

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: FACTORS THAT IMPACT PRESERVICE
TEACHERS' PLANNING AND LEADING OF
TEXT-BASED DISCUSSIONS

Erin K. Hogan, Doctor of Philosophy, 2021

Dissertation Directed By: Dr. Mariam Jean Dreher, Professor Emerita
Dr. John O'Flahavan, Associate Professor
Department of Teaching and Learning, Policy and
Leadership

Text-based discussions are defined as the process of collectively building high-level comprehension of text among a group of students who use each other and text as sources of meaning. Teachers' role in this process is two-fold: first, they ask questions that require extended exploration of text ideas and go well beyond literal, surface level understandings. Second, they support students as they do the heavy lifting of engaging deeply with the text and with each other by helping students link their ideas and those conveyed in the text together. Nearly 40 years of empirical research offers support for text-based discussion as an instructional technique with the potential to break persistent patterns of basic-level student reading achievement (Applebee et al., 2003; Murphy et al., 2009; Nystrand, 1997; Soter et al., 2009). However, this same research identified text-based discussions as infrequently used in classrooms, which suggests there is something preventing more teachers from utilizing them in the classroom.

This two-study dissertation sought to identify and intervene on factors that influenced preservice teachers' learning about and ultimately using discussion. I identified three factors: the ability to analyze text (i.e., to determine main ideas of text as well as text features that potentially facilitate or hinder students' understanding of the main ideas); experiential knowledge gained from repeated cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on discussions; and epistemological beliefs. Study One was an exploratory multiple case study of seven senior preservice teachers all enrolled in their capstone literacy methods class and working in their field placements. This study took a holistic look at the ways in which epistemological beliefs, instruction in text analysis, and repeated cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions affected PSTs' leading of discussions with students in their field placements. Results indicated that PSTs' epistemological beliefs affected both their learning about and leading text-based discussions, they lacked specialized knowledge needed to analyze text and use this information to help students negotiate text meaning in the text-based discussions, and some gained experiential knowledge in the form of specific moves they could make to shift interpretive authority to students.

These findings informed the design of study two. This study used a pretest/posttest control group design and was situated in two pre-existing sections of a reading methods course for first-semester senior preservice teachers. One section served as a business-as-usual control group while the other section received a semester-long intervention into text analysis. Participants in the intervention section received direct instruction on text analysis including text structures and their common features, how to evaluate text complexity, and how to decipher main and supporting ideas. They also

received instruction on how to use this knowledge to support students in text-based discussions. Results of ANCOVA analysis suggests intervention led to statistically significant improvement in participants' ability to analyze text. Exploratory analyses shed light into the mechanisms behind the intervention's effect: participants' ability to monitor and respond to students improved significantly. Taken together, the findings from these two studies have implications for teacher educators seeking to create learning experiences that lead to preservice teachers taking up text-based discussions.

FACTORS THAT IMPACT PRESERVICE TEACHERS' PLANNING
AND LEADING OF TEXT-BASED DISCUSSIONS

By

Erin K. Hogan

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Advisory Committee:
Professor Mariam Jean Dreher, co-chair
Professor John O'Flahavan, co-chair
Professor Peter Afflerbach
Dr. Terry Salinger
Professor Jade Wexler

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about American students' continued difficulties displaying higher-order reading comprehension skills that ask them to make inferences, draw conclusions, or evaluate arguments following reading connected text. Students' lack of these higher-order comprehension skills likely impacts their ability to read complex and content-rich texts in college and in the workplace (Snow & Moje, 2010). Despite the saturation in scholarly journals of studies that highlight the importance of teaching higher-order comprehension skills, the instruction being given to K-12 students often asks them to consider literal meanings of text and focuses on their ability to retell facts gained during reading (e.g., Alexander, 2008).

Teachers delivering this literal level instruction tend to use Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE; Cazden, 2001) patterns of questioning in which they ask a question, a student responds, and teachers evaluate this response before moving on to the next question. Questions and their responses are not often linked together but instead stand as isolated instances of factual recall and thus stress to students that the focus of reading is to acquire literal understanding. This type of instruction assumes that students are empty vessels waiting to be filled by the knowledge their school deems important (Friere, 1974) while simultaneously discounting their lived experiences as irrelevant to the process of reading. Students educated in this manner may not only lack the skills needed to engage in purposeful, critical analysis of text, they may lack the realization that literacy is a "power code" (Delpit, 1995). When this code is mastered, it grants young people, who are often motivated to be part of something larger than themselves, access to tools that can alter their lives and better their communities (Greenleaf et al., 2001).

Text-based discussions are defined as the process of collectively building high-level comprehension of text among a group of students who use each other and text as sources of meaning. They have the potential to shift the instructional focus from recitation of basic facts to collaboratively constructing meaning between discussion participants (Applebee et al., 2003; Kamil et al., 2008). Empirical work over the past 40 years has articulated the theoretical rationale behind text-based discussions and specific features of it that are effective in producing student reading comprehension. Meta-analyses (e.g., Murphy et al., 2009) have synthesized this effect and large-scale, quantitative studies (e.g., Applebee et al., 2003) have demonstrated the positive effect text-based discussion has on the reading comprehension performance of diverse populations including students placed in low-track academic classes who have been historically denied access to instruction that asks them to use higher-order comprehension strategies.

Despite this rich theoretical and empirical support for text-based discussion as an effective instructional strategy, its use in classrooms is quite rare (Alexander, 2008; Applebee et al., 2003; Nystrand, 1997; Reisman, 2015). In most classrooms, teacher questioning and student talk do not serve the purpose of collaboratively making meaning but instead are used to maintain control and assess student knowledge (e.g., Alexander, 2005; Alvermann & Hayes, 1989; Nystrand et al., 2003). Students in these types of instructional settings are positioned as passive receivers of information whose background experiences are irrelevant to learning and who lack interpretive authority.

The nature of text-based discussions themselves may impede their more common classroom use. They are, to use the words of Kucan and colleagues (2011), “ill-defined

spaces” (p. 2900). These spaces ask teachers to improvise (Forzani, 2014) as they monitor and respond to student interpretations of texts that are often unanticipated because they are rooted in students’ background knowledge and lived experiences. Although teachers can plan both the questions they will ask to open the discussion and their responses to anticipated student responses and misconceptions, they cannot control the interpretations students share in the discussion. It is this opportunity to articulate their unique perspectives and get feedback from their peers that allows students to acquire and refine higher-order comprehension skills from text-based discussions, but this is also a reason why conducting text-based discussion challenging for teachers. The teacher’s role in text-based discussion becomes one of supporting students in developing their own ideas rather than transmitting the teacher’s ideas to the students.

Teachers, especially novices, may struggle to monitor student understanding in this context and may lack understanding of effective pedagogical moves (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1990). They may resort to becoming unresponsive and inflexible to student needs (Moos & Pitton, 2014), thus hindering the collaborative meaning-making process and repositioning students as passive receivers of information. Of course, the theoretical benefits of text-based discussions are not realized in such contexts.

Over time and with experience, teachers may acquire the capacity to navigate the ill-structured space of text-based discussion (Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017). However, two demographic trends in the teaching force illuminate a problem: first, the most common public-school teacher is within his or her first three years of teaching (Ingersoll et al., 2018), and second, roughly 44% of teachers leave the field within the first five years of their career (Ingersoll et al., 2018). These trends mean that many students are likely to

have a novice teacher who may not be able to lead text-based discussion and are thus denied the benefit of this emancipatory instructional technique. This situation leads directly into the problem space of this dissertation.

Statement of the Problem

Teacher education is a viable avenue for addressing the need for novice teachers who can deliver sophisticated instruction such as text-based discussion. Such preparation is vital because, as stated earlier, discussions are rare in classrooms. Without explicit preparation, it is likely that preservice teachers (PSTs) will not use text-based discussion but instead reproduce their own K-12 experiences (Goodison, 2013; Lortie, 1975, 2020) and the instruction of their mentor teachers (e.g., Camprano, 2010) to not use text-based discussion.

However, what should this preparation look like? My review of the literature and preliminary research have led me to conclude several things, each of which will be explained more fully in Chapter 2. First, even after education on text-based discussion, novices often have difficulty understanding the discourse moves helpful for linking student ideas together in a manner that encourages collaborative meaning making amongst the students (Cazden, 2001; Kucan et al., 2011; Nystrand, 1997; Reisman et al., 2015). Second, novices are able to plan questions used to open a discussion ahead of time but are not planning for the ill-structured space of the discussion itself (e.g., Kucan, 2009). In text-based discussions, students often move the conversation in unanticipated directions and novices often react, rather than drive the instruction. Third, many teachers lack the specialized knowledge they need to be able to facilitate text-based discussion including the ability to analyze text to determine the most important ideas and identify

barriers, both from the reader and text itself, to understanding these ideas (Graesser et al., 2003; Kucan et al., 2011). Fourth, text-based discussions require that teachers flexibly respond to students' meaning making in the moment (Nystrand, 1997). Doing so requires knowledge of a number of ways to respond to students and an ability to modify these ways to meet the demands of the specific context (Juzwik et al., 2012). Experiential knowledge gained through watching, discussing, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions is likely helpful in producing this knowledge of teaching moves, understanding their purposes, and gaining the ability to use them flexibly and improvisationally (e.g., Juzwik et al., 2012). Finally, teacher epistemological beliefs are likely important to teachers learning about and using text-based discussion.

Epistemological beliefs are teachers' broad ideas about knowing and coming to know and justifying knowledge (e.g., Hofer & Pintrich, 1997; King & Kitchener, 1994; Schommer, 1994). They can range from the belief that knowledge is fully objective and is true regardless of whether people know it to a view that knowledge is completely subjective. Those holding the latter beliefs view knowledge is inherently idiosyncratic and judge all opinions as equally valid. In order to conduct text-based discussion and support student meaning making, teachers may need to be somewhere between these extremes (Wilkinson et al., 2017). They should view knowledge as construct-able but have some standards of evaluating opinions and considering the validity of sources of information.

In this two-study dissertation, I address the findings named above. I completed my first study in spring 2020 and describe it in Chapter 3; I finished the second study in fall 2020 and present its findings in Chapter 4. In the first study, I investigated the impact of three factors on PSTs' learning about and leading discussions: specialized knowledge

used to analyze text; experiential knowledge gained through repeated cycles of analyzing text, leading text-based discussion with that text, and reflecting on the discussion afterwards; and PSTs' epistemological beliefs. I designed instruction given in the university classroom on the specialized knowledge teachers use to analyze texts in preparation for text-based discussion and provided a planning document, the Text Analysis Tool (TAT; modified from Kucan & Palincsar, 2018; see Appendix A). I investigated whether analyzing texts with the TAT helps PSTs navigate the ill-defined space of text-based discussion by creating a sort of road map for the discussion that teachers can use to monitor comprehension and respond to student misunderstandings. I also questioned PSTs' epistemological beliefs and considered in what ways they affect their text-based discussions. Finally, I provided experiential knowledge in the form of coaching PSTs through repeated cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussion. In my first study, I explored the impact of these three factors as well as the interplay between them on PSTs use of text-based discussion with students in their field placements.

Based on the results of that initial study, I created an intervention that addressed text analysis. I describe the rationale for the study, the intervention procedures, and the results in Chapter 4. The next sections of this chapter give an overview of both how text-based discussion increases student reading achievement and the empirical research supporting the three factors named above: text analysis, epistemological beliefs, and experiential knowledge.

Text-Based Discussions

Text-based discussion is an instructional technique in the sociocultural tradition (Vygotsky, 1968; 1978), meaning that learning is the result of a social process where concepts are first experienced in interaction with others and then internalized by individuals. More specifically, learning through text-based discussions happens when students bring their individual interpretations of text into conversation with others and either confirm, refine, or revise these interpretations through interaction with teachers and peers. In reading classrooms, authentic teacher questions (i.e., those without a single, pre-determined response; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991) create spaces for these social interactions. Furthermore, these authentic questions position students as important sources of authoritative meaning and engage them in the sensemaking process. Students' positioning is reinforced by teachers' third turn moves, especially uptake. When teachers uptake students' ideas they encourage students to interact with and build upon each other's thoughts (e.g., Sherry, 2010) and send the signal that students' diverse perspectives are not only valuable they are essential to the meaning-making process. It is the students' sharing of their own textual interpretations that move the process forward.

Students engaged in text-based discussion use higher-order comprehension strategies including generating and evaluating an argument, supporting ideas with evidence from text, and synthesizing multiple perspectives expressed by text and other discussion participants. Achievement is thus the product of students' active engagement in tasks that require them to think deeply to articulate their perspectives, to defend their ideas with evidence, and to synthesize across sources of information (e.g., Applebee et al., 2003; Kelly, 2007). Through interaction with others, students test their ideas against

the ideas of others, using feedback to both self-correct and refine their thinking (Wilkinson et al., 2017). Once this social process becomes internalized, the students gain the ability to self-monitor their comprehension when reading independently (Almasi & Garas-York, 2009).

Large-scale quantitative studies (Applebee et al., 2003) and metasyntheses (Murphy, et al., 2009; Soter, et al., 2008) articulated specific features of text-based discussion that lead to student engagement and thus achievement. These features include moves teachers make: asking authentic questions that have no set answer and elicit student thinking, uptaking previously shared ideas into new questions or comments, and creating extended opportunities for students to exchange ideas. Each of these features is designed to produce not just individual instances of student talk but to orient students to one another and text, thus getting students to interact with each other and build ideas collaboratively through this interaction (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991).

Text Analysis

Does analyzing text prior to text-based discussion help PSTs prepare for its improvisational nature? Does it help PSTs understand the affordances and challenges posed by a specific text that may hinder or facilitate student comprehension? When analyzing text, one considers the features of text that convey meaning: its structure and features of that structure, main and supporting ideas and how the two are related, and linguistic features including repeated words/ideas and co-referents, analogies, typographic information such as bold words, and genre-specific connectives (e.g., problem/ solution structure frequently uses *however*, *but*, *despite* to connect ideas). Special attention is paid to text's complexity by noting the important ideas students

should understand and what barriers, either from the reader or from the text, may hinder understanding (Kucan & Palincsar, 2013). The idea of coherence, or how text ideas hang together is especially important to consider. For instance, a text that has many main ideas densely packed or a text that has a main idea that is spread throughout the book (rather than having the idea connected) is more complex (Graesser et al., 2003). Readers of these more complex texts will have to do additional work and may need assistance from a teacher to understand them. When a teacher analyzes texts prior to text-based discussions, they may anticipate and plan responses to potential student challenges in a manner that facilitates students' sensemaking.

The ability to analyze text can be seen as a form of specialized knowledge useful for leading text-based discussion. However, teachers may not commonly possess this knowledge. Kucan et al. (2011) found in-service teachers did not notice specific text features that make text complex and thus potentially challenging to student comprehension. Graesser, et al. (2003) argued that is likely because they were unaware of them. Additionally, teachers had difficulty integrating supporting ideas to determine the main idea of a text and failed to notice confusing information that could affect students' understanding (Kucan, et al., 2011). Meneses, et al. (2018) extended these findings to PSTs.

Kucan and Palincsar (2018) developed and piloted a graphic organizer, the Text Analysis Tool (TAT), teachers can use when analyzing text. The researchers argued the TAT "provides teachers with specific information that they can use during discussions to engage students in noticing and using text features to comprehend important ideas" (p. 100). If teachers were able to complete the TAT, is it possible that they could then use the

information articulated on it to plan and lead discussions with students? Is it possible that identifying before the discussion both the information students should understand as well as places where that comprehension is likely to break down would help teachers monitor student comprehension and respond to misunderstandings? I was able to find no published research to date that addressed these questions.

