogic end of the continuum. She also responded in a dialogic stance to many differing children's thoughts and exchanges, making her use of knowledge at the "Expert, Adaptive Knowledge" category (Snow et al., 2005).

My goal during Coaching 5 was to ask Mrs. Wood to summarize her experiences with dialogic teaching over the course of the semester. After watching the video clips, she marked both the student and teacher D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubrics. Although she marked her students at the highest end of the dialogic continuum, at category 6, in the first area of Engaging in Co-reasoning, she considered her students' engagement and conversation to be at category 5 on (a) Providing Reasons, (b) Offering Alternatives, and (c) Connecting with Peers. These ratings were within the same range as the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubric I previously marked, on the upper end of the continuum toward dialogic inquiry. On the teacher tool, her markings were more conservative than what she marked after observation 4. She did not give herself any category 6 ratings, but marked her teaching at category 5 on (a) Sharing the Floor, (b) Requesting Reasons, (c) Connecting Students' Ideas, and (d) Clarifying meaning/Summarizing. She was a bit more generous than I was with marking the same rubric, but she was more conservative in ranking her own teaching than she had been in previous coaching sessions. Her rankings may have reflected her increasing ability to objectively analyze her own teaching, which would be a further shift toward the Master Teacher category on the Progressive Differentiation Continuum (Snow et al, 2005). In her journal entry after this meeting, Mrs. Wood wrote that she was surprised how easy it was to turn discussions over to the students. She mentioned that she had more work to do with providing opportunities for talking, but that she felt both she and the students had made significant progress toward dialogic inquiry.

Final observation. One month after observation 5, I returned to Mrs. Wood's classroom for a final observation to determine if there was still evidence of dialogic conversations in children's talk about texts. I once again observed Mrs. Wood's entire reading block where she read a book aloud as a whole group activity. The text was a realistic fiction book entitled *The Christmas Tree Farm* by Ann Purnell (2006), and it describes a young boy who helps his grandfather on a Christmas tree farm. After the children listened and discussed the story, they were to write in their journals what they learned about trees from the story. These activities lasted 58 minutes, during which Mrs. Wood made 24 evaluative statements and she redirected children's behavior 14 times. There were 20 sequences, with 19 of them having dependent exchanges. Again, the read-aloud extended for a lengthy period of time as Mrs. Wood stopped on every page for discussion. However, conversations were extended through Mrs. Wood's use of follow-up moves that led to dependent exchanges.

No child dominated the discussion, but Brandon offered slightly more exchanges than other children. Most of the children's exchanges were categorized at 2 for length and most were literal in nature about the facts of the story. There were only four hypothetical mode exchanges. Juan, who had changed schools earlier in the year, was back in the class, but Brenda had been moved to another teacher's room.

The teacher prefaced the read-aloud by linking it to the students' study of Christmas traditions around the world. Mrs. Wood asked students to think about what

they knew about Christmas trees. In the following exchanges in Table 15, Mrs. Wood does not make evaluative statements and the conversation is extended.

Table 15

Final Observation, Sequence 1

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
1	What do you know about Christmas trees?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
1	Uh, some people they like, they uh, they cut down the trees but sometimes they bring 'em inside instead of outside (referring to the picture on the page). They put a little thing and when it comes out it has a net over it so it would fit on top of their car. People got a little hook through it to connect it to the other side (makes a motion with his fingers).	Brandon	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
1	What do you think?	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	RI
1	There's lights on the tree.	Juan	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	There's animals there.	Zoie	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	There's nothin' but Christmas trees at the farm.	Thomas	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	Uh, uh like a farm is like, a farm is like something can go like, a Christmas tree can look like it, and somebody can cut it down and then they can go decorate it.	Louis	Dep	R	Give	Inform
1	They go to uh a Christmas tree farm and pick a Christmas tree. Like you can get this Christmas tree and decorate it with lots of beautiful stuff.	Christina	Dep	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from "Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse," by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

In the preceding exchange, students were allowed to verbalize their thoughts.

Even though some repeated the content of what others had said, they were participating

in a conversation with other children, and thinking aloud helped solidify their thoughts (Barnes, 1992). (See Table 15.)

Mrs. Wood initiated several exchanges with her own “I wonder” statement, i.e. “I wonder how the trees grow to become different shapes,” and “I wonder why the trees have sticky sap.” These exchanges in Table 16 followed the latter statement from Mrs. Wood and illustrate how students readily responded to each other in ways that negotiated meaning for individual students as well as the group.

Table 16

Final Observation, Sequence 2

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
2	I wonder why the trees have sticky sap.	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
2	To protect them.	Maria	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	Uh, they might uh like, they like put sticky stuff on the tree, it protect their home for the squirrels.	Louis	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
2	The sticky stuff helps the animals, so the sticky helps them, help the tree.	Juan	Nuc	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from “Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse,” by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

Juan’s restating of Louis’ exchange clarified the groups understanding of how the sap can actually act to protect the animals’ home. Maria’s exchange indicated that the sap protects the tree, but the boys were thinking about the usefulness of sap in another way. While this appeared to be a limited extension, nevertheless children were clarifying

their thinking while expanding the possibilities of meaning. Louis, who was considered one of the most at-risk children in the classroom, Juan, who was in the Gifted and Talented Program, and Maria, who was reticent to talk, assisted each other in consolidating the thinking of the group.

After the students participated in writing their thoughts about trees, and Christmas trees in particular, Mrs. Wood asked some to share what they wrote. Table 17 illustrates the variety in students' conversational moves and the ways in which their talk solidifies the group's thinking.

Table 17

Final Observation, Sequence 3

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
3	Will someone share what you wrote?	Wood	Nuc	I	Demand	RI
3	Trees may turn yellow because insects have diseases that will turn them yellow. It will turn them yellow and it will not be good.	Brandon	Nuc	R	Give	Inform
3	I wonder if trees have poison ivy.	Juan	Dep	I	Demand	RO
3	I think it's a vine with those pokey things on it.	Brandon	Dep	R	Give	Opinion
3	I learned that there are types of trees.	Lupe	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	The trees (in the book) remind me of my Christmas tree at home.	Zoie	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	Some trees can be rotten	Thomas	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	Some trees can be big or little	John	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	Animals live in trees.	Maria	Dep	R	Give	Inform

(Continued)

Seq.	Content	Speaker	Exc.	Move	Prosp.	Function
3	Uh, some Christmas trees are um, some Christmas trees are green. Uh, you can buy, um snow and um you can decorate it white.	Eileen	Dep	R	Give	Inform
3	Anybody else? What are you thinking?	Wood	Dep	I	Demand	
3	I learned about if you don't take care of it, it will die.	Christina	Dep	R	Give	Inform

Note: Seq.= Sequence number, Exc. = Type of exchange, Prosp. = Prospectiveness. Adapted from “Coding Scheme for the Analysis of Classroom Discourse,” by G. Wells and Developing Inquiring Communities in Education Project (DICEP), 2001, Bristol, UK: Retrieved from http://people.ucsc.edu/~gwells/Files/Courses_Folder/EDUC251

A diversity of children’s thoughts and language structures were obvious in the preceding exchanges. Some children responded to each other, like Brandon did with Juan. Some students began using the same sentence structure as the previous child, thus enhancing repertoires of responding. John, who Mrs. Wood said had not talked at school in her recent memory, picked up on Thomas’ structure using the word “some,” and he contributed another thought. Then Eileen posited a thought using the same structure word “some” to further enhance the discussion. Eileen’s continued consolidation of her thoughts and language was further evidence that she has practiced talking with her peers and her teacher in dialogic ways. Finally, Maria’s and Christina’s exchanges complemented each other by talking about what they each learned.

Reflection after final observation. The goal of this study was to investigate how coaching a teacher in dialogic inquiry might foster children’s conversations about texts. The final observation was intended for me to evaluate whether any shift toward

dialogic inquiry continued in Mrs. Wood's classroom. As I reviewed my anecdotal notes, my journal entries, and the transcripts, I marked both the student and teacher D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) for the last time. The indicators for the students were all in the dialogic inquiry range except for the category Reflecting on Discussion Processes. As for the teacher's rubric, Mrs. Wood had also shifted her stance toward dialogic inquiry in teaching students how to talk to each other about text. Each category of the rubric was ranked either four or five except for the category Monitoring Discussion Processes. Although Mrs. Wood had shifted most of her interactions toward a dialogic stance, students were not monitoring how they participated in conversations in relationship to other students.

However, Mrs. Wood made significant changes in her conversations with students about texts. She made necessary changes that extended students' talk and thinking, and she allowed students to control conversational exchanges. As Mrs. Wood embraced an inquiry stance toward thinking and talking about texts, both her conversations and those of her students became more dialogic. If I returned for more coaching, I would work with her on discussion processes.

Summary

The chronological progression of data showed that Mrs. Wood embraced the change in her teaching toward dialogic inquiry. My goal in working with Mrs. Wood was to coach her toward initiating a dialogic stance in her conversations with students about texts. Through the process, I wanted to observe both the effectiveness of my

coaching decisions as well as how students' conversations about texts changed as the teacher's stance was shifted toward dialogic inquiry.

At the beginning of the project, Mrs. Wood expressed doubts that her students would be able to sustain meaningful conversations about text. During the initial phase of the study, Mrs. Wood continued to rely on the I-R-F pattern of conversation, with many evaluative exchanges. As I made adjustments to the coaching sessions, Mrs. Wood initiated small shifts towards a dialogic stance, and students had more opportunities to talk to their peers. However, because these shifts did not create significant differences in students' conversations, I made the decision after Observation 3 to model a dialogic conversation through a read-aloud and to provide actual transcripts of Mrs. Wood's classroom interactions during subsequent coaching sessions. I believed that watching her own students, rather than a video of other students, and listening to them participate in a more dialogic discussion would provide Mrs. Wood with some insight into how she might adopt the stance. I also thought that providing transcripts would be indisputable evidence of the conversational exchanges in the classroom.

After seeing the modeled read-aloud, watching video clips of her own teaching, and studying transcripts, Mrs. Wood made two significant changes to her conversational patterns that allowed students to practice exchanges that led to dialogic inquiry: (a) She shifted her follow-up exchanges toward a more dialogic tone, and (b) She allowed students to converse with each other without interruption from her. The significance of her teaching changes seemed to be sustained in the last observation, and Mrs. Wood

appeared to be transferring her knowledge in a variety of circumstances. Mrs. Wood may continue to have a tendency toward evaluative statements in follow-up exchanges, and Wells (1999) argued that the I-R-F pattern with evaluations is sometimes necessary. However, her shift toward dialogic inquiry appeared to extend both students' conversations and their thinking.

In the following chapter, I discuss the progression of Mrs. Wood's teaching along the dialogic continuum and the students' resulting conversational patterns. In answering the research questions, I argue that shifting Mrs. Wood's stance toward dialogic teaching was dependent upon her knowledge base, the degree to which she was able to transfer knowledge and learning, and her expertise in dialogic teaching. Finally, I describe the extent to which students' conversational moves developed along a similar dialogic continuum with relationship to Mrs. Wood's progressions.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the ways in which coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry fosters students' conversations about text. Dialogic inquiry is an approach to conversations with students in which both teachers and children assume an inquiry stance. As students have difficulty understanding what they read, dialogic inquiry becomes critically important. Teachers engage students in open-ended conversations that extend students' talk, and, thus, support negotiated meanings through language. Hence, the more students struggle with understanding what they read, the more they need to engage in purposeful talk. Since research validates a coaching model as an efficient and effective method of professional development, I coached a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry in order to describe how students' talk about texts changed as the teacher assumed an inquiry stance in conversations.

The overarching question was: What happens when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry? The guiding research question was: To what extent does coaching a teacher in dialogic inquiry foster changes in conversations with students about text? In order to answer the overarching question, I analyzed two research questions:

- How do coaching experiences in the use of dialogic inquiry influence a teacher's conversations with students about text?

- How do student contributions to text conversations change when a teacher is coached in the use of dialogic inquiry?

In answering Research Question 1, I discuss how the coaching sessions influenced Mrs. Wood's dialogic stance toward classroom conversations about texts. Increasing the levels of intensity of the coaching sessions influenced Mrs. Wood's knowledge base, thereby increasing the levels at which transfer of her knowledge and training occurred. Through practicing more dialogic stances in her conversations, Mrs. Wood consolidated her theoretical understandings about dialogic inquiry and became a more adaptive expert.

In answering Research Question 2, I argue that as Mrs. Wood's conversational stances shifted toward dialogic inquiry, students' conversations also became more dialogic. Further, I discuss how the progression of students' stances throughout the duration of the study changed in terms of the quality of their responses.

Finally, I discuss the implications of findings of this study in light of current teaching and professional development practices, directions for further research, and final thoughts.

Research Question 1

How do Coaching Experiences in the Use of Dialogic Inquiry Influence a Teacher's Conversations with Students About Text?

In this section, I discuss findings related to ways in which a teacher's conversations with students about text changed after being coached in the use of dialogic

inquiry. First, I provide my rationales for increasing the intensity of coaching sessions, followed by a description of how Mrs. Wood's knowledge base, including her theoretical understandings, developed over time. Then, I discuss how her increasing transfer of knowledge and learning influenced her shifting stance toward her expertise in dialogic teaching. Finally, I provide a summary of Mrs. Wood's reflexive journal to provide evidence that as Mrs. Wood's knowledge base and theoretical understandings shifted, she realized the importance of her stance toward dialogic inquiry.

Intensity of Coaching Sessions

The intensity of the coaching sessions is dependent upon both the level of trust between the teacher and coach and the amount of time allotted for the coaching experiences. In planning the coaching sessions initially, I decided to use video recordings as a means of asking Mrs. Wood to reflect on her practice. Robertson et al. (2014) would have defined this practice as being toward the less intensive side of the Coaching Continuum. (See Figure 3.)

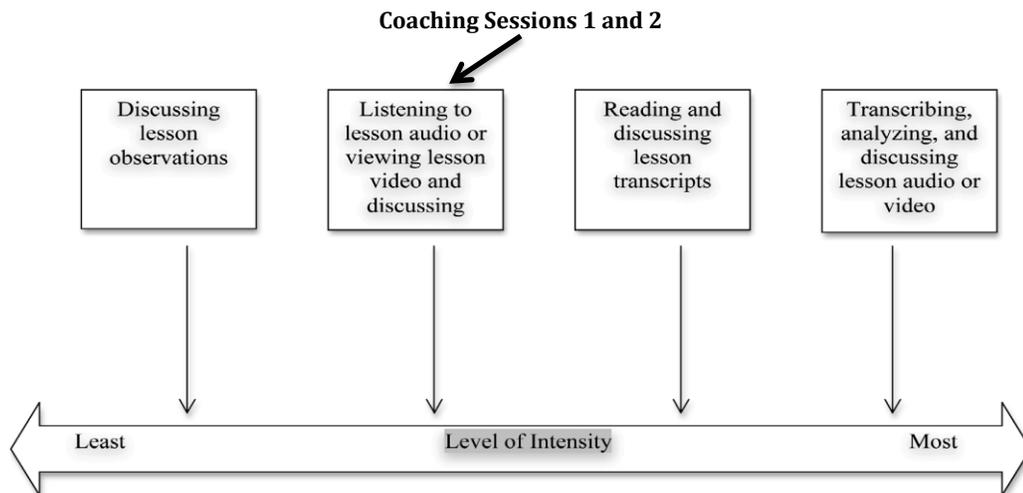


Figure 3. Intensity of coaching sessions 1 and 2. Note: Adapted from Robertson, D, Ford-Connors, D., & Paratore, J. (2014). Coaching Continuum. In *Coaching Teachers' Talk during Vocabulary and Comprehension Instruction, Language Arts, 91(4)*, 416-428.

I felt that viewing and discussing video recordings, while not the least intensive coaching strategy according to Robertson et al. (2014), was appropriate, given both our newly-formed collegial relationship as well as the time constraints of the coaching sessions within the school day. During the initial coaching session, Mrs. Wood and I easily established a consensus of opinions when viewing other teachers' monologic and dialogic conversations with students, so I believed that Mrs. Wood would recognize the characteristics of those stances in her own teaching.

The first two observations in Mrs. Wood's classroom reflected similar conversational patterns, with her talk functioning heavily toward the monologic side of the Dialogic-Inquiry-Tool (Reznitskaya et al., 2011). (See Appendix B). During the first

coaching session, I realized that Mrs. Wood was not analyzing her teaching but was concentrating on the students' lack of dialogic discourse in conversations. She remarked that their monologic stances were the result of what she perceived to be deficits in their oral language. Therefore, for the second coaching session, I kept the same level of intensity, but changed to a strategy of examining the students' D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011), before that of the teacher. (See Appendix C.) I hoped that by analyzing the children's conversations and stances first, Mrs. Wood might more readily make a correlation between the children's stances and her own conversational patterns.

However, after the second coaching session, I realized that Mrs. Wood continued to analyze her own stance in conversations toward the dialogic side of the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2014) while viewing her students more toward the monologic end. She did not appear to realize the correlation between her conversational patterns and those of her students. As a result, I decided to increase the intensity of the coaching sessions by having Mrs. Wood study transcripts of her classroom conversations in addition to viewing video recordings. (See Figure 4.)

discuss in a later section of this chapter specifically how her conversations changed. However, the process of reviewing data from two perspectives, video recordings and transcripts, provided concrete evidence of the relationship between Mrs. Wood's talk and that of her students and served as a catalyst for her to develop more of a dialogic stance in her conversations with students about texts.

In concert with considering the level of intensity of the coaching sessions, I also considered Mrs. Wood's knowledge base concerning dialogic inquiry and how, through coaching, I could increase the likelihood that transfer of knowledge and learning would occur. Joyce and Showers (2002) argued that theoretical knowledge is required to ensure transfer of learning, and I needed to provide coaching experiences with that end in mind. In the following section, I discuss Mrs. Wood's knowledge base regarding dialogic inquiry and how, as her knowledge base increased toward theoretical understandings of dialogic teaching, the data indicate that transfer of learning also occurred.

Knowledge Base and Levels of Transfer

While researchers agree that a coaching model of professional development is one of the most efficient methods for ensuring transfer of learning (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Hammerness et al., 2005; Joyce & Showers, 2005; Moran, 2007), the effectiveness of the model also depends upon the coaching strategies and tools used. As coaches consider the level of intensity of coaching sessions, they must also take into consideration characteristics of teachers. Moran (2007) insisted that both teachers' knowledge bases as

well as the degree to which they transfer knowledge and learning should be primary considerations in shaping coaching opportunities.

Initially, Mrs. Wood was not familiar with dialogic teaching, although she had some experience with inquiry learning through teaching science. She also had participated in a school-wide initiative to study the importance of oral language in students' literacy achievement. Therefore, during the initial coaching session, Mrs. Wood and I had a conversation about inquiry learning and how students' talk provided a vehicle for helping children negotiate deeper understandings about texts. I showed Mrs. Wood the Joyce and Showers (2002) scale of Levels of Transfer (See Appendix D) and the Snow et al. (2005) continuum (See Appendix E) and explained to her that I would use them to guide the planning of our coaching sessions. The two scales are reciprocal in that the five levels within each scale complement each other. For example, Level 1 on the Joyce and Showers (2002) scale, indicating imitative use of training, is consistent with the first level of knowledge building, declarative knowledge (Snow et al., 2005). As teachers learn the constructs of a new innovation, they imitate ways in which they have viewed the process as being successful.

Initially, Mrs. Wood had declarative knowledge about dialogic inquiry. She was able to recognize dialogic conversations, but she was not yet adept at transferring the training to her own practice, probably because theoretical understandings were lacking. She transferred knowledge from imitative use to mechanical and routine use. The video recordings of other teachers that I used during the first three coaching sessions showed

conversations with students in whole group and individual settings. Consistent with mechanical and routine transfer of learning, Mrs. Wood began initiating routine procedures during the observations: (a) she chose books for conversations that were similar to those in the sample video recordings; (b) she imitated the format for dialogic conversations that she saw on example video recordings by having student share their thinking in pairs; and (c) she conferred with individual students about their books. While Mrs. Wood was transferring literal-level understandings, her theoretical constructs for dialogic inquiry were not established. Her knowledge was stable, situated, and procedural. Because Mrs. Wood was not progressing along the continua to integrated use of a dialogic stance, I made adjustments to the coaching intensity and provided a model of a dialogic conversation through a read-aloud activity with her class.

Following the modeled read-aloud, Mrs. Wood began transferring knowledge in an integrated way, and she chose two critical attributes of dialogic conversations that she had deemed important as a practice to establish in her own dialogic conversations with her students: (a) she changed the function of her follow-up moves to initiate dependent exchanges, and (b) she increased her wait time before responding to students' conversational moves. Mrs. Wood's identification and implementation of the characteristics she found useful was indicative that she was beginning to establish her own theoretical understandings of dialogic inquiry. As Mrs. Wood experienced success with having her students provide more dialogic contributions to text conversations, she continued to integrate the ways in which she allowed students to converse with each

other. She also showed greater levels of expertise as she incorporated writing about reading and having students share their thinking in groups into the process of extending dialogic conversations. As Mrs. Wood assimilated her knowledge of dialogic inquiry into her routines for teaching practices, she began to adapt her conversational moves in ways that supported more students' thinking and talking.