Epistemological Beliefs

The broad question driving this section is in what ways do teachers' epistemological beliefs impact their willingness and capacity to learn about and use text-based discussion? I follow Hofer and Pintrich (1997) in defining epistemological beliefs as, "how individuals come to know, the theories and beliefs they hold about knowing, and the manner in which such epistemological premises are a part of and an influence on the cognitive processes of thinking and reasoning" (p. 88). Although research questioning the effect of epistemological beliefs on teachers' instruction can be "messy" (Pajares, 1992, p. 307), meaning difficult to conduct and thus interpret, there is consensus that beliefs are used as a lens to interpret information (e.g., Hofer & Pintrich, 2002).

Teacher beliefs may be especially relevant to text-based discussion. As a sociocultural technique, text-based discussion requires teachers understand their role is to facilitate students' collaborative meaning-making. They also must view knowledge as construct-able and students as capable in engaging in this process. Wilkinson et al. (2017) argued instructional approaches, like text-based discussion, that view student talk as a means of thinking, learning, and problem solving are "incompatible" (p. 68) with two types of epistemological beliefs. One such belief sees knowledge as fixed, certain, and

independent of human thinking while according to the second, all knowledge is inherently subjective and all opinions are equally valid.

Several studies questioned the effect of teachers' epistemological beliefs on their learning about and leading text-based discussion. Alvermann and Hayes (1989) and Seymour and Osana (2003) found that even after extended one-on-one coaching, their teachers did not fully embrace the sociocultural approach to teaching and learning. Teachers continued to view their role as authoritative source of meaning instead of shifting the power dynamics of the classroom to privilege student thinking. This attitude may impede novices' successful, long-term adoption of the sociocultural principles behind text-based discussion and the specific moves that bring them to life. The findings of Wilkinson, et al. (2017) contrast slightly. These authors found teachers, after nearly a year-long professional development program, significantly improved their ability to lead inquiry dialogues (a form of text-based discussion) but did not change their epistemological beliefs, as measured by the *Reflective Judgment Interview* (King & Kitchener, 1994), a validated measure of epistemological beliefs. Wilkinson and colleagues hypothesized several reasons for this disconnect between beliefs and instruction including professional development may have been insufficient to change beliefs and the possibility "that changes in practice precede changes in beliefs or the relationship is reciprocal" (p. 78). Although the findings of these studies are different each one adds credence to the idea that there is a relationship between teacher beliefs and text-based discussion.

Experiential Knowledge

Because text-based discussion is not common in K-12 classrooms (Applebee et al., 2003; Cazden, 2001; Nystrand, 1997; Nystrand et al., 2003; Reisman et al., 2015), many teachers, both pre- and in-service have not been exposed to text-based discussion as students or as interns in their field placements. There are consequences to this lack of exposure: they may not believe “their” students are capable of either the higher-order thinking or the collaboration required by text-based discussion and they do not understand or see the value in creating contexts where this thinking and collaborating happen. Changing these two realities does not happen instantaneously. PSTs need time and practice to understand how to lead text-based discussion; students also need time to adjust to their new roles as authoritative interpreters before they are able to collaboratively build meaning (Murphy et al., 2018).

Many studies that question the preparation of teachers, either pre- or in-service, provide multiple opportunities to practice planning and leading text-based discussion. The experiential knowledge gained from multiple practice opportunities includes understanding the types of questions that are productive for inviting multiple student responses and perspectives (e.g., Beck et al., 1996; Murphy et al., 2018), how to monitor student comprehension and flexibly use third turn moves to respond to misunderstandings (Juzwik et al., 2012, Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017), and comfort in their role of facilitator of student meaning making following a gradual release (cf. Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) of interpretive authority to students (e.g., Beck et al., 1996; Soter et al., 2008).

Overview of the Two-Study Design

This dissertation consists of two sequentially related studies, which taken together address questions regarding how teacher educators can develop PSTs' ability to lead text-based discussions with students. I completed the first study in Spring 2020 and used its results to inform the design of the second study. I strategically chose this method because of the lack of consensus in existing literature regarding the factors that influence PSTs when learning about and leading text-based discussions.

Study One was an exploratory multiple case study of seven senior PSTs all enrolled in their capstone literacy methods class and working in their field placements. This study took a holistic look at the ways in which epistemological beliefs, instruction in text analysis, and repeated cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions affected PSTs' leading of discussions with students in their field placements. Results indicated that PSTs' epistemological beliefs affected their text-based discussions, they lacked some specialized knowledge needed to analyze text and use this information to help students negotiate text meaning in the text-based discussions, and some gained experiential knowledge in the form of specific moves they could make to shift interpretive authority to students.

Two PSTs had pre-reflective thinking (King & Kitchener, 1994) meaning they saw knowledge as fixed and lacked a method for evaluating opinions. These two PST, Mary and Taylor, accordingly struggled to give students interpretive authority in their text-based discussions. They also demonstrated the least amount of change in their discussions across the semester. Four PSTs demonstrated quasi-reflective thinking where they saw knowledge as idiosyncratic but were beginning to establish a method for

evaluating opinions. These participants, Heather, Meredith, McKenna, and Lara, willingly ceded interpretive authority to students over the course of the semester but struggled to create tasks where students collaboratively build higher-order understandings of text. One participant, Malika, had reflective thinking. She had a clearly established method for evaluating opinions and saw knowledge as socially constructed. In her text-based discussion she both created a task where students negotiated meaning and fully ceded interpretive authority to students through her third turn move of uptake.

On their TATs participants demonstrated some awareness specialized knowledge useful for analyzing texts. They were often able to identify the text structure/organization and micro features including repeated and bold words. There was more inconsistency in their ability to identify main and supporting ideas, features of text structure, and genre-specific connectives such as *first*, *next*, and *then* for temporal texts. Finally, there was a striking, near universal lack of ability to write coherent text summaries that connected main and supporting ideas or to use information identified in the TAT to help students build understanding of how text features (e.g., structure-specific connectives) convey meaning in the text-based discussion.

These findings informed the design of Study Two. This study, as described in Chapter 4, used a pretest/posttest control group design and situated in two pre-existing sections of TLPL488R. One section served as a business-as-usual control group while the other section received a semester-long intervention into text analysis. PSTs received direct instruction on macro and micro features of text including text structures and their common features, how to evaluate features of specific texts that made them complex, and how to decipher main and supporting ideas. Participants completed hands-on activities

where they analyzed narrative and informational texts that exemplified specific structures, poems, and articles using the TAT. In class, they engaged in discussions of how to use this information in text-based discussions. Participants also learned the theoretical foundations of text-based discussion including the importance of student engagement in the tasks and specific moves, such as uptake that they can use to effectively bring student voices and perspectives into conversation. The fact that this instruction took place over the course of an entire semester will encourage something not fully present in Study One: multiple opportunities to gain content knowledge and to apply this knowledge as PSTs rehearsed making teaching decisions.

Definition of Key Terms

Authentic question: a question with no pre-determined answer that thus invites multiple interpretations and responses (Applebee, et al., 2003; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Soter et al., 2008).

Comprehension: both the process of and product of constructing meaning from text. Includes two levels: basic and higher order. Basic-level comprehension includes “locating, understanding, and recalling text-explicit information” (Afflerbach et al., 2015, p. 205). Higher-order comprehension includes inferencing, evaluating text context, synthesizing across sources of information, and application of information to novel contexts. Comprehension is affected by both reader and text factors. Reader factors include background knowledge, knowledge of text structures/genres, motivation, metacognition (i.e., the ability to monitor one’s own thinking when reading), and decoding skills. Text factors include whether a text has multiple text structures within a single text, complex language, signals changes of topic, to name just a few.

Elaborated explanation: A single student offers an explanation in detail. Can include “building of an idea step-by-step, giving reasons for a statement or expanding on a statement” (Soter et al., 2008, p. 381).

Exploratory talk: Multiple students reason collaboratively. They “build and share knowledge over several turns, evaluate evidence, and consider options. (Soter et al., 2008, p. 381). Reasoning words such as *because, if so, I think, I agree, I disagree, maybe* are often seen.

Macro features: how text information is organized. Includes text type (informational, fiction, hybrid), text structure, and text genre (Reutzel et al., 2016) and features of text structure or genre, including information contained in graphs, diagrams, or images (Kucan & Palincsar, 2018). Also includes main and supporting ideas and whether these ideas are coherently organized or dispersed across the text (Graesser et al., 2003).

Metalanguage: the names and definitions of text-based discussion components captured in a coding manual. PSTs then use this coding manual when analyzing examples of text-based discussions as well as in planning, delivering, and reflecting on their own discussions conducted with students. As such, metalanguage became a useful tool in the PSTs’ inquiry into their own teaching (or rehearsals of teaching) because it helped them understand both the problem(s) in their current teaching and the possibilities for changes in their practices (Richardson, 1994, as cited in Kucan, 2009).

Micro features: specific language features that support or inhibit comprehension of text (Kucan & Palincsar, 2018). Includes repeated words or ideas, including co-referents (e.g., words, phrases, or pronouns that refer to the same concept); specific vocabulary, typographic clues such as bold words; numeric details; analogies; connectives (e.g.,

causal connectives: *because, consequently, as a result*; temporal connectives: *then, next, first, second, finally*; Crosson & Lesaux, 2016)

Novice*: an in-service or preservice teacher unfamiliar with text-based discussion who is learning about and leading discussions with support from university-based researchers.

Preservice Teacher*: a future teacher currently enrolled in teacher education course work. In the context of this dissertation, all preservice teachers are seniors who are both taking classes in the university setting and are student teaching in the field.

*at times throughout this dissertation the term novice is used instead of preservice teacher. I do so because some empirical literature used in-service teachers solely or in combination with PSTs as their sample. All teachers, whether pre- or in-service were novices to text-based discussions

Specialized knowledge: knowledge important to leading of text-based discussions.

Includes two main forms: ability to analyze text and facility with discourse moves useful for positioning students as active meaning makers. As Kucan and colleagues (2011) argue, “specialized knowledge for text-based discussion includes not simply familiarity with an array of questioning and responding techniques but also a well-developed representation of what comprehension is, how features of a text can support or inhibit comprehension, and how questions and responses can support students in their efforts to comprehend” (p. 63).

Text-based discussion: the process of collectively building high-level comprehension of text among a group of students who use each other and text as sources of meaning. This definition is not particular to a certain genre of text; it can be applicable to exploration of key ideas in an informational text or to themes in narrative fiction or to synthesis across

multiple primary source documents. Teachers' role in this process is two-fold: first, they ask questions that require extended exploration of text ideas and go well beyond literal, surface level understandings. Second, they support students as they do the heavy lifting of engaging deeply with the text and with each other by helping students link their ideas and those conveyed in the text together.

Third turn moves: the teacher's third move in an instructional pattern. The first move in this pattern is a question the teacher asks, the second move is the student response, and the third move is the teacher's response to the student. In IRE patterns of instruction this move is another unrelated question while in text-based discussion this move serves to return interpretive authority to students.

Uptake: a third turn move in which teachers or other students incorporate what was previously said into their comment or question. Uptake is frequently marked with personal pronouns (Applebee, et al., 2003; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Soter et al., 2008).

Summary

In summary, nearly 40 years of empirical research offers support for text-based discussion as an instructional technique with the potential to break persistent patterns of basic-level student reading achievement (e.g., NAEP, 2019). However, text-based discussions are infrequently used in classrooms (e.g., Nystrand, 1997), which suggests there is something preventing more teachers from utilizing them in the classroom. This two-study dissertation sought to identify the ways in which three factors impacted PSTs learning about and using discussion. These three factors are use of specialized knowledge; experiential knowledge gained from repeated cycles of planning, leading, and

reflecting on discussions; and epistemological beliefs. In the following chapters, I present the findings from a formal review of the literature concerning these three factors as well as literature related to text-based discussion, the methods and results for two studies, and a conclusion that synthesized findings across the two studies in an attempt to answer the research questions. Findings from this dissertation have implications for teacher educators who seek to understand what PSTs need to know and be able to do in order to lead text-based discussions and how teacher educators can create learning experiences that lead to PSTs acquiring the ability to lead discussions.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

There is a nascent but growing body of work that has questioned how teachers, either pre- or in-service, learn about text-based discussion. These studies have articulated the components of discussion, the theoretical understandings necessary behind them, the specific moves teachers make in them, and the ways in which teachers have learned how to lead text-based discussions with students. This chapter presents this empirical research. I begin by discussing the theory behind both text-based discussion as an effective instructional strategy and how it can be effectively taught to novice teachers. I frame the latter point using language of practice-based teacher education (e.g., McDonald et al., 2013). Practice-based teacher education, according to Grossman and colleagues (2009) and Ball and Forzani (2009), calls for text-based discussion to be *represented*, *decomposed*, and *approximated* in order to be meaningfully taken up by PSTs. The task of text-based discussion is decomposed when the specific practices included in the task are illustrated and explained; they are represented when PSTs are, for example, exposed to instances of masters engaging in the task; and they are approximated when novices attempt them on their own. I follow several researchers including Kucan et al. (2009) and Meneses et al. (2018) in arguing that text analysis should be included in the decomposition of text-based discussion. This chapter closes with a discussion of epistemological beliefs and the research that has questioned their impact on novices' leading of text-based discussions.

Text-Based Discussion and Comprehension

Several theoretical models of reading comprehension support the acquisition of higher-order comprehension strategies through text-based discussion, notably The Construction Integration Model (Kintsch, 1998) and the Landscape Model of Reading (van den Broek, et al., 1998). Kintsch (1998) argued that reading comprehension happens as readers construct a multi-layered representation of text, beginning with surface representation where readers decode written words and sentences, moving into the text base of literal meanings of these words and sentences, and finally constructing a situation model where a mental image of text is constructed by integrating text information with an individual reader's background knowledge. van den Broek and colleagues (1998) also argued that comprehension is the result of a reader constructing a mental representation of text by integrating of text elements and the reader's own background knowledge and experiences.

There are factors at both the individual and text level that potentially impact students' ability to construct these mental representations. At the individual level, students' comprehension is affected by familiarity with the text topic, vocabulary awareness, and understanding of how writers convey meaning (e.g., through use of text structures and their common features as well as linguistic elements such as connectives that indicate the relationship between ideas), their motivation, and metacognitive awareness. At the textual level, texts can be either simpler or more complex, with more complex texts clearly posing more potential difficulties to student comprehension. Text complexity is affected by coherence (Graesser et al., 2003), whether a text adheres to text structure (e.g., a biography that is written in chronological order displays a common

feature of the text structure), and the level of vocabulary included. Each reader brings both their own unique background knowledge as well as reading skills and strategies to bear when comprehending a text, which ultimately affects their interpretations of text (e.g., Afflerbach et al., 2015).

Text-based discussions provide opportunities for students to build on their individually constructed situation models. Through collaboration, students share their own interpretations of text with their peers and the peers in turn help each other construct and refine the text representation. Students revise their own thoughts and arguments and assist their peers in this work by using text evidence to support their ideas. This process allows students to address potential misunderstandings in their own representations by seeing not only the representations of others but how their peers formed their representations.