In the fifth observation and the final observation, the trend of assimilating dialogic conversations into Mrs. Wood's existing practices continued. She integrated the use of her knowledge about dialogic inquiry into using various genres of texts. She also allowed students to share the floor in genuine dialogue when conversing about texts. While it was not clear that Mrs. Wood was reflectively analyzing her students' conversations, she became adept at adaptive knowledge (Snow et al., 2005). This level on the Snow et al. (2005) continuum is compatible with Level 4, integration, on the Joyce and Showers (2002) Scale of Transfer. Mrs. Wood clearly demonstrated that she had a developing knowledge base about dialogic teaching and inquiry to the extent that she was expanding her theoretical understanding and transferring her knowledge into existing systems of her practice. Figure 5 below is based on the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) and shows the percentage of indicators that reflected Mrs. Wood's dialogic stance throughout the course of this study. Her dramatic shift toward dialogic inquiry is evident after the third observation and provides evidence that she transferred her knowledge and training into practice. Interestingly, rather than Mrs. Wood shifting her dialogic stance

gradually and over time, she displayed dialogic indicators in her practice all at once, beginning in the fourth observation.

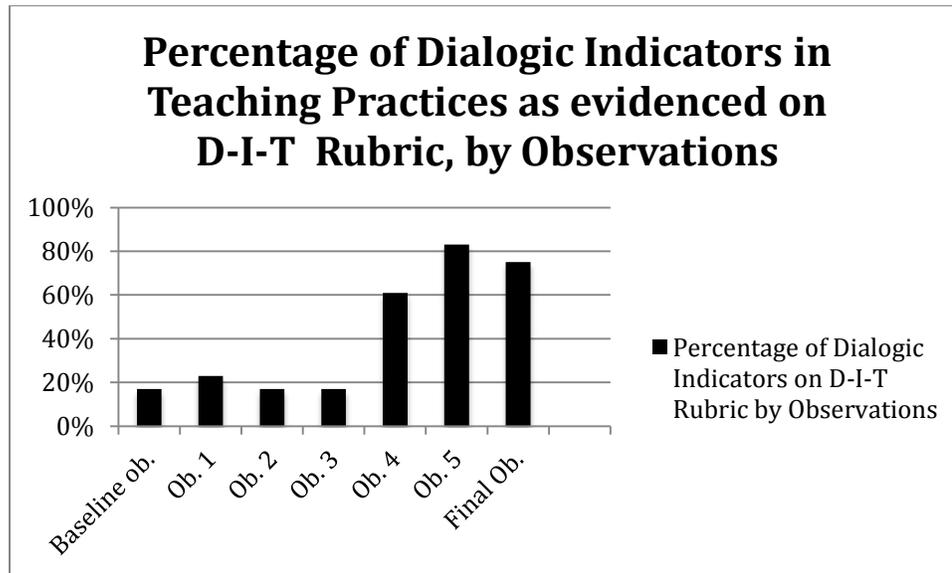


Figure 5. Percentage of Dialogic Indicators in Teaching Practices as evidenced on D-I-T Rubric, by observations.

In the following two sections I describe how the coaching tools provided evidence of Mrs. Wood’s increasing dialogic stance. First, I discuss how the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) functioned as a reflective tool. Then I discuss how the Joyce and Showers (2002) Levels of Transfer scale and the Snow et al. (2005) Levels of Progressive Differentiation provided additional evidence that Mrs. Wood assimilated dialogic inquiry into her teaching routines.

Evidence of shifting stances: Dialogic Inquiry Tool. When the study began and through the second coaching session, Mrs. Wood viewed her own teaching as being dialogically oriented. Even though she could watch a video of someone else teaching and

mark the rubric appropriately with regard to dialogic conversations in the initial coaching session, I believe that she read the teachers' D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) while asking herself if she "ever" exhibited those qualities in her teaching rather than using the video evidence of her own teaching example that day. Also, I could not discern during the first coaching session if Mrs. Wood was marking the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) in a cursory manner. She marked all of her indicators in the middle of the continuum for all indicators, and she did so rather quickly. Her marks were toward the monologic end of the continuum, but, nevertheless, they were within the middle range. At the second coaching session, however, she marked her own teaching on the extreme monologic end on three indicators (a) Asking Open-Ended Questions, (b) Monitoring Discussion Processes, and (c) Clarifying Meaning/Summarizing. As researchers note, the most important aspect of shifting teachers' behaviors is having them understand what dialogic teaching is, and whether or not it is present in their own teaching (Robertson et al., 2014; Wells, 1999). While I saw some shift in Mrs. Wood's understanding in the second coaching session, afterward I made the decision to increase the level of intensity, as previously discussed, in hopes of helping her establish theoretical understandings. Consequently, during the third coaching session, she used the transcripts as she was marking her D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) and she marked all indicators toward the monologic end of the continuum. Therefore, the increase in intensity appears responsible for initiating a shift in Mrs. Wood's recognition of dialogic inquiry.

Beginning with the fourth coaching session and continuing through the fifth session, Mrs. Wood made significant shifts toward a dialogic stance in her conversations with students. It became obvious from viewing video recordings and studying transcripts that transfer of learning was taking place, and both Mrs. Wood and I independently marked the teacher's D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) rubrics on the dialogic end of the continuum for seven out of the eight indicators. The transcripts indicated that students were not commenting on each other's reasoning, so we both marked that indicator of the D-I-T on the monologic end for both the fourth and fifth observations. As Mrs. Wood's students engaged in meaningful conversations about texts with her and with each other, I believe that Mrs. Wood recognized that her dialogic stance allowed students to explore their own thinking through talk.

The final observation did not include a coaching session, but I wanted to determine if Mrs. Wood was still using a dialogic stance toward classroom conversations after a longer interval, one month. On the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al, 2014), Mrs. Wood's exchanges with students were on the dialogic end of the continuum in every indicator except, again, having students commenting on each other's reasoning.

Both Mrs. Wood and I had evidence that her stance shifted toward a dialogic stance in conversations with her students about text. Therefore, I wanted to investigate how her levels of expertise changed as well. The next section highlights significant changes in Mrs. Wood's teaching that indicate her level of expertise in leading dialogic discussions about texts was changing.

Evidence of shifting stances: Levels of expertise. As previously discussed, I used the Joyce & Showers (2005) Levels of Transfer rubric and the Snow et al (2005) Levels of Progressive Differentiation to help me during the study as I planned for each coaching session. However, as I analyzed Mrs. Wood’s shifts in expertise, I used the Schwartz et al. (2005) conceptualization of the levels of expertise that included the four quadrants of expertise: (a) novice, (b) frustrated novice, (c) routine expert, and (d) adaptive expert. (See Figure 6.) As discussed earlier, Schwartz et al. (2005) included the definitions of routine expert and adaptive expert as defined by Hatano and Ignaki (1986), and they added two more categories, the novice and the frustrated novice, to describe teachers who are not efficient.

The diagonal space on Figure 6 below is a conceptualization of an “adaptability corridor” (Schwartz et al., 2005, pp. 1-51) that reflects how teacher’s expertise can shift toward becoming more adaptable by including a blend of both efficiency and innovation. The idea is to retain efficiency while increasing innovation, and, conversely, to retain innovation while becoming more efficient.

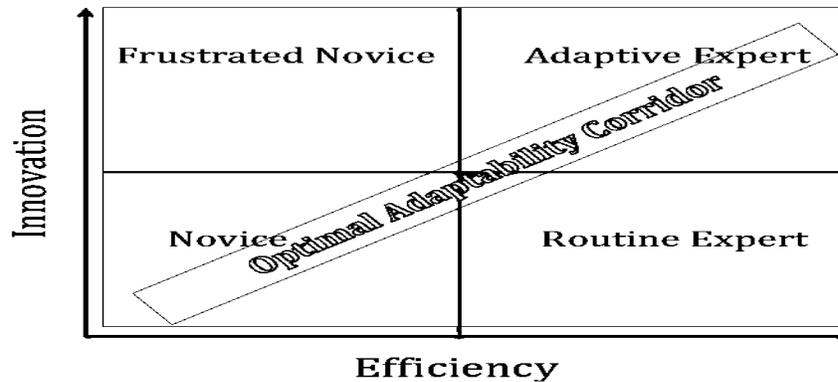


Figure 6. Levels of Expertise—Optimal Adaptability Corridor. *Note:* Adapted from Schwartz, Bransford, & Sears. (2005). Efficiency and Innovation in Transfer. *Transfer of Learning from a Modern Multidisciplinary Perspective (Chapter 1)*. Information Age Publishing, Charlotte, NC.

Based on Mrs. Wood’s knowledge of dialogic inquiry initially, she was neither efficient nor innovative. Mrs. Wood had no previous plan about where to stop for discussions during read-alouds, nor did she have a pre-planned way to initiate discussion. For read-aloud discussions to be efficient, the teacher should stop no more than two or three times in order to focus the discussion and to allow time during the discussions for children to fully develop their ideas (Fountas & Pinnell, 2007; Holdaway, 1979). If teachers have no plan, the read-aloud can continue for lengthy periods of time. This characteristic certainly held true in this case, because Mrs. Wood’s read-alouds initially spanned 45 minutes or more, thus allowing time for students to exhibit many off-task behaviors. Additionally, Mrs. Wood did not use an innovative way to have students talk

about texts. Student comments about *Miss Nelson is Missing* (Allard, 1985) were redundant and lacked originality of thought. The children seemed bored, disengaged, or they were engaging in inappropriate behavior. Based on Mrs. Wood's stance during this text conversation, she was in the novice quadrant of expertise during the baseline observation.

Beginning with the third observation, I felt that Mrs. Wood was shifting to the quadrant of routine expert. She was still not using innovative techniques, but she began to become more efficient with the use of time during that lesson. The read-aloud and shared reading were more focused, shorter, and students did not practice as much off-task behavior. After Mrs. Wood watched the modeled lesson, she then began shifting toward more innovative teaching. She began asking more open-ended questions, and she was able to think more dialogically "on the run" as she was initiating conversations with her students about texts. The modeled read-aloud seemed to help Mrs. Wood link routine teaching practices with her theoretical understandings.

During the fourth, fifth, and the final observations, Mrs. Wood showed evidence of becoming more efficient and innovative in her discussions with students about texts. She was more strategic with her use of time by only stopping a few times during the readings, and she was becoming more innovative by: (a) sharing the floor with students, (b) allowing students to freely engage in discussions, (c) asking open-ended questions, (d) selectively probing for students to talk about their thinking, (e) making an effort to invite multiple interpretations, (f) connecting students' ideas during discussions, and (g)

asking students to restate and further clarify their ideas. These indicators on the teacher's D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011) all shifted toward the dialogic end of the continuum, and they provide evidence that the coaching sessions were successful in helping Mrs. Wood develop a dialogic stance in conversations with her students about texts.

The following sections describe how Mrs. Wood's conversations changed toward a dialogic stance.

Evidence of shifting stances: Dependent exchanges. Wells (1999) argued that a characteristic of dialogic discussion is that the teacher initiates more dependent exchanges. During the baseline observation, about 33% of the exchanges contained a dependent exchange, and Mrs. Wood initiated all of them. However, during the first observation, when Mrs. Wood had individual conferences with her students about the books they were reading independently, about 53% of the sequences had a dependent exchange. I attributed this to the fact that Mrs. Wood was meeting individually with each child, creating a more personal, collaborative environment for conversation. As Wells (1999) discussed, the dynamics and size of the group influence the degree to which discussion takes a more conversational, or dialogic, turn. Smaller groups are more conducive to authentic, dialogic conversations. Even though Mrs. Wood had quite a few dependent exchanges during the first observation, the questions were still at a literal level. During the second observation where Mrs. Wood again did a whole group read-aloud, only eight out of 50 sequences, 16%, contained a dependent exchange. In the third observation, Mrs. Wood had the children discuss two texts, a read-aloud and a shared

reading. During the read-aloud, there were 44 sequences with only two having dependent exchanges. There were 31 sequences, with only three having dependent exchanges, in the shared reading. Moreover, during the third observation, only 6% of the total conversational sequences contained dependent exchanges. Mrs. Wood initiated each one, and the pattern of I-R-F with evaluative follow up moves was still prevalent in the conversations. However, I began to see a shift in each of the dependent exchanges as Mrs. Wood asked for students to extend the conversation by including the following statements in a few of her follow-up moves:

Can you say more about that?

Add to what (child's name) just said.

What do you think?

After I modeled how to initiate dialogic conversation in a read-aloud activity for Mrs. Wood, her stance changed toward initiating dialogic conversations. The total number of sequences in conversations declined because there were many more dependent exchanges. During the fourth observation, there were 25 dependent exchanges in a total of 34 sequences, or 74% of Mrs. Wood's follow-up moves functioned to initiate a dependent exchange. In observation five, there were only 21 total sequences with twelve containing dependent exchanges. So, 57% of the sequences had dependent exchanges in the fifth observation. As I thought about possible reasons for the tremendous rise during observation four and the subsequent slight lowering of dependent exchanges in observation five, I surmised that because the text in lesson four was fiction, it was more

conducive to a dialogic stance. In observation five, Mrs. Wood read the rest of the non-fiction, shared-reading book that students had started in observation three. As Lotman (1988) posited, teachers have more difficulty taking a dialogic stance with texts in the nonfiction genre. Lotman (1988) explained that teachers tend to view non-fiction texts as a rich source of factual information. Thus, conversations with students tend to be directed toward a monologic stance of simply reading to gain information. However, even in this fifth observation, Mrs. Wood's stance was still toward the dialogic end of the D-I-T (Reznitskaya et al., 2011), and she initiated more dependent exchanges than in any of the first three observations. Mrs. Wood's change of stance toward initiating dialogic conversations with her students was a result of the increase in intensity of the coaching sessions.

After one month, I made a final observation. Mrs. Wood continued her dialogic stance in conversations with students about texts. She frequently asked students,

“What do you think?”

“How can you tell?”

These initiations were used to analyze the author's purpose and more complex inferential thinking that spurred students' conversations. Mrs. Wood did not focus on facts, but the facts were included in discussions. Lotman (1988) insisted that the change toward a dialogic stance in conversations with students about nonfiction texts is critical to engage students' thinking and that many teachers have great difficulty accomplishing the shift that Mrs. Wood demonstrated in this conversation.

During the last two observations, Mrs. Wood had shifted her conversations with students about text toward a dialogic stance, and she sustained the effort after the conclusion of the coaching sessions. Figure 7 depicts the dramatic rise of the number of dependent exchanges in classroom conversations during the final three observations.

Mrs. Wood's transfer of knowledge and learning with regard to dialogic inquiry is a direct result of my modeling a dialogic conversation with her students as well as my decision to increase the level of intensity of the coaching sessions. As Mrs. Wood noted a change in my follow-up moves during conversations, she began to initiate those same features in her own follow-up moves. Consequently, there was a dramatic rise in the number of dependent exchanges during the fourth, fifth, and final observations. Through both my modeling and using transcripts during coaching sessions, Mrs. Wood defined critical components of initiating dialogic inquiry with students and she could determine how her own conversations needed to change.

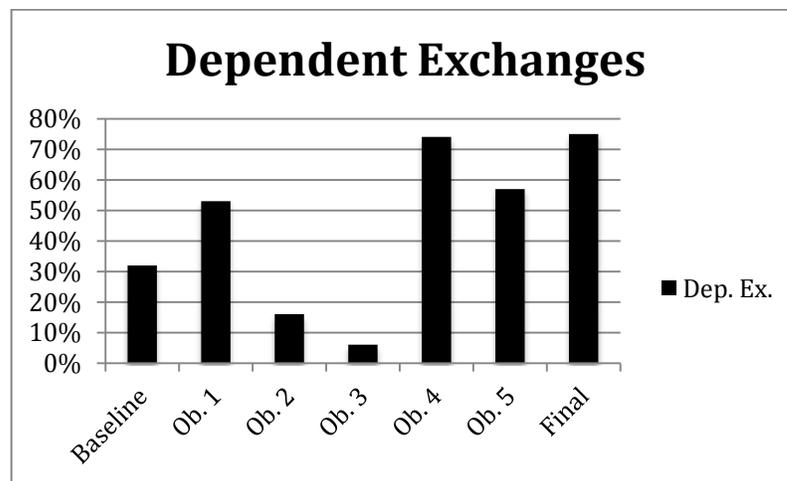


Figure 7. Dependent exchanges.

Patterns of Teacher's Conversation

In this section, I discuss the teacher's contributions to texts from two perspectives, and then I summarize how each move either contributes or inhibits a dialogic stance.

Wells (1999) maintained that the teacher exerts control of conversational exchanges and influences the talk toward a monologic or dialogic stance by at least two aspects of her teacher talk: (a) the prospectiveness of each teacher's conversational move, and (b) the teacher's initiating moves and follow-up moves.

Prospectiveness. As previously discussed in Chapter 4, prospectiveness is a general principle of conversational exchanges. The "demand" move is the strongest prospective move because it informs the listener that a response, a "give" move, is expected (Wells, 1999, p. 246). The "give" move is less prospective than the "demand" because it does not require a response (Wells, 1999, p. 246). The least prospective move is "acknowledge" (Wells, 1999, p. 246). It always occurs in response to a more prospective move, but it requires no response in return (Wells, 1999, p. 246).

The second principle of prospectiveness in conversational moves is that, at any point after the initiating move, a conversational participant can increase the prospectiveness of the current move so that it, in turn, expects or requires a response (Wells, 1999). Hence, increasing the prospectiveness of a move, after an initiating move, serves to initiate a dependent exchange and extends the conversation with some idea or aspect of the preceding exchange (Wells, 1999). Further, any person in the conversation can increase the prospectiveness by initiating a dependent exchange (Wells, 1999). After

the modeled read-aloud, Mrs. Wood began increasing the prospectiveness of her follow-up moves by asking for further thinking or clarification. She also began initiating sequences with open-ended questions, thus extending the possibilities for dialogic conversations. Also noteworthy is the fact that Mrs. Wood withheld evaluative comments in her follow-up moves by increasing the time between a student's contribution and her next conversational move. Thus, conversations were left open for longer periods of time so that students participated more readily.

In summary, Mrs. Wood exploited the use of prospectiveness in her conversational moves to increase a dialogic stance toward conversations with students about texts. The number of occasions that Mrs. Wood increased the prospectiveness in her follow-up moves reflects the same percentages of dependent exchanges, per observation, outlined in Figure 7, and this change in her conversational pattern was a direct result of coaching. Increasing the intensity of the coaching sessions, coupled with providing a model of a dialogic conversation with Mrs. Wood's own students, precipitated the changes in Mrs. Wood's conversations.

Teacher's initiating moves and follow-up moves. In dialogic conversations different participants initiate conversations and control is equally shared. During the duration of this study, Mrs. Wood almost always initiated conversations with her students about texts, in all contexts of whole group, small group, and individual settings. She held to a strong Initiate-Respond-Follow-up pattern of interaction throughout the first three observations, with evaluation being the function of the follow-up move. Beginning with

the fourth observation and continuing throughout the study, while Mrs. Wood still initiated conversations and students continued to answer in response, her follow-up exchanges changed in both prospectiveness and function. This change resulted from her coaching experiences of watching a modeled dialogic conversation as well as from an increase in the level of intensity of coaching. Instead of providing evaluation as a function of the follow-up exchange, Mrs. Wood used the follow-up as a way to extend or clarify the conversation. Hence, she created dependent exchanges that led to more dialogic conversations. Her follow-up moves most often asked for students' thoughts in the latter observations. Sometimes she asked students to clarify their understandings, and sometimes she made a statement that extended the conversation. For example, Mrs. Wood made several *I wonder* statements as her follow-up move during observations four and five, causing students to offer a variety of responses and increasing dependent exchanges.

Mrs. Wood also remained more neutral in her expressions during observations four and five, giving students more opportunity to think about what they were saying to each other rather than thinking about whether their answers would be evaluated. As Mrs. Wood increased prospectiveness and function of her follow-up moves, conversations were extended. Equally important is the fact that as students began to converse more, Mrs. Wood allowed them ample time to complete their thoughts.

Reflexive Journal Data

Mrs. Wood's initial journal entries were indicative that she was a novice to dialogic inquiry. She commented that she was providing dialogic talk but that her students were having difficulty with discussing texts. She also wrote that she was unsure if they would be able to participate in such sophisticated conversations. While Mrs. Wood noted that she was happy to learn a new strategy for increasing conversations, she mentioned that she was providing dialogic talk but her students were not engaging. After the modeled read aloud, Mrs. Wood recognized the shift in her students' talk, and she commented that they were beginning to become more reflective in their conversations. She noted that she should increase wait time to allow students more opportunities to participate in conversations and that she needed to provide more open-ended questions. After observation four, Mrs. Wood wrote that she was happy that students' responses were longer and that children seemed more engaged. She also made a comment about the ways in which the students' behavior was improving. This may be due to the fact that the read-aloud was shorter, or it may be that children were more interested in relevant talk. Mrs. Wood commented in her journal after the fifth coaching session that she was really seeing how her own teaching was becoming more dialogic. In her final entry, Mrs. Wood indicated that she was proud of her students for their participation in more sophisticated conversations.