Text-based discussion, as an instructional technique in the sociocultural tradition, holds the point of interaction as the key to learning. Students can acquire reading comprehension skills such as evaluating arguments and synthesizing across multiple sources of information from interactions with their peers and teachers. They first experience the skill in collaboration with others who bring their unique skills and perspectives out into the open. This public sharing of information serves as a model for the student to acquire new skills or refine the ones they already have. Observing the thoughts of their peers may be more beneficial to students' learning than hearing the same ideas spoken by their teachers. This may be because the language of their peers more closely mirrors their own patterns of thought and speech and thus may be easier to understand and internalize (Cohen, 1994; Noddings, 1989; Patrick et al., 2007). Students

experiment with this skill, share tentative ideas in discussion where they receive feedback from others. Students then mentally process these skills independently, integrating it with their own ideas and experiences, with the end result of the process of interaction and internalization being a skill meaningfully situated in a student's own mental process and available for use in future situations (Almasi & Garas-York, 2009).

Described in the paragraph above is an instructional context where students are actively engaged. However, this engagement is a necessary but not sufficient criterion of student reading achievement; students must hold and exercise interpretive authority where they take “responsibility for co-constructing understandings together” (Soter et al., 2008, p. 376). Discourse moves, including the types of questions teachers pose and how they respond to students, not only foster engagement but they position students as having interpretive authority (Applebee et al., 2003; Dwyer et al., 2016; Murphy et al., 2009; 2018; Nystrand, 1997; Soter et al., 2008). Teachers should ask authentic questions that do not have a single pre-determined answer. By asking these kinds of questions, teachers not only create space for students to bring their diverse interpretations of text into conversation, they also demand higher order thinking. This higher order thinking can take the form of synthesizing across multiple sources of information including texts and peers (Wilkinson et al., 2010), arguing a viewpoint and defending it with evidence (Reznitskaya & Wilkinson, 2015), considering and critiquing an alternate viewpoint (e.g., Beck et al., 1996), or generalizing to a novel context (Nystrand et al., 2003; Reznitskaya et al., 2012). Teachers' responses throughout the discussion solidify students' positioning. These responses encourage students to link their ideas with those of others and the text, to activate background knowledge, and to elaborate or extend their thinking.

Socializing students to exercise their interpretive authority often takes time (Murphy et al., 2018). Teachers can facilitate this process by establishing norms for conversation including having students speak loud enough for their peers to hear them, actively listen, and be willing to request clarification as needed (Michaels & O'Connor, 2012).

However, in order for students to successfully engage in higher-order thinking within text-based discussions, students must have established their own interpretation of text by understanding the text at a literal level. For many students, this literal level understanding remains a challenge. Teachers have two possible steps to take to create opportunities for these students to participate in text-based discussions. First, they can read the text to students so the labor of decoding the text does not prohibit comprehension. Second, teachers can situate text-based discussions within an instructional sequence where students first establish literal understanding. Teachers would then ensure this literal level understanding through IRE-type question patterns and would then ask students to apply, synthesize, and infer beyond literal level in text-based discussions.

Preparing Teachers to Facilitate Text-Based Discussions

Text-based discussion as an instructional technique is not new. However, the preparation of teachers who can lead discussions has recently been a topic of increased scholarly activity. This focus is likely because of the identification of text-based discussion as a core practice (e.g. McDonald et al., 2013) that can be taught through practice-based teacher education. Practice-based teacher education, as stated earlier, calls for core practices to be represented, decomposed, and approximated in order to be meaningfully taken up by PSTs (Ball & Forzani, 2009; Grossman et al., 2009). In the

next sections I describe the components included in decompositions of text-based discussion as well as the methods for representing and approximating it.

How is the Task of Text-Based Discussion Decomposed?

Many published studies decomposed text-based discussion into two components: (1) question types that spur discussion and (2) monitoring and supporting the student meaning-making process including how to orient students to text and to one another and the third-turn moves that continue to actively engage students in the meaning-making process. Two articles adopted a practice-based approach (Kucan, 2009; Meneses et al. 2018) also included text analysis as a component of planning for discussions.

Question Types that Spur Discussion

The purpose of this section is not to describe questions that teachers can use during text-based discussion but rather to articulate questions that launch them. Questions of the former type will be described in the section to follow. This breakdown is purposeful because teachers can plan the questions that open their discussion while questions used during them must be on-the-fly and responsive to student needs at that moment. As such, the two types of questions represent two different components of text-based discussion. Both seek to position students as active constructors of meaning but one sets them on the path and the other supports them on their journey.

Most simply stated, questions that spur text-based discussions must be open-ended and invite multiple responses. In other words, the question must be *authentic* (Juzwik, et al., 2012; Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991). It is this type of question that position students as sense-makers through inviting them to openly share their unique perspectives. Although there is a place in discussion for questions that

have a single, factual answer, these questions must serve only to solidify understandings of key information (O'Connor & Michaels, 2007) that the students then use to build higher-order text representations (Kucan, 2009) and interpretations such as synthesizing across multiple perspectives (Reisman et al., 2018) or developing an argument that is supported with text evidence (Wilkinson et al., 2017). Few studies offer specific examples of questions teachers could ask during discussion (the *Queries* of Beck, et al., 1996 is an exception); they instead articulate general guidelines for the purpose of questions used to open discussions. Reisman and colleagues (2018) argued that questions should have students share generate and hypotheses while others say questions should “prime student thinking about the focal point [of] the text” (Alston et al., 2018, p. 229) or should focus students on “big ideas” from text (Wilkinson et al., 2015).

Monitoring and Supporting the Student Meaning-Making Process

This component of text-based discussion most clearly links back to theoretical foundations of reading comprehension as it is this phase of discussion that has the students engaged in the meaning-making process. All studies agreed that the teacher’s role here is to support students in the process of collaboratively building understandings. Teachers do this work both actively by deploying specific discourse moves and passively by demonstrating their receptivity to student reasoning (Reisman et al., 2018) including establishing their membership in the learning community as a participant, not as the source of authoritative meaning. The active moves teachers take include making student ideas public, linking these ideas together, using questions to both monitor and fix breakdowns in student comprehension, and orienting students to text to refine and support arguments. Beck et al. (1996) suggested that teaching moves should also help students

activate background knowledge as many of the texts students are reading do not help them make connections between ideas. These types of moves allow students to call to mind their diverse perspectives in a relevant and meaningful way to the text-based discussion and thus allow more students to participate.

Text Analysis

Several studies (Beck et al., 1996; Kucan, 2009; Kucan et al., 2011; Meneses et al., 2018) included text analysis as a component of text-based discussion. Although this component is not one that students experience, the studies argued that it is a vital component of the practice. Through text analysis, teachers exercise their awareness of how students come to understand text, the linguistic and structural features of texts that convey meaning, and how the specific text under analysis facilitates or inhibits comprehension. Teachers consider the important information in the text as well as the text's complexity. Features that make a text complex or not include "a text's organization and features including convention and unconventional text structures, as well as the inclusion of text features such as signal or clue words or phrases, headings, subheadings, typography, paragraph structure, and graphic displays" (Reutzel et al., 2016). These features also include a text's coherence, or how a text's information is organized. Coherent texts are those that have few conceptual and structural gaps and whose "ideas hang together in a meaningful and organized manner" (Graesser et al., 2003, p. 83), while incoherent ones have information dispersed across the text or may have information presented inadequately or missing altogether (Kucan & Palincsar, 2018).

In their article presenting the TAT, Kucan and Palincsar (2018) argue both macro and micro features are implicated in a text's complexity and are accordingly both

included in text analysis. Macro features include the overall text organization: text type (informational, narrative, or hybrid), text genre (e.g. historical fiction, biography), text structure and their features (Reutzel et al., 2016; see Table 1 for common informational text structures). Main and supporting ideas as well as the information contained in images, timelines, diagrams etc. are also considered macro features. Micro features are linguistic elements including the presence or absence of main idea sentences, typographic cues such as bold words, repetition of words and ideas, co-referents, specific vocabulary words, and analogies or numerical details. Connectives, especially structure specific connectives (see Table 1 below), have been given special attention. “Connectives (e.g. although, meanwhile) carry abstract meanings and often signal key relationships between text ideas, represents a unique domain of vocabulary knowledge that provides special leverage for reading comprehension” (Crosson & Lesaux, 2013, p. 241).

Table 1

Common Informational Text Structures and Connectives

Text Structure	Definition	Common Connectives
Compare and Contrast	Describing similarities and differences between ideas, things, events	While, yet, but, rather, most, either, like, unlike, same, as opposed to
Problem and Solution	Describing an unresolved issue and offering antidotes or solutions	In conclusion, a solution, the question, research shows, evidence is, a reason for
Cause and Effect	Describing how one event impacts another event	Because, consequently, as a result, thus, since, nevertheless, as a result
Sequence (Chronology)	Describing how something changes over time	Then, next, first, second, finally, afterwards

Enumeration	Describing collections or lists	And, also, in addition
Description	Categorizing or generalizing	For example, for instance, such as, namely, that is
Position and Reason	Persuasion, making a claim and supporting it with evidence	Thus, accordingly, because, consequently, as a result
Pro and Con	Benefits and drawbacks of an issue	Despite, but, however, although, on the other hand

Analyzing text's macro and micro features allows teachers to both identify main ideas stated in the text as well as consider, from the perspective of their students, what makes the text complex and difficult to understand. By realizing complex features of text, teachers may be able to anticipate student difficulties and plan their responses to them. The identification of main ideas allows teachers to set the purpose for their discussion and by anticipating of difficulties, teachers may be better prepared to effectively scaffold student meaning-making and thus conduct more effective discussions (Kucan, 2009; Kucan et al., 2011).

How are Text-Based Discussions Approximated and Represented?

The practice of text-based discussion was represented to novices by watching experts conduct discussions (Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017) or evaluating lesson transcripts or videos (Wilkinson et al., 2017). These lesson transcripts or videos could either be of ones' own lesson (Kucan, 2009) or of peers (Juzwik et al., 2012) and the evaluation either happened one-on-one with a researcher (Alvermann & Hayes, 1989) or with other members of a class (Reisman et al., 2018). Some researchers chose to introduce the vocabulary useful for describing these representations (e.g., Beck et al., 1996) before

conducting them while others (e.g., Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017) used the discussions to introduce the vocabulary.

Researchers' approaches to approximation were how they had their novices try out the practice. The vast majority of studies had their novices practice in situ with actual students. Some studies (e.g., Reisman et al., 2018) had novices plan their lessons in class with support from researchers and peers prior to conducting their lessons. Kucan (2009) asked novices to participate in lesson planning sessions where they rehearsed using specific teaching moves to respond to anticipated student difficulties. Others (e.g., Seymour & Osana, 2003) led their novices through one-on-one reflection sessions following a lesson where they collaboratively identified places of improvement for the next lesson and planned that lesson accordingly. Juzwik et al., (2012) interspersed researcher-led instruction on the theoretical basis for text-based discussion with lesson planning, implementation, and reflection and feedback from peers. PSTs used the metalanguage (see list of key terms) in their reflections to evaluate their work and that of others.

Experiential Knowledge

Several studies incorporated repeated opportunities for their novices to practice leading text-based discussions with students. Seymour and Osana (2003), Kucan (2009), Reisman et al. (2018) all had their novices practice text-based discussions multiple times while working directly with researchers. Juzwik and colleagues (2012) also offered a clever means of acquiring experiential knowledge. They created the Video-Based Response and Revision process to allow PSTs to record a 5-minute clip of their text-based discussion with students, share this clip through Voicethread with a small group of

colleagues, and collaboratively discuss each other's clips. This process was designed to expose students to myriad applications of the principles of text-based discussion PSTs flexibly used to meet the needs of their unique classrooms.

These repeated opportunities provided novices experiential knowledge of text-based discussions that took three key forms. First is the ability to create tasks that have students engage in higher-order thinking. The novices in Beck et al. (1996) shifted from opening their discussions with "retrieve information" questions to "extend discussion" questions, indicating the lessons' instructional focus changed from literal recall of material read to construction of meaning. Second, familiarity with the discourse moves that shift instructional authority to students. Third was the capacity to monitor student comprehension and flexibly respond to misunderstandings in a way that keeps students actively engaged in the meaning-making process. One example of this knowledge includes the PST's ability to know when to ask a factual question or explicitly reference text to clarify confusions but then to step away and return interpretive authority to students. Another example would be PSTs' use of third turn moves. Kavanagh and Rainey (2017), for example, found that novices were able to facilitate discussions with their high school students through flexible use of taught moves. They noted that the novices did frequently use the specific move given in the training program but that they were able to extend this move to situations particular to their classroom context in a way that met their student needs. Juzwik et al. (2012) support this finding. The novices from Beck et al. (1996) also exemplify this knowledge when they shifted from merely repeating student ideas before moving on to linking student ideas through paraphrasing and refining them as part of their next question.

Epistemological Beliefs

Epistemological beliefs refer to individual's beliefs about knowledge—what it means to know, to come to know, and to justify knowledge (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997). They form a lens through which people view the world and interpret new knowledge. Several studies have questioned the relationship between epistemological beliefs and text-based discussion. For instance, Wilkinson et al. (2017), citing research by Hofer (2001), Johnston et al. (2001), Stipek et al. (2001), and Windschitl (2002) argued that teachers must understand their role is to facilitate students' collaborative meaning-making and view knowledge as construct-able and students as capable in engaging in this process. This understanding requires particular epistemological beliefs. Beck and colleagues (1996) argued that teachers should also believe in constructing knowledge through talk and should not see their talk as an instrument of student control. When teachers hold different beliefs, both the decisions they make as teachers as well as their learning about text-based discussion may be affected. Seymour and Osana (2003) found that novices had difficulty understanding the learning principles behind Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984) because “personal preconceptions” (p. 332) influenced their interpretations—they had difficulty shifting to idea that the teacher's job is not to add knowledge to students but is instead to support the students' own collaborative meaning making. Alvermann and Hayes (1989) concluded that their teachers were quite resistant to change, despite the one-on-one coaching they received from researchers, and even those who did make changes, reverted back to pre-intervention approaches to teaching and learning after the researchers left their classrooms. These teachers continued to see classroom instruction as opportunities for

teachers to ask literal questions that transmitted factual knowledge to students and also served to control the classroom by minimizing student talk.

Conversely, some researchers have found that beliefs can also change as a result of learning about text-based discussion. Beck et al. (1996) found that at the beginning of the professional development sequence novices expressed resistance to the idea that (1) teacher talk should not be used as a classroom management tool and (2) that their students would be capable of the work the researchers were showing them. In interviews at the end of the sequence teachers demonstrated shifting beliefs regarding the role of talk as a classroom management tool. Much to their surprise the classroom did not descend into chaos as students began talking to each other more and teachers found they could still direct this student-led conversation. They also discovered that their expectations of student performance should not be limited to “memorize, dictate, and forget” (p. 410) but could be expanded to having them think and learn concepts deeply. Through meaningful and engaging discussions teachers found more students participating in class, even those the teachers previously identified as “slower” or less motivated. Kucan (2007, 2009) found similar conclusions. Professional development appeared to change novices’ beliefs about discussion from viewing them as IRE-type exchanges with the goal of acquiring literal level understanding of text to viewing them as a context for supporting higher-level thinking about text. In evaluating their own transcripts teachers noticed when the questions they posed to students were not as “productive” as they hoped as they did not lead students to build meaning from text.

Conclusion

As stated earlier, there is no consensus yet regarding how best to prepare PSTs for text-based discussions. However, synthesizing across the bodies of work described above suggests several conclusions. First, decomposing, representing, and approximating text-based discussions with novices appears to help them understand the tasks involved in teaching using discussions and begin to apply them to their teaching with K-12 students. Novices appear to use taught moves to shift types of questions they ask from those asking for literal comprehension of material to ones requiring higher-order comprehension. More than one study, however, documented novices having difficulty linking student ideas together in a manner that encouraged collaborative meaning making amongst the students. Reisman et al. (2018), for example, found that their novices were not able to engage their students as sense makers and instead frequently produced series of questions that evaluated their students' literal comprehension of text. This research team hypothesized that instructor support in creating a lesson plan would ensure novices were able to do this work. They weren't.