Mrs. Wood's reflexive journal entries provide triangulation of data sources and lends credibility and trustworthiness to the findings of this study.

Summary of Findings from Research Question 1

In summary, Research Question 1 was: How do coaching experiences in the use of dialogic inquiry influence a teacher's conversations with students about text? The level of intensity of the coaching sessions is of major importance (Robertson et al., 2014). The Coaching Continuum (Robertson et al., 2014) guides coaches to tailor the work with teachers in order to meet individual needs and interests. As I increased the level of intensity, Mrs. Wood began to respond with more reflexive and critical thinking, thereby increasing her theoretical understanding.

Based on Mrs. Wood's first three observations, I believe she was having difficulty making a shift in her thinking toward the paradigm of dialogic instruction and, hence, conversations about texts. However, I was surprised by how quickly she made a shift and how well she managed to initiate dependent exchanges, which extended conversations in a meaningful way. All data sources indicate that the coaching sessions were successful in helping Mrs. Wood incorporate a dialogic stance into conversations about texts with her students.

Research Question 2: How do Student Contributions to Text Conversations

Change When a Teacher is Coached in the Use of Dialogic Inquiry?

Students' talk about texts varied in relationship to Mrs. Wood's monologic or dialogic conversational stances. Hence, characteristics of their conversations can also be grouped into three distinct categories: (a) conversations before the modeled read-aloud; (b) conversations during the read-aloud of the *Memory String* (Bunting, 2000), which was

part of the coaching experience; and (c) conversations after the read-aloud. In each of the following sections, I describe characteristics of students' talk during the three observational periods: (a) length of responses, (b) use of hypothetical mode, (c) function of moves, and (d) overriding patterns of responding.

Conversations Before the Read-Aloud: Monologic Stance

The first group of conversations, the first, second, and third observations, had similar characteristics with regard to students' talk as they participated in a strong, monologic, I-R-F (Wells, 1999) conversational pattern initiated by Mrs. Wood. A monologic discourse pattern in classrooms precludes students from negotiating meaning through conversation, and it is not effective in providing opportunities for children to talk and think deeply about texts. Also, because the teacher used evaluation as the function of her follow-up moves in the I-R-F conversational pattern, students' responses were short and literal in nature. Overall, students' responses functioned to answer the rapid-fire questions posed by their teacher. Children answered chorally many times with the answers "yes" or "no" in response to most of Mrs. Wood's polar-opposite questions.

Length of response. During the baseline, first, second, and third observations, all students in the study participated in conversations. However, as time progressed from the baseline observation to the third observation, most students became less willing to talk. I surmised that students might be less engaged in conversations either because they were not successful in answering correctly as Mrs. Wood continued with an I-R-F pattern, that they might not be interested in the quickly shifting topics of conversation, or that they

might not understand the rapid-fire questions. Only Louis, Amanda, Natalie, and Brandon consistently volunteered throughout the first group of observations. John never volunteered, Zoie rarely offered comments, and Eileen became more hesitant with each observation. The Hispanic girls in the class, Maria and Christina, became increasingly more silent, rarely offering any comments voluntarily.

As teachers practice using an I-R-F (Wells, 1999) conversational pattern with evaluative follow-up moves, student responses will, necessarily, adhere to a pattern of one-word or short phrase answers. During the first group of observations, the length of all student responses was overwhelmingly categorized as a 1 for length, indicating that students generally contributed no more than a short phrase to classroom conversational exchanges. In fact, during the baseline observation and subsequent three observations, only one conversational move could be categorized as a 3 in length. In other words, out of approximately six hours of classroom conversations about text, only one child offered one conversational move that consisted of a main clause and a dependent clause. Louis, who dominated most classroom conversations, offered the most lengthy response as he was talking to a peer during the final moments of the third observation. In that move, Louis had many hesitations, indicating that he was groping with exploratory talk (Barnes, 1992), but he managed to complete his thought with an extended response of four clauses. An increase in length of students' responses provides evidence that they are extending their thoughts through talk, and Louis' exploratory talk is indicative of his

struggle to wrap words around his thinking. Barnes (1992) described this talk as being necessary as students learn how to manage expressing their thoughts through language.

Eighty-seven percent of students' responding moves during the baseline observation were rated as a 1 in length. During the first observation, Mrs. Wood conferred individually with students about texts they were reading independently. Hence, more students' response moves, 43%, were ranked in category 2 for length, with the remaining 57% of responses categorized as category 1. The framework of the activity was probably responsible for the shift toward longer student response moves. As the group size becomes smaller, conversational exchanges tend to become more personal and, thus, more dialogic in nature (Barnes, 1992; Wells, 1999). Even though Mrs. Wood continued with I-R-F conversational patterns, students contributed more talk because the one-on-one conversations were more conducive to student's participation. During the second observation, there was a spike in the number of short response moves from students. Eighty five percent were categorized as 1 in length, probably because the lesson's goal was to have students identify, or name, nonfiction text features, a literal task. In this situation, the curriculum may have actually served to dissuade student talk, with short answers becoming appropriate as students' responded to the teacher's literal-level questions. This pattern continued into the third observation as Mrs. Wood continued her focus on nonfiction text features. Again, the teacher's I-R-F conversational pattern was firmly established as Mrs. Wood asked children to identify, or name, text features. Consequently, 95% of student conversational moves were categorized as 1 in

length. Figure 8 shows the predominance of short student responses during the first group of observations. As Lotman (1988) maintained, nonfiction texts lend themselves to more monologic discussions. In this study, those findings are validated, and suggest that teachers need coaching to use dialogic inquiry specifically with nonfiction texts.

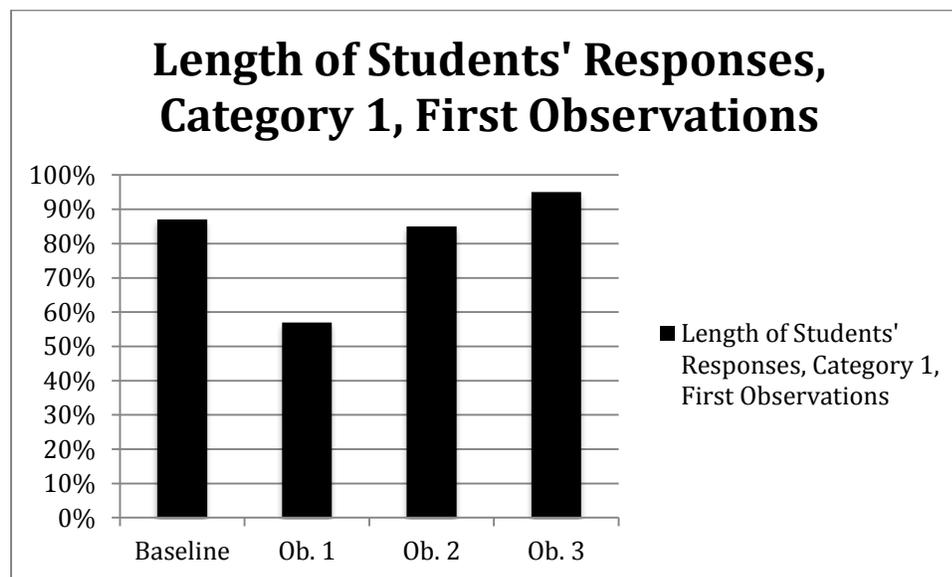


Figure 8. Length of students' responses, category 1, first observations

Interestingly, as Mrs. Wood had more authentic conversations in individual conferences with her students during the first observation, students' responses became longer. Mrs. Wood's I-R-F pattern of conversation may have been the major factor in precluding students' more comprehensive talking about texts, although the curriculum goals may have also been a contributing factor in sustaining short student responses.

Hypothetical mode. Because students' responses were brief, few children extended their thinking through hypothetical wonderings. The hypothetical mode in children's conversations provides evidence that students are thinking creatively,

inferentially, and analytically as opposed to literal-level, linear thinking. As children think hypothetically, they are able to transform themselves from their present and literal realities into new possibilities of meaning. Barnes (1992) deemed the hypothetical mode of students' conversations as a key component of dialogic talk.

Consistent with Wells's (1999) findings regarding how the teacher's I-R-F discourse pattern lends itself to literal-level, short response answers, Mrs. Wood's students most often answered questions with an answer that she could then evaluate as either being right or wrong. These literal-level questions lend themselves to literal student responses and thereby preclude children's deeper thinking through hypothetical talk. The majority of students' hypothetical talk during the first group of observations occurred during the second observation, with 2% of responses qualifying as hypothetical talk. During the baseline observation only 1 student response was hypothetical in nature, and in the first and third observations, no student responses were classified as being in the hypothetical mode. Amanda, Louis, and Natalie contributed the hypothetical moves during the first group of observations. Interestingly, their responses were also categorized in the longer responses lengths. The trend toward literal-level student responses is predictable, given the strong I-R-F conversational pattern and the brevity of students' response moves.

Function of students' conversational moves. Overwhelmingly, the function of students' conversation during the first observations was to respond to Mrs. Wood's demand moves. Even when talking with their peers, student moves were "gives" in

prospectiveness, indicating they were merely reciting what they thought or wrote in response to Mrs. Wood's assignment. Students did not initiate exchanges nor did they participate in any reciprocal conversations. Rather, students practiced a monologic stance themselves, participating in classroom conversations only to meet the conversational demands of the teacher.

First Observations Summary: Patterns of Students' Responding

During the first group of observations, the baseline, first, second, and third observations, students practiced a monologic stance in their conversations about texts in direct relationship to Mrs. Wood's monologic stance. There was no evidence that students were (a) engaging in co-reasoning, (b) providing reasons for their thinking, (c) offering alternatives during conversations, (d) reflecting on the group's discussion processes, or (e) connecting with their peers in authentic conversations. Student responses were generally short in length, literal in nature, and functioned only to answer Mrs. Wood's questions.

Modeled Dialogic Conversation with Read-Aloud

During the modeled dialogic conversation in the read-aloud activity, my purpose was to provide a clear example of how to initiate a dialogic stance in conversations about texts through changing the function and the prospectiveness of my follow-up moves. I used the follow-up moves to initiate dependent exchanges, and students responded with a shift in the quality of their conversations.

Students participated in the conversation evenly, and no one student dominated the conversation. The majority of students' response moves, 52%, were categorized as 2 in length, and students began shifting toward a hypothetical mode in their talk. Over half of their conversational moves extended thinking through hypothetical wonderings. Because I used follow-up moves to initiate further discussion, students' talk functioned in several different ways. Many student conversational moves functioned to justify their own thoughts, to clarify the meaning of an individual, or to challenge the thinking of their peers.

In summary, within this one short read-aloud, students' participation in conversations had shifted toward more of a dialogic stance.

Observations 4, 5, and Final Observation

During the fourth, fifth, and the final observation, Mrs. Wood made and sustained a dramatic shift toward initiating dialogic conversations. As she practiced changing the function and prospectiveness of her follow-up moves, the quality of students' responses reciprocally improved.

Length of responses. The shift toward more lengthy student responses was dramatically apparent in the last group of observations. Forty-four percent of students' responses were classified as 2 or 3 in length during the fourth observation. Seventy-five percent were in the same categories in the fifth observation, and 59% were classified as 2 or 3 in the final observation. More students contributed responses, even though Louis still continued to contribute in the majority of exchanges. Those who had been the most

reticent to talk, Eileen, John, Maria, and Zoie, began providing more lengthy responses. As Mrs. Wood shifted her stance toward dialogic conversations, students began to talk more. In Figure 9, the fourth, fifth, and final observations had a decrease in the percentage of students' talk categorized as a 1 for length, indicating that, in those final observations, larger percentages of their talk about texts was classified in categories 2 or 3. Hence, students were talking with longer conversational exchanges. As previously discussed, the lower percentage of Category 1 responses in the first observation was probably due to the one-on-one activity versus larger group situations. The fact that Mrs. Wood was more effective in extending the lengths of students' responses as she met with students individually may indicate that teachers need more coaching in dialogic inquiry as group sizes become larger.

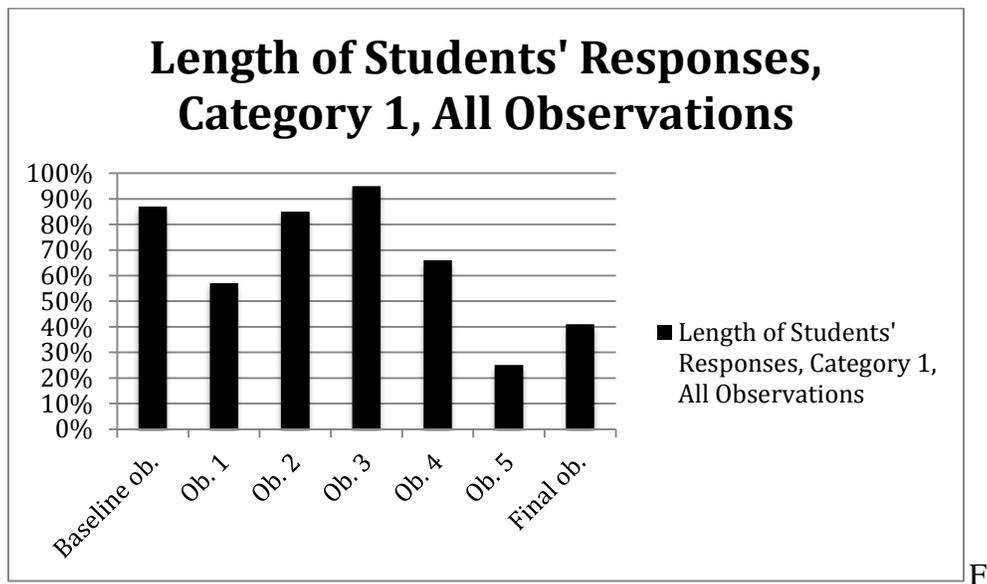


Figure 9. Length of students' responses category 1, all observations

The dramatic decrease of students' responses in category 1 during the last three observations, in relationship to the baseline, first, second, and third observations, is evidence that students were talking more about texts.

Hypothetical mode. In Observation 4 only 12% of student responses were in the hypothetical mode. So, while students were talking in more lengthy moves, their theoretical thinking was not evident. However, during the fifth observation, when the teacher again used a narrative text, 32% of student conversational moves were hypothetical in nature. Interestingly, in the final observation only 4% of students' talk was hypothetical.

This trend may suggest that Mrs. Wood's continued use of the I-R-F conversational pattern was itself limiting students' hypothetical thinking and talking. Even though Mrs. Wood changed the prospectiveness and function of her follow-up moves, which led to more students' talk in dependent exchanges, the I-R-F pattern itself contributed to the teacher holding authority over the conversations in ways that precluded students' hypothetical thinking. Hence, while there may have been a shift toward dialogic stances in both the teacher's and students' conversations, students' hypothetical thinking may require a change in the conversational pattern itself. While students' length of responses seemed fairly easy to change, conversational patterns are more complex and difficult to modify.

Function of students' conversational moves: Last observations. One of the most obvious changes in students' talk about texts during the fourth and fifth

observations was in the function of their moves. Students began initiating exchanges themselves by extending topics for the group to consider. While the primary function of their response moves was to inform, many of their contributions consisted of justifying or clarifying their thinking. Hence, they used many of their follow-up moves to comment on their thinking as well as the thinking of the group.

Last observations: Patterns of students' responding. In the last observations, students were talking more often and with more lengthy responses in classroom conversations about texts. As Mrs. Wood changed her stance toward initiating more dialogic conversations, students responded by changing their stances as well. Even though there seemed to be a trend in the fourth and fifth observations toward students participating in hypothetical thinking, this particular characteristic of the dialogic stance may not be established.

However, students' response moves began to function in ways conducive to dialogic talk. While many responses were to provide information to Mrs. Wood's questions, students also justified and clarified their own thinking as well as the thinking of the group. They began to share the floor, and four of the students began initiating conversations themselves.

The teacher's use of her follow-up moves provided the nexus for students' increased participation in classroom conversations about texts. While Mrs. Wood did not change her I-R-F pattern of classroom interactions, the change in prospectiveness and

function in her follow-up moves along with an increase in wait time made a tremendous impact on students' dialogic conversations about texts.

Implications

The findings from this socio-constructivist case study serve as an example of what might be found in schools as coaches and teachers investigate the value of using a dialogic stance in conversations with students about texts. Talking about texts in an authentic, or dialogic, way allows for the construction of meaning. Students must have opportunities to talk about their thinking in order to form, reform, and consolidate their thinking and to contribute to the thinking of the entire group. From this study, several implications emerge.

1. Coaching in the use of dialogic inquiry may provide a powerful professional development strategy to assist teachers in providing students with opportunities to participate in authentic talk about texts. Job-embedded professional development has been proven to be the most efficient and effective method of ensuring change in teachers' practices (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Joyce & Showers, 2002). However, the intensity of the coaching sessions must be carefully planned by considering: (a) the relationship between the coach and the teacher, and (b) the length of time needed to provide successful learning opportunities for teachers (Robertson et al, 2014). As coaches continue working with teachers, they should also consider the teacher's knowledge base (Snow et al., 2005) as well as the degree to which

transfer of knowledge and training occurs (Joyce & Showers, 2002). Because there is a significant difference between transferring knowledge and transferring training, coaches should be diligent in assuring that the intensity of coaching sessions matches the needs of the teacher. As coaches and teachers ensure that knowledge bases are extended and transfer of learning and training is in place, coaches should also consider how the teacher's level of adaptive expertise (Hatano & Inagaki, 1986) is reciprocally related. As the collegial relationship between coaches and teachers is built and sustained, teachers will be supported in extending their knowledge, transferring learning, and, consequently, becoming more adaptive experts in practice.

2. Coaches may need to provide modeling of a dialogic conversation as a scaffold to ensure growth in teachers' knowledge and theoretical understanding. Vygotsky (1978), in his theory of Zone of Proximal Development, posited that learning takes place along a continuum with the help of expert others. When learners have difficulty with tasks, the expert provides scaffolds in the form of targeted assistance. In this study, Mrs. Wood initially had difficulty transferring knowledge of dialogic inquiry to her own practice. After I provided assistance in the form of a modeled dialogic conversation, Mrs. Wood more easily assimilated her new knowledge into her existing practice. So, while viewing and analyzing video is an effective coaching strategy, actual modeling with the teacher's own class was critical.

Teachers will need coaching in other types of instructional engagements, beyond interactive read-aloud, that promote dialogic inquiry as well.

3. The genre of texts may influence the degree to which conversations are dialogic in nature. While Pappas et al. (2004) argued that nonfiction texts provide critical opportunities for students to engage in conversation while learning content, teachers may have difficulty using the genre to promote dialogic inquiry. As noted in the research, often teachers become drawn into the facts and details of nonfiction texts and fail to recognize how to weave dialogic conversations through the lens of the text itself. Fictional texts seem to lend themselves more easily to students' imaginative, inferential and critical thinking. Teachers may have more difficulty analyzing the author's craft in nonfiction texts. Therefore, coaching and modeling the use of nonfiction texts is necessary.
4. The school's curriculum may influence the degree to which teachers initiate dialogic conversations about texts. Some curricula in schools are written from a positivist paradigm that values students' learning of factual information. In such cases, teachers may have difficulty implementing a new practice that reflects an opposing paradigm. In this study, the curriculum in Mrs. Wood's school consisted of a list of skills that students were expected to master. In such situations, teachers tend to rely more heavily on direct, monologic instruction rather than assuming an inquiry stance in their teaching.

Consequently, the extent to which Mrs. Wood would assume an inquiry stance was not predictable. It follows, then, that teachers may have more success in assuming an inquiry stance in conversations with students about texts when curriculum is more aligned with a post-positivist paradigm.

5. Dialogic conversations may arise from an I-R-F (Wells, 1999) discourse pattern. Teachers, particularly those working with a skills-based curriculum, may tend to favor this triadic exchange pattern. However, that particular pattern of conversation is not inherently negative. In fact, teachers initiating this discourse pattern more easily manage many classroom exchanges. In this study, Mrs. Wood continued to use the I-R-F pattern almost exclusively, but her follow-up moves initiated dialogic exchanges.
6. In conversations with students about texts, teachers should consider how their follow-up moves influence the dialogic nature of the discourse. As teachers initiate dependent exchanges by changing the prospectiveness and function of conversational follow-up moves, students' conversations become more dialogic. Teachers should carefully consider how they respond to students' conversational moves. As their follow-up moves shift from being evaluative in nature to initiating further discussion, students are encouraged to extend their thinking through more conversations.

Directions for Further Research

This study presented information concerning how coaching a teacher in the use of dialogic inquiry influenced students' conversations about texts. Several areas for future research arose during this study. First, this case study consisted of researching one teacher and her classroom of students. Additional research should consider different teachers and different grade levels of students in order to gain a more detailed and comprehensive description of coaching teachers toward dialogic inquiry. Teachers' changing stances toward inquiry may have different degrees of success in influencing students' dialogic conversations. As teachers assume differing routines for classroom conversations about texts, their students will likely respond in many different ways. The sizes of groups in which conversations take place may also be a factor in influencing students' conversations. In this study, the majority of text conversations took place within large-group interactions. However, as teachers converse with students in small groups or through more independent conferring, students' participation in conversations will likely vary. Therefore, additional research in dialogic inquiry using a variety of instructional settings would be important.