Second, some methods of approximation appear to be more beneficial than others. The finding noted by Reisman et al. (2018) above is just one example of approximation that was not helpful in getting novices to flexibly use moves to support the student meaning making process in situ. Seymour and Osana (2003) hypothesized that explicit instruction on the learning principles behind particular instructional moves would help their novices more effectively use these moves. This conclusion was not the one they reached, however. They instead found that the learning principles were disconnected from the actual methods of teaching and were thus not meaningful to their novices. Their

novices demonstrated the most growth in shifting the types of questions they asked students but remained committed to a transmission style of teaching where the teacher's role is to pass knowledge to students rather than positioning it as something that could be collaboratively built by them. It is possible that these teachers' epistemological beliefs were incompatible with the constructivist teaching required in text-based discussions.

So if instructor support in creating lesson plans and direct instruction in the learning principles behind why instructional moves work did not produce text-based discussions that meaningfully engaged students in a collaborative meaning making, what does? Several researchers offer a potential answer. Juzwik et al. (2012), through their Video-Based Response and Revision process, exposed novices to many instances of the principles behind text-based discussion being flexibly applied to novices' classroom contexts. By watching these many videos, commenting on them using the taught metalanguage, and discussing their observations with peers and instructors the novices came to understand what principle they were seeing in action, how the teacher modified it to meet the needs of their individual student, and why this move may have been effective in that situation. This knowledge, coupled with frequent opportunities for the novices to plan, deliver, and receive feedback on their own lessons provided a large amount of experiential knowledge that the researchers conclude helped the novices successfully support their students during discussions. Meneses and colleagues (2018) also support the benefit of experiential knowledge when they conclude that teacher education courses that offer many explicit opportunities for novices to practice conducting text-based discussions are likely to be more effective in helping them learn how to be flexible.

Kucan et al. (2011) suggested that many teachers lack the specialized knowledge they need to be able to facilitate discussions including the ability to analyze text to determine the most important ideas and anticipate student difficulties, monitor student comprehension, and respond to student needs as they attempt to make sense of text during discussion. This lack of specialized knowledge may matter because, “if understanding the texts is difficult then even more complex is learning how to gather evidence of student comprehension and knowing how to scaffold comprehension through discussion” (Meneses et al., 2018, p. 128). Would supplying this knowledge help novices lead text-based discussions with students? No published study I was able to locate asked this question. It is accordingly difficult to comment on the actual effect a lack of specialized knowledge has on teachers’ ability to lead text-based discussions with students.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS AND RESULTS OF STUDY ONE

Study One was an exploratory multiple case study (Yin, 1994) of seven female PST, all of whom were second semester seniors in the College of Education at a large mid-Atlantic university enrolled in their capstone elementary teacher education class.

Three research questions guided this study:

1. In what ways does instruction in text analysis influence preservice teachers' planning and leading of text-based discussion?
2. In what ways do preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs affect their learning about and leading text-based discussions?
3. What, if any, experiential knowledge do preservice teachers gain in repeated cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions?

Qualitative case study was an appropriate choice for this study as the research questions guiding the study were ones of *how*—how do epistemological beliefs, specialized knowledge, and experiential knowledge affect participants' leading of text-based discussions with students? This research also occurred in its natural context, namely the university classroom and participants' field placements. Finally, Glaser and Strauss (1967; 2017) argued for the use of qualitative data in the generating of theory which can later be validated and tested. Although this study does not seek to generate “a grand theory” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 10), it does attempt to synthesize across three bodies of work in a way published research has not yet accomplished. The end result of this first study was also hypotheses that formed the research questions for study two.

Context for the Study

This study was situated in two sections of elementary education seniors' capstone class, with approximately 40 seniors enrolled in these sections. This class was structured so the seniors had four day-long classes in the university classroom prior to entering their field placements full time. They remained in their field placements until school closures due to COVID-19 on March 13, 2020. While in their field placements the seniors completed three units of study: active discussion, writing lessons, and writing conferences. Each unit consisted of several instructional modules where seniors read scholarly texts, watched and analyzed videos, analyzed their field placement classrooms using concepts introduced in these texts and videos, and considered how they would apply these concepts to their own classroom. Units also had a learning log activity in which seniors led instruction with students and reflected on their learning. At times their peers watched and provided feedback while at other times this process was completed independently. Units culminated in a "Face to Face" session in which the university instructor, teaching assistant(s), and the seniors at each field placement gathered to watch two seniors deliver instruction with a group of their students and gave feedback. For instance, participants Taylor, Mary, McKenna, and Meredith were all placed at Lemon Tree Elementary¹. For their Face to Face session for active discussion, these four participants gathered with the university instructor and me, watched Taylor and Mary each lead an active discussion with students, and gave them feedback on their discussion.

¹ All participant, student, and school names are pseudonyms

Instruction in Discussions

All seniors received direct instruction on active discussion while in the university classroom in a four-week long unit that contained two modules. Active discussion is “an aspect of active learning in which students are actively and experientially involved in the learning process. [It is] characterized by decentralized social and interpretive authority” (course power point)². This instruction consisted of watching and analyzing videos, exploring conversational norms seniors could set for discussions, and seeing examples of authentic questions and third turn moves they could use to get students actively involved in meaning making. Seniors also considered case studies comparing classrooms characterized by authentic questions and student interpretive authority with classrooms more teacher-centered, IRE patterned instruction.

Within this active discussion unit, seniors completed one module on text analysis adapted from Kucan and Palincsar (2013). I presented power points and discussed the theoretical roots of text-based discussion, introduced seniors to the moves teachers can use to get students engaged in higher-order thinking and collaboratively building knowledge in text-based discussion, and overviewed analyzing texts. Instruction in text analysis included:

- evaluating text macro features: genre, structure, main ideas; detecting potentially confusing information;
- noticing micro features: linguistic text elements including typographic cues, co-referents, genre-specific connectives (e.g., problem/solution structure frequently

² Course power point created by Dr. J. O’Flahavan

uses *however, but, despite* to connect ideas), and the importance of repeated information.

Seniors also received the Text Analysis Tool (TAT) to use when analyzing texts and practiced analyzing their first texts with support and guidance from their peers and me.

Participants

Following this module, I analyzed the seniors' TATs. Because the TAT is not a validated measure, it did not permit normative claims about the seniors' level of specialized knowledge. However, I was able to make comparisons across the group of seniors and selected 12 who demonstrated a range of specialized knowledge on their TATs. I solicited these seniors for participation in the study and seven agreed to participate. These seven are identified as "participants" for the duration of this chapter. This decision was designed to produce a sample with maximum variation (Maxwell, 2013). Although variation was only known in regard to one variable, I hypothesized that a sample of participants with differing levels of specialized knowledge would lead to variation in participants' epistemological beliefs and within their text-based discussions.

Researcher Positionality

In this section I address both my involvement in this study as a participant observer and my positionality. As a participant observer, I worked directly with the participants to provide instruction on text analysis in the university classroom and coaching participants in their field placements. Coaching happened in reflection sessions after the discussions and as requested before it. In reflection sessions I talked about strengths noted in the text-based discussion as well as concrete suggestions for improving the next discussion. I also made myself available to participants as they analyzed texts

and planned their text-based discussions. Several participants wanted to talk about their discussions before they led them. In these instances, I talked about how the texts were organized and gave participants suggestions of questions they could ask during the discussion.

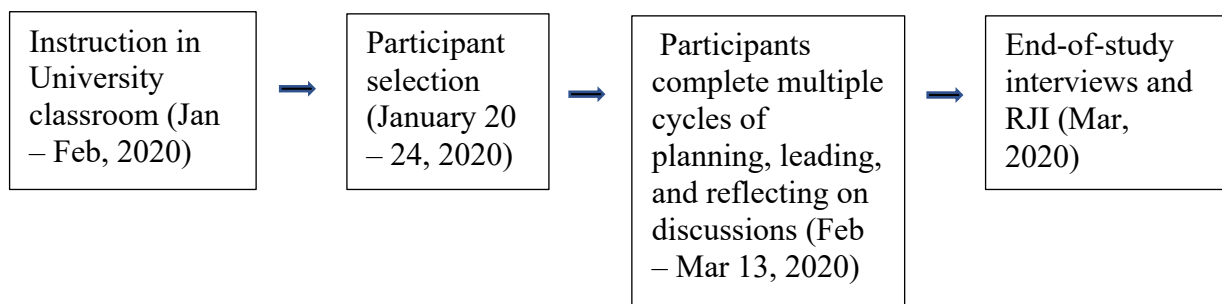
I come to this research as a teacher with a constructivist orientation (Fosnot & Perry, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978; Piaget, 1971). Accordingly, I believe a teacher's role is one of facilitator of student meaning making and that interpretive authority should be shared between teachers and their students. This stance led me to this dissertation, but it also likely affects my data collection and analysis. I have tried to mitigate any potential bias by collecting data from multiple sources, triangulating, and including interviews where participants share their perspectives and intentions.

Procedures

After the four weeks of instruction in the university classroom, participants entered their field placements. I asked participants to select a small group of students and complete at least two cycles of instruction where they analyzed texts with the TAT, led the discussion of that text and reflected on their discussion with me afterwards. At the end of these cycles, participants completed an interview. A diagram of these procedures is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Study Timeline



To begin a cycle, participants first selected a text. These texts were either guided reading books they or their mentor selected, read aloud texts, or in the case of McKenna's poems, were texts required by the curriculum. Each participant used the TAT to analyze a text prior to the text-based discussion and submitted it to me, along with a copy of the text (note: Mary did not use the TAT to analyze her text prior to the third discussion).

Participants then led the text-based discussion on these texts with the same small group of students in their field placements. They either audio recorded the discussion and sent me the file, or I went out to their field placements and observed and recorded the discussion myself.

The cycle was complete after the reflection session. Reflection sessions occurred after each text-based discussion. In some instances, these sessions were held in person, right after the discussion while in other cases they were 24-48 hours delayed. In both cases, recordings were used as part of a stimulated recall (Calderhead, 1981) reflection. These stimulated recall reflections provided opportunities for me to coach participants and to help them acquire experiential knowledge useful for planning and leading discussions with students. In a reflection, we listened to the discussion recording and stopped in key places, especially where students demonstrated confusion. I frequently initiated the stop of the recording in these places but at times the participant requested we stop and discuss something. In these moments we talked about the teaching moves each participant used and whether there were others she could have tried. To close the reflection, I asked participants what they wanted to take from that cycle of planning, leading, and reflecting on a text-based discussion into their future cycles.

Prior to completing the study, each participant completed a one-on-one interview with me where we discussed their experiences within the study and also completed the Reflective Judgment Interview (RJI; King & Kitchener, 1994).

Data Sources and Analysis

Multiple data sources including the TAT, discussion transcripts, reflection sessions, interviews, the RJI, and field notes informed this study. Data sources and the dates I collected them are included in Table 2. Each data source as well as its method of use in this study are discussed in subsequent sections.

Table 2

Study One Data Sources

Participant	TAT for text to be used in discussion	Text-based discussion	Reflection	RJI	Active Discussion Log Entry
Lara	Feb. 11	Feb. 11	Feb. 11	Mar. 25	Feb. 10 Feb. 11 Feb. 13
Malika	Feb. 5	Feb. 5	Feb. 5	Mar. 18	Jan. 31 Feb. 3 Feb. 4
Meredith	Feb. 4 Feb. 17	Feb. 12 Feb. 20	Feb. 12 Feb. 20	Mar. 24	Jan. 29 Feb. 4 Feb. 12
Heather	Feb. 4 Feb. 20	Feb. 5 Feb. 21	Feb. 5 Feb. 23	Mar. 23	Feb. 5 Feb. 21
Taylor	Feb. 3 Feb. 27	Feb. 4 Feb. 29	Feb. 4 Feb. 29	Mar. 17	Feb. 3 Feb. 4 Feb. 14
McKenna	Feb. 4 Feb. 10 Feb. 16	Feb. 7 Feb. 11 Feb. 16	Feb. 9 Feb. 13 Feb. 17	Mar. 28	Feb. 6 Feb. 11 Feb. 13

Mary	Jan. 27	Feb. 4	Feb. 4	Mar. 19	Feb. 3
	Feb. 22	Feb. 24	Mar. 3		Feb. 4
	not completed	Mar. 4	Mar. 19		Feb. 12

The varying data sources allowed me to both triangulate findings across data sources and also to explore the relationship between epistemological beliefs, as indicated on the RJI, the TAT, and text-based discussions. In fitting with the goals of multiple case study, I first explored each participant's experiences individually and compared findings across cases to look for patterns of experiences as well as meaningful deviations from these patterns.

Text Analysis Tool

The Text Analysis Tool (TAT) is presented in Appendix A. Designed and piloted by Kucan and Palincsar (2018), this tool provides a template for teachers to use when planning text-based discussions. In completing the TAT, teachers determine both the important content included in a text and how this content is presented. When considering how content is presented, teachers investigate the overall coherence of the text, its complexity, and the macro and micro features of a text and how these features inhibit or facilitate student reading comprehension. As they complete the TAT teachers are asked to consider the text's complexity from the perspectives of their students. They answer questions such as *is there information in the text that might distract students from focusing on important content?* and *is there information needed to understand important text ideas missing from the text or inadequately explained?*

I coded the TAT using the coding manual in Appendix B. I designed this code book to identify specialized knowledge displayed by participants and accordingly noted

which macro and micro features participants noticed as well as the main and supporting ideas they listed and whether the two were connected. The code book also permitted judgment about the accuracy of this information or whether it was missing completely. Because it is entirely possible that I do not possess the specialized knowledge needed to correctly analyze text (e.g., Graesser et al., 2003; Kucan et al., 2009) and code participant responses I also formed an expert panel of two reading specialists who each coded the TATs independently. Prior to their coding, I met with the experts to overview the TAT and codebook as well as to establish interrater agreement when coding. In this meeting, I gave the experts a text one participant used for her text-based discussion and the corresponding completed TAT. We then each read the text, analyzed the text ourselves using the TAT, coded the TAT, and discussed any inconsistencies in codes. After we agreed on the dimensions of each code, experts independently coded each TAT, which resulted in each TAT being coded multiple times. After coding, I consolidated the codes into a table and sent it to the experts, who made no adjustments to the coding. I then used this table when considering how the specialized knowledge displayed on the TAT affected participants' text-based discussions.

I also completed one additional cycle of coding on the TAT after coding the text-based discussion. In this round of coding I noted whether participants had correctly anticipated the confusions students had in the discussion, including confusing vocabulary or ideas and missing background knowledge. If the participant had not correctly anticipated student confusions, I noted whether the participant commented on this omission in her reflection or if I had to point it out. This phase of coding was helpful in determining whether participants were able to monitor comprehension.

Text-Based Discussion Transcript

Each text-based discussion transcript was audio recorded, either by myself if I were present to observe the discussion or by the participant. Audio recordings were transcribed and I checked each transcription for accuracy. I then coded each transcript using the coding manual in Appendix B. I completed several rounds of coding. In my first round of coding, I used codes from the TAT on the text-based discussion. These codes noted instances where teachers or students used the information from the TAT to build understanding of the text. They also noted places where missing or inaccurate information on the TAT affected student understanding in the discussion. For example, if a participant misidentified a main idea on her TAT, I looked for the main idea named in the text-based discussion and questioned whether this main idea reflected the misidentified one.