Secondly, I did not study how coaching teachers over an extended period of time might influence dialogic conversations. Because I only coached Mrs. Wood over a period of one school semester, I was not able to develop a deep collegial relationship with her and I was somewhat confined by only providing coaching sessions on alternating weeks. An important area for further research may be to study how coaching a teacher

over an extended period of time might influence the teachers' knowledge and theoretical understandings, transfer of training and learning, and level of adaptive expertise. As Robertson et al. (2014) argued, the time required and the level of intensity of coaching sessions is dependent upon established relationships between coach and teacher. More studies may be warranted over longer periods of time in order to determine how teachers assume and maintain dialogic stances in their conversations with students about texts. Studies in coaching groups of teachers would also be valuable since they could support each other's professional learning.

Thirdly, I did not examine the extent to which the curriculum might have influenced the teacher's monologic or dialogic stance. While a skills-based curriculum appears to heavily influence monologic conversations, it would be helpful to study ways in which teachers could establish dialogic conversations with students while working within a positivist curriculum. A skills-based curriculum tends to encourage teachers to practice a transmission form of teaching since it rewards students for mastery of those skills. It follows, then, that teachers generally maintain monologic stances in their conversations with students, often sustaining an I-R-F discourse pattern. More studies may be needed to determine how teachers can meet the goals of such a curriculum yet still establish dialogic conversations. Additionally, research may shed light on the practice of dialogic inquiry when teachers tend to maintain a triadic pattern of I-R-F.

Fourthly, additional studies may be needed to examine how the genre of texts, and forms within genres, influences dialogic conversations. Although current research

documents the value of using nonfiction texts in dialogic conversations, teachers tend to use fictional texts (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991) when they want students to engage in discussions. Fictional texts lend themselves to students' hypothetical thinking, so the function of talk tends to be more prospective in nature. Conversely, nonfiction texts, since they are generally written to inform, tend to lend themselves to learning facts. Teachers, therefore, have a propensity to use fictional texts to promote dialogic conversations. Additional studies should be undertaken to determine effective ways teachers might use dialogic inquiry with nonfiction texts.

Other studies are also needed to investigate the influence of dialogue on students' learning. While there is abundant research in classroom discourse analysis, there appears to be little evidence providing insight into how classroom conversations actually impact students' achievement. While there is ample evidence that the I-R-F discourse pattern precludes students' conversations, more studies are needed to investigate how monologic or dialogic classroom discourses promote or hinder students' learning.

Finally, I did not study how students' writing about reading influences dialogic conversations about texts. Talking, reading, and writing are critical components in becoming literate. Hence, students' thinking is dependent upon reading and writing, and thinking is negotiated through talking. Additional studies might provide insight into how students' writing influences the ways in which they participate in dialogic conversations. As students consolidate their thinking about texts through writing, their stances may

become more inquiry-based. Further studies may confirm the relationship between reading, talking, and writing in terms of dialogic inquiry.

Final Thoughts

Dialogic inquiry is a dynamic conversational stance in which teachers support students in thinking deeply about texts. It provides a context for helping children negotiate understandings through meaningful interactions with the teacher and other students.

In this study, the coaching sessions were framed by considering the teacher's knowledge base about dialogic inquiry as well as the degree to which transfer of knowledge and training was taking place. Initially, the coaching sessions were not effective in establishing a change. However, after viewing a modeled conversation with students and participating in more intensive coaching sessions, Mrs. Wood began to change her routines for talking to students about texts. After several coaching sessions, Mrs. Wood began to develop a dialogic stance in her conversations with students. Although she maintained an I-R-F discourse pattern throughout the study, Mrs. Wood changed the prospectiveness and function of her follow-up moves so that instead of evaluating children's responses, she initiated more dependent exchanges. This routine extended students' talk, and, thus, their thinking.

As students' talked more, their responses became longer and were more hypothetical in nature, creating opportunities for others to respond. Students became eager to talk, and they appeared to listen to others more intently before providing further

responses of their own. As Mrs. Wood's control over conversations began to diminish, some children began to exercise control over conversations themselves extending their own thoughts as well as the thoughts of the group.

From this research, we can better understand how coaching a teacher in dialogic inquiry influences students' talk about texts. The findings underscore the value of coaching as job-embedded professional development and its influence on dialogic conversations as they are related to students' talking and thinking about texts. As the intensity of coaching sessions affects practice, teachers can provide powerful opportunities for dialogic conversations with their students about texts.

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APPENDIX A

Example of Coding Sheet

Date	Seq.	Time	Content	Speaker	Exch, N, D, E	Move, I, R, F	Prosp, D, G, A	Function	Resp Lth	Response Mode	Memo
KNRA	1	05:15.0 14:52.0	Just think about it for a second. Why do you think she's pulling that memory string out in front of her stepmother so often? Why is she doing that? What do you think?	KN	Nuc	I	D	Req. opinion			
KNRA	1		Juan	KN	Emb	I	D	Nominate			
KNRA	1		What are you thinking?	KN	Nuc	I	D	Repeat			
KNRA	1		To look at it.	Juan	Nuc	R	G	Opinion			
KNRA	1		Does anybody have anything to add to that?	KN	Dep	I	D	Extend			
KNRA	1		So she could, so she could remember her mother.	Natalie	Dep	R	G	Opinion	1	Expo	
KNRA	1		Does anyone have anything else to add to that?	KN	Dep	I	D	Extend	1	Expo	
KNRA	1		Do you have something to add?	KN	Dep	I	D	Req. opinion			
KNRA	1		(t. looks at) Louis	KN	Emb	I	D	Nominate	1		
KNRA	1		I agree with Natalie because she sell all kinds of buttons.	Louis	Dep	R	G	Opinion	2	Expo	
KNRA	1		Can you say more?	KN	Dep	I	D	Req. clarification			
KNRA	1		She might remember her great grandma.	Louis	Dep	R	G	Clarify	1	Hypo	
KNRA	1		Why do you think she might want to remember her great grandma?	KN	Dep	I	D	Req. opinion			
KNRA	1		(Children raise hands)	Children	Emb	I	D	Bid			
KNRA	1		Brandon	KN	Emb	R	G	Nominate			
KNRA	1		I disagree	Brandon	Dep	I	G	Inform	1	Expo	
KNRA	1		Oh, you disagree because.....	KN	Dep	R	D	Req. clarification			
KNRA	1		Because she might be giving the necklace to her stepmother.	Brandon	Dep	R	G	Clarify	1	Hypo	Are students answering from all possibilities?
KNRA	1		Oh,	KN	Dep	F	A	Accept			
KNRA	1		Why do you think she might do that?	KN	Dep	I	D	Req. clarification			

APPENDIX B

Dialogic Inquiry Tool—Teacher's D-I-T

MOVE	MONOLOGIC		DIALOGIC
	1, 2	3, 4	5, 6
Sharing the Floor	The teacher “holds the floor” most of the time and talks more frequently and longer than students. Student responses are short, often consisting of one word or phrase. The communication typically follows a recitation pattern of Teacher question-Student response-Teacher evaluation.	While students contribute to the discussion with longer answers, their responses are typically directed to and mediated by the teacher. The teacher leads the discussion, and peer-to-peer exchanges are rare or non-existent.	Class participants contribute equally to the discussion. Students have longer, elaborate responses and they direct their answers to other students, rather than to the teacher. There are consecutive peer-to-peer exchanges uninterrupted by the teacher. The teacher intervenes only when necessary.
Dividing Responsibilities	The teacher has exclusive control over all discussion content and processes. S/he nominates students, asks questions, initiates topical shifts, and evaluates the answers.	There are occasional opportunities for students to freely engage in discussion. These are rare and/or involve only a few students. Most of the time, the teacher controls turn-taking, prescribes topic choice, and reshapes the discussion to align with specific fixed content.	Students take on key responsibilities for the flow of the discussion. Students participate in managing turns (self-selecting or nominating others), asking questions, judging each other’s answers, introducing new topics, and suggesting procedural changes. No discussion content is being suppressed by the teacher.
Asking Open-Ended Questions	Teacher questions target recall of specific facts from the story. These are simple, “test” questions with one right/wrong answer known from the story or other sources (<i>What? When? How many?</i>) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What happens next? The answer is on page 652.</i> • <i>How many eaglets were in that nest?</i> 	The teacher asks questions of mixed quality, including complex, open-ended questions. Open questions are often designed to “lead” students to a narrow range of interpretations of the text. The teacher may reshape student answers to emphasize predetermined “points-not-to-miss” during the lesson. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What symbol tells you that it involves a court?</i> • <i>Have you ever been away from home? ... Now you can imagine how the slaves felt.</i> 	The discussion centers around truly open and cognitively challenging questions. The questions target higher-order thinking, involving students in critical evaluation and analysis. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Do you think it is important to impress people?</i> • <i>Are you born with talents or can you acquire them?</i>

MOVE	MONOLOGIC		DIALOGIC
	1, 2	3, 4	5, 6
Requesting Reasons	The teacher often <u>misses opportunities to ask students to explain</u> and elaborate their responses with reasons and evidence.	The teacher <u>selectively, but not consistently probes further</u> into students' thinking, asking students to justify their views and generate reasons. S/he may miss opportunities to ask for further explanation, especially when student answers are correct.	The teacher does not miss <u>opportunities to ask students to explain</u> and support their positions with reasons, examples, and evidence. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What is the reason for saying that...?</i> • <i>What makes you think this?</i> • <i>What would be an example of this?</i> • <i>Can we think of a counter-example?</i>
Prompting for Alternatives	There are <u>few, if any, opportunities</u> for students to consider and evaluate alternative points of view.	The <u>teacher makes an effort</u> to invite multiple interpretations. However, <u>s/he may miss opportunities</u> to probe for alternative perspectives, especially when students' answers are consistent with the predetermined plan for the lesson. There are <u>clear "content boundaries"</u> for the discussion. Although multiple points of view can be introduced, the teacher constrains and refocuses the discussion in a predetermined direction.	The teacher <u>does not miss opportunities</u> to prompt students to take into account opposing views and <u>probe for missing perspectives overlooked by the group</u> . <u>All viewpoints are seriously considered</u> through a disciplined inquiry process. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>If someone disagreed with you, what could they say?</i> • <i>Does anyone disagree?</i> • <i>Are there other ways of looking at this?</i>

MOVE	MONOLOGIC		DIALOGIC
	1, 2	3, 4	5, 6
Monitoring Discussion Processes	The teacher <u>does not comment on group's reasoning</u> and the degree of collaboration. Instead, the teacher focuses exclusively on specific content.	The teacher <u>occasionally, but not consistently, comments on the quality of student thinking and the progress of the group.</u> Many of these monitoring comments are of the same type. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Let's use elimination here.</i> • <i>Let's make sure everyone participates.</i> • <i>This was a good reason.</i> 	The teacher consistently <u>invites students to reflect on the rules of inquiry, the progress on the group, and the degree of collaboration by group members.</u> The teacher primarily focuses on the <u>process of reasoning.</u> S/he often <u>identifies specific reasoning moves</u> made by the students and comments on how these moves function to advance the inquiry further. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>You just made a good distinction that can help us rethink our definition of privacy.</i> • <i>How should we begin discussing this question?</i> • <i>I am not sure we are being consistent.</i>
Connecting Students' Ideas	The teacher <u>does not relate student answers to each other.</u>	The teacher <u>sometimes misses opportunities to connect students' ideas.</u> The requests for connections are often overly general. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Anything else?</i> 	The teacher <u>does not miss opportunities to make visible the connections among student ideas.</u> S/he prompts students to relate their ideas to what's been said by others <u>in specific ways.</u> S/he attributes student ideas and questions to specific speakers. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Bill, do you want to respond to Kim?</i> • <i>Kelly, are you disagreeing with Jon's point? How are you disagreeing?</i> • <i>Who else mentioned this distinction?</i>

MOVE	MONOLOGIC		DIALOGIC
	1, 2	3, 4	5, 6
Clarifying meaning / Summarizing	<p>The teacher may repeat simple “right” answers, but s/he <u>does not help students to clarify, restate, or reformulate more complex thoughts.</u> Incomplete or ambiguous student answers often remain unexamined.</p>	<p>The teacher occasionally <u>asks students to clarify their responses and to explain their thinking more completely.</u> The teacher may restate student responses, changing the original meaning to make a specific point that students should not miss. The <u>teacher sometimes prompts students to go into specific direction, and selectively adds or subtracts information</u> to fit in with a predetermined purpose for the lesson.</p>	<p>The teacher does not miss opportunities to <u>prompt students to restate and further explain their ideas.</u> S/he <u>closely paraphrases or re-voices student responses</u> to check that the group understands the ideas accurately (not to “put words in student’s mouths”). S/he also asks students to paraphrase each other’s responses. The teacher often follows up with the student to make sure the paraphrasing is accurate (<i>Is that what you are saying?</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What do you mean when you say ...?</i> • <i>So you’re saying...?</i> • <i>Can someone re-state the point Jose just made?</i>

APPENDIX C

Dialogic Inquiry Tool—Student's D-I-T

MOVE	MONOLOGIC		DIALOGIC
	1, 2	3, 4	5, 6
Engaging in Co-reasoning	<p>Student responses are <u>short, disjointed, and unrelated to each other</u>. Students primarily “report” about established, known facts.</p>	<p>Students occasionally <u>build on each others’ ideas</u>. The collaboration often involves sharing of similar experiences, rather than a critical analysis of each others’ viewpoints.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>This happened to me too! I was visiting my aunt in Boston...</i> 	<p>Students engage in critical and collaborative “<u>co-construction of ideas</u>.” They often “take up” the preceding contribution to develop the argument further. Their responses are “chained together,” as students react to each others’ positions and justifications. Importantly, <u>co-reasoning often goes beyond simple agreement</u>. For example, a reason given by one student can be contradicted or challenged by the next student.</p>
Providing Reasons	<p>Students <u>do not explain what they think and why</u>. Their responses are <u>brief and factual</u>, consisting of one word or a phrase.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Yes/No”,</i> <i>He went home.</i> 	<p>Students <u>occasionally share opinions and provide good justification for them</u>. Longer student responses <u>may also represent simple retelling of personal experiences</u> or events from the story, rather than reasoning.</p>	<p>Students <u>consistently and effectively address the questions “Why?” and “How?”</u> Students take personal positions on the issue (<i>I think, I believe, I feel</i>) and support them with reasons and examples. <u>They make elaborate, lengthy contributions</u>, explaining their thinking to others.</p>
MOVE	MONOLOGIC		DIALOGIC
	1, 2	3, 4	5, 6
Offering Alternatives	<p>Students <u>do not bring up and discuss alternative/opposing viewpoints</u>.</p>	<p>Students <u>occasionally, but not consistently, bring up alternative/opposing viewpoints</u>.</p>	<p>Students <u>consider alternative viewpoints and challenge each other’s reasoning</u> by offering counter-arguments and responding with rebuttals.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>I disagree with Jeff because ...</i> <i>But, Ashley, who says you are an adult when you are 18? Why can’t you be an adult when you are 12?</i>

MOVE	MONOLOGIC		DIALOGIC
	1, 2	3, 4	5, 6
Reflecting on Discussion Processes	Students <u>do not comment on the group's reasoning.</u>	Students <u>make limited comments</u> about the group's reasoning. They do not affect the process of the discussion.	Whenever appropriate, students comment on how their responses relate to the line of inquiry. They suggest alternative discussion strategies and goals. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>But I don't think we are disagreeing.</i> • <i>This may be off topic.</i> • <i>Sounds like we are going around in circles.</i> • <i>Ok, Dianna is lost. What do you need to be explained?</i>
Connecting With Peers	Students simply <u>state their answers in a sequential fashion</u> , often disregarding the input of others.	Students <u>occasionally relate their answers</u> to the contributions of other group members. Often, these connections involve the sharing of similar opinions and personal experiences. Thus, the degree of repetitiveness may be high. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Colleen's story reminds me of one time when I got lost in the mall.</i> 	Student responses are <u>inter-related</u> and often <u>marked by explicit connection</u> to the ideas of others. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>As Jack said before...</i> • <i>I disagree with Karen...</i> • <i>I want to add one thing to what Brad just said...</i>

APPENDIX D

Levels of Transfer (Joyce & Showers, 2002)

Levels of Transfer
Joyce & Showers (2002, p. 102)

Level 1 represents *imitative use*, that is, exact replication of lessons demonstrated in training settings. Furthermore, the types of lessons selected for imitation often represent only the most simple and concrete examples of a class of demonstrations. For example, if a cooperative “numbered heads” activity were demonstrated with a list of spelling words during training, and teachers were subsequently observed to use numbered heads only with their spelling lists, their level of transfer would be judged to be imitative, although appropriate. Likewise, the fact that various forms of more complex cooperative activity had been demonstrated during training (but were absent from early teacher practice) would tend to place a teacher at a Level 1 level of transfer.

Level 2 indicates *mechanical use* (or horizontal transfer) in that the same teacher who was using “numbered heads” activities only for spelling begins to use numbered heads for drills in reading vocabulary, addition and multiplication facts, etc. Practice increases at this level but there is little variation in types of implementation. More complex examples of the models of teaching learned during training continue to be missing from teacher practice.

Level 3 is *routine use*, in that certain activities, types of lessons, and objectives become identified with specific models of teaching. For example, as students learn the states and capitals of the United States, geographic features of regions of the country, and major landforms and oceans of the world, teachers routinely select mnemonic strategies to accomplish their objectives. Use of the strategies is frequent at this stage; but alternative strategies are not considered at this point, nor are curriculum objectives thought of in other than a lower-order, concrete fashion.

Level 4 is called *integrated use* and generally occurs for different models at different rates. For example, a teacher who has frequently use mnemonics strategies for learning concrete bits of information in multiple subjects begins to under the sequences of events in history, major points in a philosophy, and policy issues faced by presidents and governors are also areas for application of mnemonic strategies. The proportion of imitative to innovative, subject-specific use has become quite small.

Finally, **Level 5** is designated as *executive use* of the content of training. Executive control is characterized by complete understanding of the theories underlying the various models learned, a comfortable level of appropriate use for varieties of models of teaching, and consequently the ability to select specific models and combinations of models for objectives within a unit as well as across subject areas. Integrated curriculum objectives as well as higher-order objectives are frequently observable at this level. Thus a teacher introducing a piece of literature to 5th grade students might begin with objectives relating to understanding of the relationships that evolve between certain characters in the book. Although the teacher may employ inductive thinking, concept attainment, and mnemonic and cooperative strategies to teach the necessary vocabulary and word attack skills to enable the students to read the story with comfort, major emphases will be on analysis of the relationships between characters through categorization and interpretation of key passages from the piece and writing with analogies to examine the changing nature of evolving relationships.

APPENDIX E

Increasing Progressive Differentiation and Career Points (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005)

Increasing Progressive Differentiation and Career Points (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005)
<i>Declarative Knowledge:</i> The teacher can answer questions on a test about what to do in a classroom under certain circumstances.
<i>Situated, Can-Do Procedural:</i> The teacher knows what to do in a classroom under certain (and predictable) circumstances and with support from a master teacher.
<i>Stable, Procedural Knowledge:</i> The teacher can plan, implement, and monitor the instruction under normal circumstances.
<i>Expert, Adaptive Knowledge:</i> The teacher can respond to a full array of instructional challenges under a variety of circumstances.
<i>Reflective, Organized, Analyzed Knowledge:</i> The teacher has enough experience to analyze, evaluate, and make choices about instruction and assessment under varying circumstances with a wide range of students.

APPENDIX F

IRB Approval Letter



Institutional Review Board

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
P.O. Box 425619, Denton, TX 76204-5619
940-898-3378 FAX 940-898-4416
e-mail: IRB@twu.edu

August 5, 2013

Ms. Kathryn L. Northcutt

Dear Ms. Northcutt:

Re: *Coaching a Teacher to Use Dialogic Inquiry: Fostering Students' Talk About Texts (Protocol #: 17394)*

The above referenced study has been reviewed by the TWU Institutional Review Board (IRB) and appears to meet our requirements for the protection of individuals' rights.

If applicable, agency approval letters must be submitted to the IRB upon receipt PRIOR to any data collection at that agency. A copy of the approved consent form with the IRB approval stamp is enclosed. Please use the consent form with the most recent approval date stamp when obtaining consent from your participants. A copy of the signed consent forms must be submitted with the request to close the study file at the completion of the study.

This approval is valid one year from July 12, 2013. Any modifications to this study must be submitted for review to the IRB using the Modification Request Form. Additionally, the IRB must be notified immediately of any unanticipated incidents. If you have any questions, please contact the TWU IRB.

Sincerely,

Dr. Rhonda Buckley, Chair
Institutional Review Board - Denton

cc. Dr. Connie Briggs, Department of Reading
Dr. Patricia Watson, Department of Reading
Graduate School