For my second round of coding, I divided each transcript into events, which I defined as conversational turns on a single topic. These events ranged in length from a single teacher question and student response to much longer exchanges with multiple teacher and student moves. Heather demonstrates both types of events in this exchange:

- Event 1
- Heather: who are our characters?
 - Vanessa: Emmy and...
- Event 2
- Heather: You have the book...It's Emmy and her family, right. And what's happening?
 - Fabian: they are getting taken to a camp
 - Vanessa: they were invited
 - Heather: they were invited? Does everyone agree?
 - Fabian: Yes
 - Heather: they were invited to this camp??
 - Angelica: no
 - Heather: No, Angelica, what do you think?
 - Angelica: they were sent for because the governor forced them into the prison camp
 - Heather: they were being forced into this prison camp and how do you think Emmy was feeling?

Within these events I looked at both the participant and student functions. First, I coded the participants' moves using the Participant Function Codes (Appendix B). These were deductive codes taken from the literature described in chapter two. I considered the specific discourse moves empirical research has suggested lead to student achievement. Here I questioned what types of questions the participant used to open the discussion as well as throughout its duration, their third turn moves, and whether it is the participant who always initiates the end of one event and the start of the next. For example, in the exchange above, taken from Heather's first discussion, she initiated the change in event.

I paid careful attention for evidence of one type of event: synthesizing information across a variety of sources, including peers and text. According to Applebee and colleagues (2003), this synthesis represents a type of higher order thinking that is linked to achievement. When students synthesize, they are also performing the task at the core of text-based discussion: they are constructing knowledge about the text but also about how text features and language convey meaning (e.g., Kucan & Palincsar, 2013). This latter point is not bound by context but is instead knowledge students can carry with them to the next text they read (Reznitskaya et al., 2012). Synthesis is also a place to draw conclusions regarding whether the participant or the students held the final interpretive authority. If students did this work, they were ultimately constructing meaning whereas if the participant synthesized information, she was telling students what was meaningful. In using the synthesis code, I considered first whether the participant even asked students to synthesize. I then considered whether students struggled with the task, were able to complete it with support, or were able to synthesize independently.

I also coded student responses with the Student Function Codes (Appendix B) within each event. Much like the Participant Function Codes, the Student Function Codes were deductive codes I took from empirical literature. The work of Soter and colleagues (2008) was especially useful here as it articulated specific signs of student active engagement in constructing meaning. Of course, as indicated earlier, it is this engagement that leads to achievement. In this phase of coding, I looked for student responses to participant moves, paying careful attention to instances where they engaged in more collaborative action. These actions took the form of students asking each other questions or requesting evidence and responding to their peers' questions or ideas with either

agreement or disagreement. Soter et al. (2008) called these instances exploratory talk and linked them to student achievement. I also looked for evidence of elaborated explanations—places where individual students reasoned aloud for an extended period of time. Both elaborated explanations and exploratory talk also indicate students are actively engaged in the meaning-making process and have at least some interpretive authority in the discussion.

Finally, I used five participants to question changes across time. Five participants completed multiple cycles of analyzing text with the TAT, leading the discussion, and reflecting on it. With these participants I coded changes in their text-based discussions including the amount of their talk, student talk, types of questions asked, and whether interpretive authority shifted from teachers to students over time. I also investigated whether their reflections changed and whether they demonstrated more specialized knowledge on the TAT.

Reflection Session

Reflection sessions were structured as stimulated recall (Calderhead, 1981) where participants listened to recordings of their discussions and discussed their thinking and actions in the moment. Stimulated recall provided opportunity to use the transcript to “push respondents to sharper concentration by asking them to examine and respond to a specific statement, a story, an artifact, a quotation, or some such” (Stake, 2010, p. 97). This reflection was semi-structured; the protocol is included in the Appendix C. I opened the session by asking participants to describe general feelings about the text-based discussion and offering them opportunities to ask me any questions. I then played back the recording of the discussion. Either the participant or I would stop in key places and

describe the teaching move the participant used as well as the rationale for that move and its effect on students. To close the reflection, I asked questions about the planning with the TAT and whether it helped participants in the discussion as well as what they wanted to take from that cycle of planning, leading, and reflecting on a text-based discussion into their future cycles.

We consistently stopped in places where students demonstrated confusion. I would ask the participant whether she anticipated that confusion and asked her to recreate her decision-making process as she scaffolded students through that confusion. These exchanges allowed me to get a sense of how the participant was feeling in the moment. Was she feeling flustered or in control of the situation? If it was the latter, did that help her give students interpretive authority? If it was the former, was she becoming like the teachers studied by Moos & Pitton (2014) who were overwhelmed and unable or unwilling to respond to students' interpretations? This questioning also allowed me to explore the connection between planning with the TAT. Did planning help participants feel more in control? Did it help them monitor comprehension in the discussion?

Reflection sessions were recorded and transcribed and I checked transcriptions for accuracy. I used the same codes from the TAT, Participant Function codes and Student Function codes (Appendix B) in this data source as well. Coding in this manner allowed me to triangulate by confirming and/or refining findings from other sources. It also added validity to these findings because they are in the participant's own voice. For example, when a participant named the goal she had for the text-based discussion, it confirmed or refined what the expert panel coded in the TAT and the discussion. Asking for the participant's perspectives also allowed me to see her intentions. These intentions may be

different from her actions or my perceptions of them. For example, it is possible that the participant wanted to release interpretive authority to students but could not because students were unwilling to talk to each other. Finally, the reflection gave me an additional opportunity to see specialized knowledge the participant may not have demonstrated on the TAT. It is possible, for instance, that the participant knew more features of a text structure than she included on her TAT. If this happened, I would count specialized knowledge identified in the reflection.

Interviews

Each participant completed an interview at the end of the study via Zoom, due to COVID-19 and the state's requirement that we socially distance. This interview consisted of two phases and took approximately an hour to complete. All interviews were recorded but only the audio was saved and transcribed. Exactly like the others, I checked these transcriptions for accuracy. The first phase of the interview was semi-structured and followed the protocol in Appendix D. When scheduling the interview, I asked each participant to prepare answers to two questions: (1) how do they think students comprehend text? and (2) what is their teaching philosophy? In addition, participants discussed whether they had participated in text-based discussions as students, either in K-12 or in college, or whether they had learned about it in previous teacher education classes. Participants reflected on how they learned about text-based discussions throughout this course. Was watching videos helpful? Receiving direct instruction? Practicing text-based discussions with their students in their field placements? I also asked participants whether they thought they will continue to use text-based discussions with their students.

This phase of the interview provided a valuable source of triangulation, especially participants' epistemological beliefs and TATs. As we will see in the next section, the RJI (King & Kitchener, 1994) provides a validated measure of participants' epistemological beliefs. However, it is possible that this measure is insufficiently sensitive to nuances within individuals' belief structures (Wilkinson et al., 2017), nuances that could potentially have implications for participants' instructional decisions. For example, Buehl and Alexander (2005) argued that beliefs are domain-specific and that "although students may hold beliefs about knowledge in general that influence their behavior (i.e., domain-general epistemological beliefs), they also have differentiated beliefs about knowledge in different academic domains" (p. 699). It is possible that participants hold more constructivist orientations about text-based discussion than they demonstrate on the RJI. Wilkinson and colleagues also hypothesized the possibility that beliefs and instructional decisions are reciprocally related and that participants may act in a manner inconsistent with their belief structure for a time, until their beliefs develop. Having an additional measure of participants' attitudes toward text-based discussion is thus extremely helpful in answering the third research question.

Reflective Judgment Interview

King and Kitchener (1994) developed the RJI to measure development of reflective judgment, which they define as the ability "to make defensible judgments about vexing problems" (p. 1). These vexing problems are complex, controversial, have no clear "correct" answer, and thus require sophisticated problem-solving skills to both generate and defend a position. Individuals develop these skills over time and with education. As they develop, they go through distinct stages where their understandings

about the nature of knowledge and the concept of justification changes. King and Kitchener argued for seven distinct stages of development that are clustered into three groups: pre-reflective thinking (Stages 1, 2, and 3); quasi-reflective thinking (stages 4 and 5); and reflective thinking (stages 6 and 7).

In pre-reflective thinking, individuals believe that “knowledge is gained through the word of an authority figure or through firsthand observation, rather than, for example, through the evaluation of evidence” (King & Kitchener, 2002, p. 39). Individuals in these stages of reflective judgment do not see problems as complex and difficult to solve nor do they believe that knowledge is socially constructed. They believe with certainty either in the Truth of what they know or in the idea that the solution is out there, waiting to be discovered.

For individuals with quasi-reflective thinking, they gain the recognition that knowledge can be uncertain. These individuals attribute this uncertainty to, “missing information or methods of obtaining the evidence. Although they use evidence, they do not understand how evidence entails a conclusion, and thus tend to view judgments as highly idiosyncratic” (King & Kitchener, 2002, p. 40). Quasi-reflective thinking leads to the opposite extreme of pre-reflective thinking. In pre-reflective thinking all knowledge is inherently objective while in quasi-reflective thinking knowledge is subjective and unique to the individual. However, much like their pre-reflective peers, quasi-reflective thinkers also do not understand the value of collaboratively building knowledge.

Finally, reflective thinkers understand that all knowledge is uncertain and given meaning only within a particular context. However, they “are not immobilized by it; rather they make judgments that are ‘most reasonable’...based on their evaluation of

available data” (King & Kitchener, 2002, p. 40). These individuals possess a process for evaluating data that is not contextually bound and readily admit that their evaluations are often incomplete and will need revision pending further data. This understanding about the nature of knowledge as uncertain and contextually bound as well as a process for solving complex problems, allows these individuals to socially construct knowledge. It follows that these individuals would most intuitively understand the rationale behind text-based discussion and how to support students as meaning makers.

The RJI is an individually administered interview where participants were presented with ill-structured problems. For instance, they were asked about the nature of bias in the news and whether those who believe in the Bible’s creation story and those who believe in evolution can both be correct in their viewpoints. I read these questions verbatim to each participant and probed their thinking regarding how they came to their viewpoint, whether they are certain their view is correct, and how others, including experts can hold differing viewpoints. I scored their responses using the scoring manual and placed each participant within a stage. This stage allowed me to determine what each participant believed about the nature of knowledge, how they solve complex problems, and how they justify their solutions. It also allowed me to infer what they believed about the value of student collaborative knowledge building and thus how much interpretive authority they would give to their students in text-based discussions.

Active Discussion Logs

The final source of data was participants’ active discussion logs. In these logs, participants reflected on an attempt at active discussion by describing the students, task, and text, as well as students’ responses. In many attempts, a fellow senior observed and

provided feedback. In these instances, the participant also reflected on the feedback and spoke about how they would incorporate it into their next lesson. Each participant completed at least two log entries. Because these logs did not include planning with the TAT, I only considered them as an additional source of information on experiential knowledge.

Building Within-Case Profiles and Across-Case Comparisons

After coding each piece of data, I used axial coding (Glaser & Strauss, 1990; Moghaddam, 2006) to assemble within-case profiles for each participant and across-case comparisons. Axial coding is defined as “a set of procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories. This is done by utilizing a coding paradigm involving conditions, context, action/interactional strategies and consequences” (p. 96). Axial coding was especially useful for this study because I linked actions and consequences as well as interactions across data sources and categories. When assembling both profiles and comparisons, I sought to answer each research question.

Within-Case Profiles

To tackle my first research question: *In what ways does instruction in text analysis influence preservice teachers’ planning and leading of text-based discussions?* I traced codes across the TAT, text-based discussion, and reflection. For example, I followed the code “main idea” across the three data sources. Following individual codes in this manner allowed me to consider both the specialized knowledge participants did demonstrate as well as missing specialized knowledge and how both affected their leading of the discussion. I did this work for each cycle of planning, leading, and

reflecting on the text-based discussion independently and then, for the participants that completed multiple cycles, looked for patterns across cycles. All information was entered into a spreadsheet. I also noted in this spreadsheet the types of questions participants asked during the text-based discussion, the third turn moves they used, and whether participants were doing the synthesizing. These entries became especially important in the across-case comparisons as described in that section.

For the second research question: *in what ways do preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs affect their learning about leading text-based discussion?* I considered the interview, including participants' stated teaching philosophy and their RJI, and any information from reflection sessions regarding participants' intentions. Earlier I offered the example of a participant who wanted to release interpretive authority to students but couldn't because they had only demonstrated willingness to answer her questions in the discussion. This information was especially relevant here. I looked across these pieces of information and then created an analytic memo that described the participant's RJI stage, any additional evidence of their epistemological beliefs, the specialized knowledge they displayed, and any evidence regarding who held interpretive authority. This evidence came from the types of questions participants asked, their third turn moves, and who synthesized information. I entered these memos into my spreadsheet.

Finally, for the third question: *What, if any, experiential knowledge do preservice teachers gain in repeated cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions?* I used the Temporal codes (Appendix B) and wrote an analytic memo describing changes in participants over time. These memos were added to my

spreadsheet. The resulting spreadsheet included an entry for each cycle of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions for each participant. It also included the epistemological beliefs memo for each participant and the experiential knowledge memos for Heather, Meredith, Mary, Taylor, and McKenna, all of whom completed multiple cycles.

Across-Case Comparisons

In this phase of coding, I looked for patterns in responses to the research questions across participants by highlighting similarities in participants' entries in my spreadsheet. These patterns included the type of specialized knowledge demonstrated and what was missing; relationships between participants' RJI stages and their specialized knowledge, willingness to cede interpretive authority to students, and changes across cycles; and the connections between planning with the TAT and the types of questions and third turn moves the participants used in the text-based discussion. In exploring this latter point, I specifically looked for three things: (1) the tasks participants presented to their students; (2) the ways in which the participants responded to student misconceptions or difficulties; and (3) evidence of a connection between planning and participants sharing interpretive authority with students. This phase of coding really allowed me to explore whether planning with the TAT prepared participants for the ill-defined spaces of discussion in a manner that kept students engaged in higher-order thinking and collaboratively building meaning. To do this work, I looked in my spreadsheet for patterns within profiles of TAT codes, participant third turn moves and question types, as well as whether the participant was synthesizing information. For example, I asked myself, "do participants who correctly identify main ideas on their TAT help their

students synthesize information? Do participants who are in the pre-reflective stage transfer interpretive authority to students?”

Results

I present my findings, organized by research question, in the next section. Both within-case profiles and across-case comparisons informed these findings.

How Does Instruction in Text Analysis Influence Preservice Teachers’ Planning and Leading of Text-Based Discussions?

Following instruction in text analysis, all participants demonstrated some specialized knowledge. They were consistently able to notice text structure and the presence of repeated words on their TAT. However, this was the only specialized knowledge participants consistently demonstrated. Participants were inconsistent in their ability to name main ideas, list all supporting ideas, notice features of text structure, genre-specific connectives, repetition of key ideas or co-referents. They were also inconsistent in their ability to anticipate student confusions. Participants also universally failed to connect main and supporting ideas on their TAT. The presence and absence of specialized knowledge, as demonstrated on the TAT, had consequences in the discussion, as discussed in the next sections.

Feelings of Preparedness

Each participant shared that text analysis and planning with the TAT made her feel more prepared for leading text-based discussion. As Malika said in her reflection,

“I don’t want to say that I didn’t put in effort before, but I wasn’t as in depth and I would find myself in guided reading groups feeling a little flustered sometimes but with this, I felt more like I at least knew a direction. If it went a different

direction, I felt like I had plans for how to get it back on track and questions that will lead them to another idea.”

Taylor echoed, “I felt it made me think more deeply about the text, especially to anticipate potential distractions.” Mary shared that, “I think it helped because, like, I knew what to look for, like in the discussion but I also, like knew what I wanted to get out of it as well.”

These feelings appear to reflect an enactment of specialized knowledge demonstrated on TAT. For example, Mary analyzed an informational text comparing two types of night-vision goggles and said, “If I hadn’t filled it out, I wouldn’t have thought about how it was organized. I probably would have just focused on the information in the article rather than the structure and the different words, compare and contrast.” Her discussion then focused on the organization of the text and how text features signaled this organization. Heather noticed, “TAT was really helpful especially in the genre and structure because it was historical fiction. Not all students had such strong background in the time period...so having that up and knowing I would have to fill in the gaps for them.” She did this work in her text-based discussion, thus mitigating a potential student confusion. Finally, McKenna, who analyzed poetry was able to demonstrate knowledge of poetic devices on her TAT. In her reflection she commented that analyzing with the TAT “made me realize some of the poetry features that I wasn't focused on at first, because I think I only was worried about, the sounds and the words, but then I was as I was filling it out, I was like, oh, there's also like, this device and this device.” This preparation allowed her to monitor student comprehension in her discussion. For example, when her student listed personification as a device he noticed she quickly said,

“where do you see personification?” and used her third turn move to uptake his answer and ask other students “where else do you see personification?”

There were other examples of participants feeling prepared for monitoring student comprehension. For Lara, McKenna, and Malika, this preparation took the form of anticipating student difficulties. For example, Lara said “I predicted we would have that difficulty...so I prepared for it” and Malika commented that “I am going to have to talk about that most likely and helped me think through how I want to address it.” These anticipated responses manifested in their third turn moves. Each was able to uptake ideas students previously shared, saying things like “so Lazaro was saying...” (Malika, text-based discussion). They also activated background knowledge as exemplified by McKenna when she said, “what do you know about how fireworks work when they go in the sky?” Malika was additionally able bring students’ attention back to specific events from the text in a manner that supported students’ active meaning making. For example, “but remember at the beginning it said that Hare lost all his money.”

Participants also used the text analysis as an opportunity prepare for different ways their students could interpret the text, or to put in other words it helped them “think about it from their perspective.” (Heather, reflection). McKenna noted that she, “thought of multiple meanings for symbolism in case they found different things” while Malika said, “It helps me think about the text in a different way. How are my students going to be able to see this?”

Finally, a few participants indicated the TAT helped them monitor their own comprehension, so they could in turn do that work with their students. Taylor said, “Like, there were some parts of the story that like I wouldn't have thought about” without

analyzing the text. McKenna took it further when she “noticed things where I was like we I don't even understand what's going on here. So I need to talk to my mentor and make sure I have some responses ready.” These responses then manifested in her third turn moves used to scaffold students’ understanding in the text-based discussion. For example, she activated background knowledge, produced an image of a vocabulary word she had anticipated would be confusing, and used analogy to illustrate a concept she anticipated would be confusing. After she led her discussion she said, “We planned a lot for that poem so once we got there, I felt like I was really prepared to help them.”

However, there were also several instances of participants who demonstrated specialized knowledge on the TAT but did not use it in their discussions. Both Taylor and Heather listed repeated words on their TATs but did not demonstrate understanding that these repetitions signified main ideas. Their omissions prevented them from helping students understand themes of the texts and the themes constructed by their students were incomplete. Taylor’s second discussion exemplifies this finding:

Taylor: who can talk about what’s the problem in the story? What do you say?

Megan: can I go?

Taylor: what do you say? Go ahead Malala.

Malala: I think the problem is actually kind of two problems.

Taylor: alright say them

Malala: One of the problems is like Rosie doesn’t like her appearance, teasing about the freckles and red hair.

Blake: the problem is she didn’t, she felt bad, because she didn’t know how the other people felt at their last school and when they said it she felt better.

Taylor: Ok, what about this side of the circle?

Jacob: all her friends teased her because red hair and freckles and that was not really nice it doesn't matter what you look like

Taylor: you're right.

In this excerpt, Taylor validates the idea that story's problem is the main character getting teased. In her reflection she stated that this was the story's main idea. However, this is an incomplete main idea; the main idea is really that everyone should treat each other the way they want to be treated because they all knew what it was like to be teased. This idea is repeated many times in the text. "People tease me because I like to tap dance... When I first got my glasses, I was called Four-eyes... I used to be plump and everyone called me dumpling" (Gogol, 1998, p. 19-23).

Meredith represented a different kind of disconnect between her TAT and text-based discussion. She anticipated her students would struggle with the word *venom* but failed to provide a plan for dealing with this difficulty. In her reflection she said, "I thought they would find it unimportant, so I was surprised when they asked a question about it." It is likely not a surprise that she was unable to scaffold student understanding in this instance and resorted to asking a few IRE-style questions before giving her students the answer, as seen below:

Meredith: can you maybe talk about how the venom helps them to hunt?

Jonathan: may I add. Because the venom gives the snake's energy

Chris: camouflage

Meredith: Hold on. I want to talk a little more about the venom first. Can somebody so Jonathan you said that the venom gives the snakes energy. Does everybody agree with that?

Students: Yes, no

Meredith: Michael said no. Michael Can you tell us what you think the venom does or helps the snakes to do?

Michael: I think the venom, whenever the snake bites something...

Meredith: You remember in the book, find the word venom and see what it says that venom is or what it does

Students: yes

Meredith: Yeah, venom is poison that helps the snakes to kill their prey faster, right? Jonathan the part that you were looking at, I think it's a little confusing, because everybody look onto page...what page are you on Jonathan?

Jonathan: 11

Meredith: And on page 11 it says, snakes use energy when they hunt, the more energy they use up the more food they need. How do you think venom helps snakes use less energy? So I see why you thought that the venom gives the snakes energy but it actually does something else. Can you think about how The poison making biting the the prey would help the snakes to save their energy?

Students: [pause]

Meredith: Michael told us that venom is poison and it makes the animals it helps them kill the prey right so it actually helps the snakes to save energy because they can just bite their their prey and it's going to just die really quickly they're not

going to have to put so much they're not going to use up so much effort trying to harm their prey. If you guys are not looking at your post-it notes now can you put down to it you can focus on our discussion. So venom is poison that kills prey.

Does anybody know another feature that helps the snakes to hunt?

Information Missing on the TAT's Effect on Discussions

Simply stated, information missing from the TAT was frequently missing from the text-based discussion, which impacted participants' ability to monitor student comprehension and respond to misunderstandings. This information included features of text structure; linguistic features including repeated ideas, co-referents, and genre-specific connectives; and the connection between main and supporting ideas. Meredith represented most participants who failed to notice genre-specific connectives. In her TAT she did not indicate awareness that cause-and-effect text structures frequently use connectives *but, while, as opposed to*. This lack of knowledge directly impacted her text-based discussion when Jonathan, in the excerpt below, incorrectly labeled a difference between chimpanzees and humans as a similarity and she was unable to use *but* to help him understand subsequent information contrasted what preceded it.

Jonathan: humans are big but chimpanzees are small

Meredith: chimpanzees are smaller than people. Yeah! So is that a similarity or difference? Is that the same or something different?

Jonathan: same

Chris: different

Meredith: Chris said different, so Chris tell Jonathan why you think that is a difference instead of a similarity.

Chris: chimps are smaller

Meredith: so they are not the same size, they are different sizes so that is a difference.

Lara and Heather, who analyzed narrative texts, missed features of narrative text structure including problem and solution and dialogue between characters on their TAT. They both omitted these features in their text-based discussions which led to students not recognizing their importance.

Participants' difficulty connecting main and supporting ideas both on their TATs and in their text-based discussions made it difficult for students to answer higher-order questions related to author's purpose. McKenna led a discussion of Maya Angelou's poem *On the Pulse of Morning* where she helped students decipher individual passages and lines that were difficult to understand. However, she failed to connect individual ideas back to the overall message of the poem, which left students without understanding the deeper meaning of Angelou's words. For instance, when discussing the stanza "Do not be wedded forever/ To fear, yoked eternally/ To brutishness" she had this exchange:

Katie: wait so we have joined together fear and cruelty?

McKenna: what does it mean if it is saying fear is yoked, or attached to cruelty?

Padma: its similar?

McKenna: its similar? What might cause someone to be cruel or mean to someone else?

Padma: maybe they are jealous

McKenna: maybe they are jealous

When she does not connect the stanza to the broader context of civil rights students miss the understanding of the stanza.

Lara wanted her students to discuss the lesson *Mr. Peabody's Apples* (Madonna, 2003), which she said was “the power of words” (TAT) meaning to not spread unfounded rumors. She listed characters’ motives as a supporting idea that would help students decipher the lesson but failed to connect the two in her discussion. Her students demonstrated understanding of the characters’ actions and motivations but she never uptook these ideas when discussing the lesson. The students never fully demonstrated understanding of the lesson, as seen below:

Lara: So what’s the lesson?

Adam: don’t let your imagination run wild

Sam: don’t judge a book by its cover

Keisha: never judge this text

Lara: right, like you said Keisha, never judge a book by its cover but what is that telling us about how we talk about people and other people?

Several students talk at once: talk wisely, don’t talk about other people

Finally, on her TAT Meredith listed a number of supporting ideas but failed to synthesize those into a main idea. Her text-based discussion then had students produce literal-level information from the text without ever considering the text’s purpose. Her questions took the form of “Tell me if you can list some of the features that may help snakes avoid predators. Does anyone have one?... Do you see something else on this page, something else that helps snakes to be better hunters?” Before concluding her discussion with this

question: “Does anyone have any last things they want to add in? Does anybody have any last things or are we done for today?” (text-based discussion two).

How Do Preservice Teachers’ Epistemological Beliefs Affect their Learning About and Leading of Text-Based Discussion?

There were several clear patterns that suggested a relationship between participants’ epistemological beliefs and their leading of text-based discussions. The following sections are organized by stages from the RJI, but I bring in information from participants’ interviews and reflections in places where her expressed intentions suggest epistemological beliefs that are domain specific and differ from the RJI stage.

The Effect of Pre-Reflective Thinking

Two participants, Mary and Taylor each scored in the pre-reflective stage, the lowest scores amongst the participants. Both Mary and Taylor were also the least willing to share interpretive authority with their students as evidenced in several ways. First, when students asked a question, Mary or Taylor answered it. They never turned the question around to the students, as all other participants did. Second, they demonstrated a lack of willingness to follow student-directed changes of topic or allow their meaning making process to move in directions she had not intended. Both Taylor and Mary stuck to their agenda. As Mary said in a reflection, she used planning as an opportunity to “work from my own thoughts to get them to think about the same things.” Third, their discussions followed a predictable teacher-student-teacher-student pattern with almost no instance of student-student interaction. Within these patterns, participant talk was used to control, a point Mary directly stated: “talking was my way of knowing that I had everything under control.” Accordingly, their third turn moves were often to uptake

students' ideas, but it was done in a manner that took away students' ability to collaboratively build meaning. An exchange in Mary's first text-based discussion exemplifies this idea:

Mary: ok. Is it one big chunk of text or is it broken up into little sections?

Student: (right away) it's broken up into little sections, like paragraphs

Mary: yeah, it's broken up into paragraphs but in between those paragraphs are they labels or do we have to read to find out?

Multiple students: we have to read

Mary: we have to read so if I wanted to know about thermal imaging what would be the easiest way to find it?

Multiple students: to read.

Mary: to read. Right

In this exchange she uptakes student ideas in each third turn move but she does it at the expense of students building on each other's ideas. She is using her third turn move of uptake to control the discussion. Taylor and Mary also sought to control the discussion by asking mostly IRE-type questions. (It is noted that Taylor's second text-based discussion had many fewer IRE questions, a point I will discuss when addressing the third research question.)

Unlike Taylor's reflections and interview, Mary's offered evidence of a desire to change. In each reflection she talked about wanting to talk less. She said she wanted to step "back a little bit but that it something I need to work on personally because I want everything to still be in control" (reflection one). In her second reflection she expressed dismay at the fact that she "still talked them through it" while in her third reflection she

said that she forced herself to relinquish some control but that she was “a little nervous because people started talking over each other.” However, her noticing and naming changes she wanted to make suggests she may be changing her epistemological beliefs.

The Effect of Quasi-Reflective Thinking

Meredith, Heather, McKenna, and Lara fell into the quasi-reflective stage on the RJI. They appeared to be much more willing than Mary and Taylor to share interpretive authority with students. This sharing of authority was clear in the way they turned student questions back around to the students. For example, Heather, in her second discussion said, “what do you guys think about that? Do you agree? Disagree?... You guys both said agree. Why?” They also demonstrated willingness to follow student-directed changes of topic. Lara, in her reflection said she had initially wanted to talk about the disconnect between characters’ actions and their motives but when students asked about the lesson of the text, she allowed them to work towards building meaning and supported them in their efforts. These participants also used their third turn moves differently than Mary and Taylor. They frequently activated background knowledge and asked for additional information from the same student in a manner that encouraged student elaborated explanations (Soter et al., 2008). Lara exemplified this teacher-supported elaborated explanation in the following exchange:

Lara: Gabrielle, what do you think? What happens to Mr. Peabody and the pillow?

Gabrielle: Mr. Peabody says he has to pick up all the feathers because it represents everybody in the town

Lara: ok so can you elaborate on that a little more and explain how that relates to the power of the words? [reminds other students to listen—norm of being respectful and holding each other accountable in discussion] so Gabrielle, you said that Mr. Peabody was talking about how the feathers represent everyone in Hatville? How did that tie into the power of words? What did each feather represent?

Gabrielle: a person in Hatville

Lara: a person in Hatville and what happened to all the feathers?

Gabrielle: they flew away, everybody else flew away

Lara: so the feathers are all over the place. So what do we know based on that?

What did he want Tommy to do?

Gabrielle: to pick them up, don't judge a book by its cover

Lara: [turning her gaze to the group of students] how would that relate to picking up the feathers like Gabrielle talked about?

The last line in this exchange exemplifies another thing participants with quasi-reflective thinking did: they brought additional student voices into the conversation in a way that helped students collaboratively build meaning. Meredith also demonstrates this when she said, “does anyone want to add more about how the tongues help snakes to hunt?”

What was notably absent from these participants' text-based discussions was their willingness to either let students synthesize across sources of information or create situations where students did this work. Meredith, for example, in her first discussion asked students to compare monkeys and apes. She had students list similarities and differences but never asked them to consolidate their disparate ideas. Heather had her

students describe the theme of the text in both of her discussions but in their responses students merely named themes without articulating any reasons for their responses or using any evidence to support their ideas. She validated one answer in each instance and moved on. The ability to have students synthesize across sources of information appeared to come only with reflective thinking.

The Effect of Reflective Thinking

Only one participant, Malika demonstrated reflective thinking on the RJI. Although her specialized knowledge as demonstrated on her TAT was not radically different from her peers, her text-based discussion was. The first difference was in the task she presented to the students, which was to debate the question of “Did Hare trick Bear?” (text-based discussion transcript). She selected the text *Tops & Bottoms* (Stephens, 1995) for her discussion because it offered no clear, correct answer to the question. She opened her text-based discussion by asking but said that the goal of the debate “wasn’t for them to all agree” (reflection). Rather, she “just wanted them to say what they thought and come with some textual evidence for why they felt this way.” Second, during her discussion her role was only one of scaffolding and supporting students, as seen in this exchange:

Malika: So Josue why do you think the Hare was tricking the Bear?

Josue: the hare said he [inaudible] was going to get the tops and bear would get bottoms

Malika: but didn’t hare do what he said he was going to do Hare said he would get tops and bear would get bottoms and bear got bottoms

Josue: whhhhhaaaaa

Malika: so did Hare trick the bear?

All: nooooo

Malika: you can think he did

Crystal: I feel that if Hare wasn't going to give him the bad parts and just share...would have shared...he would have helped because I want him to help and hare was just ok with that and I wouldn't have been ok with that

Lazaro: yeah so that he gets the bad stuff

Crystal: but why? Why? He was tricking him for that. For the money maybe?

Josue: didn't they need food

Lazaro: but they need money to buy food

Emily: they're rabbits

Malika: but remember at the beginning it said that Hare lost all his money?

The last line in that exchange demonstrates one of Malika's third turn moves—referencing text to get students thinking about another source of information. She also used third turn moves to uptake students in a manner that brought other student voices into the conversation and helped them build on each other's ideas.

The connection between Malika's RJI stage and her text-based discussion seems clear—for this instance. Unfortunately, Malika was unable to complete another cycle before COVID-19 ended her field placement so this conclusion must be tentative. Future research should attempt to confirm or refine this finding.

What, If Any, Experiential Knowledge do Preservice Teachers Gain in Repeated Cycles of Planning, Leading, and Reflecting on Text-Based Discussions?

Five participants—Mary, McKenna, Taylor, Meredith, and Heather—completed multiple cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions, which allowed me to make some observations about the experiential knowledge they gained. Evidence for this research question came from both the participants and students. When looking at participants, I questioned changes in specialized knowledge demonstrated on the TAT, the types of questions participants asked, both to open the discussion and during it, and their third turn moves. The latter two questions permitted conclusions around whether participants were shifting interpretive authority to students. I looked to student behavior to see if they were accepting any of the interpretive authority given them during the discussion. Evidence of change came in the form of increasing student talk: asking questions, responding to their peers' questions, verbally marking their peers' ideas with phrases like "I agree with Katie" (Padma, McKenna's student) and building on each other's ideas.

Change in Specialized Knowledge Demonstrated on the TAT?

This section will be brief because there was no change in specialized knowledge demonstrated on the TAT. What participants knew on one TAT, they knew on the next; and what they didn't know, didn't change. This finding is not surprising considering participants really got a one-shot professional development session in text analysis. Myriad studies have documented the ineffectiveness of one-shot PD (e.g., Desimone, 2009; Yoon et al., 2007). This study appears to be another.

Changes in Participants and Students

Students of all five participants demonstrated some willingness to take interpretive authority over time. In all classes there were more instances of student-student talk and student posing of questions in the second and third discussions. However, not all students received this interpretive authority from their participants; in the case of Mary they appeared to take it without her consent. For example, here is an exchange from the beginning of her second discussion:

Mary: that's ok. Jack, how do you think the set-up of the article helps us understand it?

Jack: the set-up in the article helps me like imagine it says some people and animals didn't escape, ash covered their bodies and hardened. And like when it shows these pictures here it helps me know what it looked like when the ash hardened

Mary: Ok, so he said by the pictures. Who wants to record?

Vincent: I agree with Jack

Mary: hold on one second...you want to record? The first thing Jack said was the pictures. So #1 would be the pictures. Ok, Vincent, go ahead?

Here Mary interrupts Vincent who is trying to uptake Jack; he only speaks after she gave him permission. However, later in the same discussion, Jack interrupts her to ask his peer a question:

Nicole: When it's telling what happens you will get confused because it doesn't have a title

Mary: right! So you don't know what you are going to be...

Jack: what is your evidence that what you said is true? Like, what did you see that made you know that?

The students went even further in her third discussion, leaving her to say that she “couldn’t get a word in edgewise” (reflection three) despite her efforts to do so.

The students of Meredith, Heather, and McKenna each responded to invitations to work collaboratively by asking more questions to each other, uptaking each other, each without support or reminders to do so. The participants also appeared to see their role as facilitating student meaning making and used their voices in these beginning text-based discussions “to get them [students] to ask questions to each other” (McKenna, reflection two) or “talking to each other instead of me” (Heather, reflection one).

Taylor’s students also demonstrated slightly more collaboration, but this does not appear to be because of them being invited to share interpretive authority or merely taking it as Mary’s students did. The increased collaboration in discussion two appears to be the result of a shift in the type of questions Taylor asked. Whereas Taylor’s first discussion had used almost exclusively IRE-type questions, the second discussion had many more authentic questions. Despite this change in both her questions and in her students, Taylor does not appear to have shifted her role. She has the interpretive authority as seen in this comment from her second discussion:

“I completely agree with you! Because what you are saying is that the whole reason she feels this way is because of how she looks so the fact that she wants to get rid of her red hair and freckles, right? that’s showing you why all the events in the story happen. That’s why she writes the book and shares it with her classmates, right?”

Here, Taylor states what she interpreted to be the meaning of an event in the text. Although she opens her statement by agreeing with a student and asks for student confirmation several times when she asks, “right?” she is still deciding the meaning of the text, rather than having students do that work. At the end of their cycles all participants had not shifted interpretive authority fully to their students, however, and ultimately stood as the interpretive authority.

In one sense the findings here are not particularly noteworthy but looked at a different way, these findings are striking. Participants and their students had only just begun practicing text-based discussion when COVID-19 forced their work to end. But even within their first few attempts three participants had started shifting interpretive authority to students and their students began accepting their new roles, which, as participants indicated in their end-of-study interviews was a change from their normal classroom roles. According to the participants, their mentor teachers had students completing turn and talks and participating in some small and large group discussions but even within these contexts, students were not truly collaborating. As Meredith said, “it wasn't really like quite the same.” Students’ lack of familiarity with collaboration led to problems in the first discussions for some. As Heather said the lack of collaboration was “is partly my fault because I asked them so many questions, but I think that they struggled talking to each other and adding on to each other rather than just answering questions that I asked” (Heather, reflection one). For her students to even begin collaborating in the second text-based discussion is relatively remarkable.

Discussion and Direction for Future Research

Text-based discussion is an instructional technique with over 40 years of empirical support attesting to its ability to improve student reading outcomes (e.g. Applebee et al., 2003; Murphy et al., 2009; Nystrand, 1997). These outcomes are realized when students are actively involved in collaboratively building understandings. They do this work by thinking deeply about texts—using their background knowledge, voicing opinions and listening to those of others, supporting ideas with evidence, and synthesizing across sources of information to build meaning of text. Teachers who lead text-based discussions that realize these theoretical benefits give their students interpretive authority both in the tasks they create and in the third turn moves they use that facilitate student meaning making. In doing this work, teachers navigate text-based discussion's ill-structured space (Kucan et al., 2009); they monitor student comprehension and scaffold understanding in a manner that supports students' collective meaning making.

Only one of my participants, Malika, truly shared interpretive authority with her students and led such a discussion. The other six participants represented a range of specialized knowledge, epistemological beliefs, and changes over time. This study investigated the ways in which these factors impacted participants' text-based discussions with students.

As I look across participants and findings for the three research questions, I see evidence that the three investigated factors all impacted participants' ability to lead discussions with their students. Each factor impacted the discussions individually while RJI appeared to interact with experiential knowledge. Mary and Taylor who had the

lowest scores on the RJI also demonstrated the least change over time in their discussions.

Participants' lack of specialized knowledge demonstrated on the TAT impacted their text-based discussions with students. There were two key findings here. Even at the end of the study, participants inconsistently demonstrated awareness of genre-specific connectives, the importance of repeated ideas, features of text structure, all of which convey meaning that students can use to understand text. When the participants did not notice these items on the TAT, they did not use them with their students in the discussion. As seen in Meredith's failure to help her student notice the word *but* this impacted their ability to help students when they were confused.

Additionally, participants' near universal difficulty connecting main and supporting ideas on the TAT also prevented them from scaffolding students' collaborating to answer higher-order questions related to, for example, theme or author's purpose. There was a striking lack of opportunities for students to do this work in the discussions both because participants frequently failed to present such tasks to their students and also because participants themselves, rather than students, synthesized information when answering these questions. The consequence of participants' missing specialized knowledge meant all discussions lacked opportunity for students to extend their learning beyond the confines of a particular text. When students did not learn how to use genre-specific connectives, for example, participants prevented students from understanding how writers use text features and language to convey meaning—an understanding which would transfer to other texts.

Conversely, there is evidence that planning with the TAT helped participants respond to student confusions in a manner that positioned students as active meaning makers. When participants anticipated student difficulties, they were often able to mitigate them, for example, by supplying background knowledge missing from the text. They also said the text analysis made them more able to monitor student comprehension, which allowed them to facilitate student collaboration more. For example, McKenna, who anticipated different poetic devices was able to understand her student's response uptake student ideas in her third turn moves.

However, participants had really only just begun the work of sharing interpretive authority with their students when COVID-19 ended the study. Accordingly, the question whether planning for the text-based discussion with the TAT led to participants sharing interpretive authority with their students is left unanswered. There is some suggestion of participants doing this work and students accepting the new responsibility.

This exploratory multiple case study has generated several directions for future research. First, what is the relationship between RJI stage, the ability to demonstrate specialized knowledge on the TAT, and text-based discussion? What do PSTs like Malika, who have reflective thinking, do in their discussions? Are they consistently able to create tasks that encourage student collaboration in service of answering higher order questions? Do these PSTs demonstrate more or less specialized knowledge on their TATs than their peers? For peers with quasi- or pre-reflective thinking, does gaining specialized knowledge and using it to analyze texts and lead discussions lead to changes in their epistemological beliefs? How, if so?

Second, in what ways would more experience planning and leading text-based discussions affect PSTs' discussions with students? Participants in my study were supposed to complete at least three cycles of planning, leading, and reflecting on text-based discussions. Accordingly, the study was supposed to explore changes in PSTs' discussions over the course of a semester. The study was interrupted due to COVID-19 related school closures and the shortened student teaching limited the amount of experiential knowledge participants could gain. That meant that each discussion sampled in this study was really at the start of the participants' and their students' journey toward productive discussions. Would PSTs be able to shift more interpretive authority to students, and would their student take up their new roles, with more opportunities to participate in text-based discussions?

Third, in what ways would PSTs respond to more instruction in text analysis? This study presented essentially an ineffective one-shot PD on text analysis. What happens when PSTs receive a semester's worth of instruction and multiple, supported opportunities to enact this new knowledge on text analyses in the university classroom? Do text-based discussions change as they acquire more specialized knowledge? In what ways, if so? Study Two provides answers to some of these questions.

CHAPTER 4: METHODS AND RESULTS OF STUDY TWO

Introduction

Findings from Study One suggested that participants lacked both specialized knowledge useful for (a) analyzing texts in preparation for text-based discussion and (b) ways to enact this knowledge when leading discussions with students. In response to these findings, I designed and implemented an intervention into text analysis. This intervention provided Study Two participants with instruction on deciphering main and supporting ideas, identifying text macro and micro features, methods for evaluating text complexity and factors that could impede student comprehension, as well as instruction around how text analysis could inform text-based discussions in classrooms. This chapter presents this study including a description of how and why I created the intervention; the setting, participants and procedure for implementing the intervention; data collection and analysis; results; as well as discussion and recommendations for future research.

Two research questions guide this study:

1. Does the intervention into text analysis statistically significantly improve participants' capacity to analyze text?
2. In what ways do participants respond to the intervention?
 - a. Do participants increase their ability to determine main and supporting ideas of texts?
 - b. Do participants increase their ability to identify potential difficulties the text poses to student comprehension?
 - c. Do participants increase their ability to monitor and respond to student comprehension?

- d. Are participants' ability to determine main and supporting ideas as well as identify text's potential challenges correlated with their ability to monitor and respond to student comprehension?

Text Analysis Intervention

In Study One, participants used the Text Analysis Tool (TAT; Kucan & Palincsar, 2018) to analyze text in preparation for their text-based discussions with students.

Participants overwhelmingly reported benefits from this work. They found the TAT to be helpful in building their understanding of the text and in deciding what information they wanted students to learn from their readings and discussions of text. They also found the TAT helpful in exploring features of the text that could inhibit this understanding and planning responses to potential student difficulties. Participants reported these benefits despite the fact that they received very little training on text analysis/the TAT and thus were lacking some of the specialized knowledge that could be useful to them as they completed the TAT and led discussions with students. For example, as reported in Chapter 3, participants Heather and Taylor did not demonstrate understanding that repeated words signified main ideas, Meredith failed to notice how connectives signaled relationships between ideas, and Lara and McKenna, amongst others, struggled to connect main and supporting ideas.

These findings suggest two things: (1) the TAT is helpful in preparing PSTs for text-based discussions and thus is worth continued use and (2) PSTs still have to gain a lot of specialized knowledge useful for analyzing text and using this information in text-based discussions with students. The text analysis intervention described in this study attempts to address this second finding.

Rationale for Text Analysis through the Text Analysis Tool

Kucan and Palincsar (2018) proposed the TAT as a way to support teachers' planning for text-based discussions through analyzing text. They believed that by completing the TAT, teachers focus their attention to specific linguistic features of text—macro and micro features—that convey meaning. Previous research has identified many of these macro and micro features of text and how they influence readers' comprehension. For example, Kucan and Palincsar cite the work of Crosson and Lesaux (2013), who highlighted the importance of connectives (e.g., *but*, *however*, *therefore*) that articulate the relationship between ideas. Graesser and colleagues (2003) discussed coherence, or how information in a text is presented, and articulated how the placement and density of ideas affects a text's complexity. They argued that if a small number of main ideas are connected, they are easier to identify and understand; if main ideas are repeated throughout the text, they are also easier to notice and comprehend. Texts that lack coherence are more challenging because they have a large number of main ideas densely packed or have a smaller number of main ideas dispersed throughout text and thus require readers to synthesize across sources of information. Meyer (1985) presented five specific expository text structures, that when taught to students can improve their understanding of text content (e.g., Williams et al., 2016). By considering and naming these features as they complete the TAT, teachers' own understanding of a text should increase. Findings from Study One suggest the teacher's understanding of the text impacts their instruction with students.

Additionally, when analyzing text, teachers can see not only the instances of text features in a specific text, but also rehearse using these features in text-based discussions

with students to support students in organizing and learning text information (Kucan & Palincsar, 2018). Kucan and Palincsar (2018) argued text analysis helps teachers answer questions such as, what information do teachers want students to take from a text? What features of the text could facilitate or inhibit students' understanding this information? How can teachers help students use the macro and micro features particular to text structures and genres to organize information so they can more effectively and efficiently learn it? Models of reading comprehension including the landscape model of reading (van den Broek et al., 1998) suggest readers come to understand text by capitalizing on features of text (e.g., subheadings) to synthesize across pieces of information and form a cohesive picture of the text. By answering questions such as those Kucan and Palincsar proposed above, teachers may be better able to assist students in doing this work.

When answering these questions, teachers identify factors that influence text complexity. Again, Kucan and Palincsar (2018) built on extant research to identify complex text features. Macro features that add complexity include a lack of coherence due to dense texts that have many important ideas or ideas that are dispersed throughout the text; unfamiliar or uncommon vocabulary (Graesser et al., 2003); long, complex sentences (e.g., Blything et al., 2015; Vallar & Baddeley, 1984); unconventional text structures or features of text that deviate from common text structures (e.g., biography with a non-linear sequence of events or a historical fiction text that does not describe the story's historical context; Reutzel et al., 2016). Pappas (2006) and Jones et al. (2016) also revealed the challenges inherent in hybrid texts due to their use of multiple text structures in a single text. Missing background knowledge—either because the text does not supply it or students do not possess it—can also make a text complex (Kucan & Palincsar, 2018,

Schunk, 2004). Finally, information contained in graphics or images, but not contained in text, adds to text complexity. This list is but a sample of research, both current and done years ago, presenting factors that affect text complexity and their potential effect on reading comprehension.

Micro features can also impact text complexity. For example, co-referents refer to pronouns or different words that refer to the same object (e.g., *she, her, the vice president* could all refer to Kamala Harris). Multiple co-referents or those that are placed farther away from their original object make a text more complex (Crosson & Lesaux, 2013). The absence of topic sentences, transition words or phrases, and subheadings also add to complexity because students are not cued to changes of topics and thus are required to make inferences that may be incorrect (Kintsch, 1982). Students must therefore self-monitor comprehension more closely and likely devote cognitive resources to organizing information (Kintsch, 1998).

Additionally, because teachers use the TAT when analyzing text in preparation for instructing a specific group of students, teachers can consider the needs of the individual learners. They can consider the presence or absence of student background knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, and awareness of text structures or genres. They can also consider student strengths and interests and plan to use texts and ask questions that incorporate them into instruction. Finally, teachers can take the perspective of their students as they anticipate potential student responses to questions. This perspective-taking provides teachers an opportunity to rehearse the teaching moves they will use during discussion and may thus facilitate teachers' navigating the improvisational space

of discussions in a manner that keeps the discussion student centered (e.g., Grossman et al., 2009; Juzwik et al., 2012; Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017).

Instruction into Text Structure

I paid particular attention to informational text structure within this intervention and dedicated a week to presenting direct instruction on each of the five text structures Meyer (1985) originally proposed: description/enumeration, sequence/chronological, cause-and-effect, comparison, and problem-and-solution. I designed instruction to overview the features of these text structures as well as the connectives particular to each one. I followed the work of Crosson and Lesaux (2013) and presented, for example, temporal connectives such as *first, then, following* as common to sequence/chronological structure and causal connectives such as *because, consequently, as a result* as common to cause-and-effect or problem-and-solution structures. I chose to dedicate this time due to the increasing demand that teachers use informational texts in instruction (e.g., Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010), because of the potential benefit K-12 students derive from learning about text structures (Goldman & Rakestraw, 2000; Williams et al., 2016), but also because of PSTs' potential lack of familiarity with them. Current PSTs are part of the generation studied by Duke (2000) in her seminal article that discovered elementary students were exposed to, on average, 3.6 minutes of instruction with expository texts. When looking across the syllabi of reading methods courses taken by my sample of PSTs, I also found that they had not been exposed to text structures in previous reading methods courses. I hypothesized that PSTs needed to learn about text structures themselves in order to understand how text structures could be taught to students.

Deciphering Main and Supporting Ideas

In my intervention, I chose to ask PSTs to write summaries that did not just identify main and supporting ideas in texts, but connected these ideas to form a cohesive representation of the text as a whole. This work was essential because teachers, even as college educated professionals, may not be sufficiently skilled at writing summaries. Kucan and colleagues (2011) found that 67% of the elementary teachers to whom they administered the CoLTS assessment failed to write text summaries that connected main and supporting ideas. Wexler and colleagues (2021) found that a year-long professional development program led to statistically significant improvements in middle school teachers' writing of main idea statements.

There is also limited research on the relationship between a teacher's own reading habits or reading abilities and their instruction. Burgess and colleagues (2011) as well as McKool and Gespass (2009) both found teachers' reading habits and their familiarity with children's books affected their use of "best" instructional practices such as sustained silent reading. Teacher reading engagement can also impact student reading engagement (Guthrie et al., 2000). This relationship may exist because teachers who are engaged readers "are both strategic and knowledgeable readers, and are socially interactive about what they read. These qualities show up in their classroom interactions and help create students who are, in turn, engaged readers" (Dreher, 2002, p. 338). Although this evidence is only mildly persuasive, it adds empirical support to a rather commonsense notion: teachers' own reading skills (e.g., their ability to summarize text) is related to their ability to teach reading comprehension to students. I investigate this possible connection through the present study's intervention and analysis.

Practice-Based Approach

My intervention included multiple opportunities for PSTs to acquire content knowledge such as awareness of text structures and genres but also for them to practice applying this knowledge to their teaching decisions through use of the TAT. This decision was strategic and used the principles of practice-based teacher education (e.g., Forzani, 2014; Grossman et al., 2009; McDonald et al., 2013). Practice-based teacher education describes three specific pedagogies that support the unpacking and taking up of teaching practices: representation, decomposition, and approximation. Teacher educators begin by introducing a practice to PSTs using representations of practice, which are explicit examples of the practice in action and support PSTs in developing an image of the practice (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Grossman et al., 2009). Within these representations teacher educators also decompose the practice by breaking it down into its component parts (Grossman et al., 2009), examining each part and integrating them together to form the larger practice. Finally, after decomposing and representing practices, teacher educators guide PSTs through approximations of practice. Here, teacher educators facilitate PSTs' lesson planning, role playing, or rehearsals. Grossman and colleagues (2009) argued approximations of practice simulate aspects of practice along a continuum of less authentic to more authentic, with a more authentic approximation being closer to the actual teaching practice performed by teachers in classrooms. The goal of a less authentic approximation is to simplify the complexity of the task, focusing PSTs' attention to fewer components of practice while also reducing the variables that are out of the PST's control. For example, by having the PST approximate a practice with peers as opposed to students. As PSTs gain mastery of

practice components through representations and approximations, they can engage in more authentic approximations, ultimately leading to enactment of the practice.

As presented in the literature review in Chapter Two, some studies of courses framed around practice-based teacher education pedagogies suggest this approach is useful for having PSTs take up text-based discussions (Juzwik et al., 2013; Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017). Although other studies report more modest findings with, for example, the PSTs in Reisman and colleague's (2018) study having more difficulty flexibly using taught strategies to actively engage students in discussions. This study adds to this small literature base by including text analysis as a component of text-based discussions and brings practice-based pedagogies to the teaching of text analysis.

In the present study, I investigate the practice of analyzing texts in preparation for leading text-based discussions. In adopting a practice-based approach to teaching this practice, I first opened the intervention by representing the practice by introducing text analysis. I then decomposed the practice into component parts including macro features such as text structures and genres, micro features such as connectives, features that make a text complex, and writing a comprehensive text summary that identified and connected main and supporting ideas. I provided direct instruction into these component parts. For example, PSTs received direct instruction regarding each expository text structure each week and also learned how to look for repeated words and/or ideas as representing main ideas. I approximated the practice by having PSTs conduct text analyses using the TAT each week on texts they could theoretically use in their instruction. Furthermore, PSTs practiced taking the perspectives of the students in their field placements when analyzing texts. These latter two decisions were designed to make the approximation more

authentic as it is close to the work they would actually do as teachers in their own classrooms. These procedures will be explained in greater detail in sections to come.

Summary of the Rationale

Taken together, text analysis has a rich, empirical backing. Previous research has named the specific macro and micro features of text (e.g., connectives, Crosson & Lesaux, 2013; text structures, Meyer, 1985) that convey meaning while also demonstrating the potential for teachers' use of these features as they scaffold student reading comprehension. When teachers use text features in instruction, they may help students to build a representation of text by synthesizing across sources of information (van den Broek, 1998). Studies have demonstrated the potential positive effect of this form of instruction. For example, Williams and colleagues (2016) found instruction on expository text structures produced statistically significant gains in students' ability to learn content including deciphering main ideas and gaining vocabulary knowledge.

Text-based discussions are also effective in helping students to build representations of text. In her recent article, Rainey (2017) interviewed 10 university-based literary scholars to identify their disciplinary literacy practices and discovered that all six of their common practices were social in nature. To these experts and to students in K-12 classrooms, truly engaging in literacy means actively building understandings through talk and in response to problems or questions. Empirical research has also indicated the comprehension gains that follow classroom discussions (Applebee et al., 2003; Murphy et al., 2009; Nystrand et al., 1997).

Analyzing texts prior to discussions can help teachers identify main ideas as well as understand the affordances and challenges of a specific text. Armed with this

information, teachers can both pose questions to students that get them thinking about the text as a whole and synthesizing across its information while also using text features to support student active sensemaking. It is this work that bridges across the body of work related to macro and micro text features and the work on discussions.

However, despite the potential positive effect of text analysis on teachers' reading instruction, teachers may not possess the knowledge they need to analyze text. Graesser and colleagues (2003) found that many teachers were unaware of the concept of coherence and thus did not include it in their text analyses. Kucan et al. (2011) also found their teachers struggled to produce text summaries that connected main and supporting ideas effectively and had difficulty understanding both challenges and facilitators the text posed to students understanding main ideas. The findings from my first study also support this empirical conclusion. Study One participants demonstrated difficulty with writing summaries that connected main and supporting ideas and also failed to notice and use many micro features. Thus, I designed my intervention into text analysis to provide the knowledge PSTs need to analyze text. I incorporated elements of practice-based teacher education in an attempt to effectively present PSTs with content knowledge needed to analyze text but also with hands-on practice sufficient for helping them translate their content knowledge into pedagogical practice.

The Present Study

The text analysis intervention was conducted in one pre-existing section of TLPL488F while another pre-existing section served as a business-as-usual control condition. This course enrolls senior preservice teachers (PSTs) exclusively. It is course seven out of eight in the elementary teacher education program of studies and as such, is

near the end of the PSTs' journey toward the classroom. Additionally, this course is part two in a two-course sequence called *Promoting Skilled and Motivated Readers in Diverse Elementary Classrooms*. Part one, geared toward first semester junior PSTs, introduces them to developmental models of reading and writing as well as how to plan, deliver, and evaluate instruction on evidence-based practices for decoding, building fluency, and comprehension. Part two, the study's context, builds on part one's foundation "while shifting [their] attention to learning to create a literate classroom environment and managing a classroom program that meets the reading-related needs of all children" (course syllabus p. 1). There is also a part-time field placement during this course so PSTs can see these taught concepts in action. Through this field placement, they also begin to apply their knowledge to working with actual students in school classrooms.

This course offered an ideal setting for this study because the PSTs should already have a foundation of how reading develops and how their instruction can lead to student comprehension of text. Preservice teachers will accordingly be able to situate their learning about text-based discussion within their understandings of how students comprehend texts. Learning about text macro and micro features and how they convey meaning will also assist PSTs in building knowledge of what happens when students comprehend and how they can support this process. The PSTs also have some experiential knowledge of students and school classrooms and will gain more in field placements during the fall semester³. Preservice teachers can use this knowledge to understand whether teachers or students have interpretive authority, how teachers

³ It should be noted that this field experience was different than the typical field experience because of schools being exclusively online.

position students as having interpretive authority or not, as well as to be able to take the perspective of actual students when analyzing texts.

After receiving IRB permission, I conducted the intervention with 19 PSTs enrolled in one section of the course that I taught. The other course section enrolled 21 PSTs and was a business-as-usual control group. There were many similarities between the course sections. Both sections met once a week and were taught fully online with synchronous and asynchronous instruction. Both sections also consisted of the same assignments, used the same textbooks, and assigned many of the same articles for the preservice teachers to read and discuss in class. Both sections used the same Power Point slides to present information regarding the developmental stages of orthography and the components of comprehensive literacy instruction, as defined by Fountas and Pinnell (2018). These components of literacy instruction include guided reading, interactive read alouds, and writing conferences.

Despite these similarities, there were differences in the two courses. The section of the course that received the intervention discussed text analysis and text-based discussion, while the business-as-usual group had an explicit focus on social justice teaching. For example, in week four, they attended a Black Lives Matter virtual event and discussed their impressions of the event in week five. In week seven, they attended and discussed the annual American Educational Research Association Brown Lecture. The business-as-usual control condition also appeared to assign and discuss more practitioner articles related to reading instruction than the treatment condition. These similarities and differences are displayed in Table 3. Additionally, the full calendar for the intervention is

in Table 4 (see Procedures section, below). PSTs will now be referred to as “participants.”

Table 3

Comparison of Treatment and Control Group Instruction

	Control Topics, activities, readings	Treatment Topics, activities, readings
Week 1	Field immersion, no synchronous class Fountas & Pinnell (F & P, 2018) p. 7-19	Field immersion, no synchronous class Watch recorded PPT introducing text analysis and the TAT
Week 2	Literacy instruction for diverse learners, standards, evidence-based literacy instruction, gradual release of responsibility Interactive read-aloud demonstration Templeton & Gehsmann (T & G, 2014), Ch 1& 2 MDSE Curriculum Standards Webb (2019) Fisher & Frey (2013)	Foundations of responsive classroom literacy instruction in diverse classes, standards, evidence-based literacy instruction, gradual release of responsibility Interactive read-aloud demonstration Templeton & Gehsmann (T & G, 2014), Ch 1& 2 MDSE Curriculum Standards Shanahan (2018) Sort texts into fiction, NF, hybrid, write summaries for <i>Flint Water, Tops & Bottoms</i> Complete CoLTS assessment
Week 3	Literacy assessment and instructional planning, word knowledge inventories, text analysis introduction Independent reading and conferring demonstration T & G Ch 4 Fountas & Pinnell (F & P, 2018) p. 2-24 Shanahan (2014)	Literacy assessment and instructional planning, word knowledge inventories, text analysis introduction Independent reading and conferring demonstration T & G Ch 4 Fountas & Pinnell (F & P, 2018) p. 2-24 Cause and effect text structure
Week 4	Literacy assessment and instructional planning, word study routines, multisensory instructional approaches Guided reading demonstration Post to discussion board T & G p. 97-110 F & P p. 72-79	Literacy assessment and instructional planning, word study routines, multisensory instructional approaches Guided reading demonstration T & G p. 97-110 F & P p. 72-79 Mesmer & Griffith (2006) Problem and solution text structure
Week 5	Emergent Literacy, alphabet knowledge, phonemic and phonological awareness Guided writing demonstration Emergent literacy word work demonstration Post to discussion board T & G p. 202-216 Black Lives Matter virtual town hall	Emergent Literacy, alphabet knowledge, phonemic and phonological awareness Guided writing demonstration Emergent literacy word work demonstration T & G p. 202-216 Erickson & Wharton-McDonald (2019) Descriptive text structure

	Control Topics, activities, readings	Treatment Topics, activities, readings
Week 6	Beginning conventional reading and writing, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary Shared reading demonstration Letter name pattern word work demonstration Check your understanding of gradual release of responsibility T & G p. 220-241 Mesmer & Griffith (2006)	Beginning conventional reading and writing, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary Shared reading demonstration Letter name pattern word work demonstration T & G p. 220-241 Sequential/chronological text structure
Week 7	Transitional reading and writing, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary Book clubs demonstration Within word pattern word work demonstration T & G p. 271-286 AERA Brown lecture	Transitional reading and writing, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary Book clubs demonstration Within word pattern word work demonstration T & G p. 271-286 Position and reason/Pro and con text structure
Week 8	Intermediate reading and writing, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary, culturally responsive teaching Modeled writing demonstration Syllables and affixes word work demonstration T & G p. 330-349 Ganskey (2016) Cournoyer-Picard (2007)	Intermediate reading and writing, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary, culturally responsive teaching Modeled writing demonstration Syllables and affixes word work demonstration T & G p. 330-349 Cult of Pedagogy podcast episode 78 Narrative text structures, the narrative arc
Week 9	Skillful literacy, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary Shared and interactive writing demonstration Derivational relations word work demonstration T & G p. 385-405	Skillful literacy, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary Shared and interactive writing demonstration Derivational relations word work demonstration T & G p. 385-405 Poetry
Week 10	Field immersion Blog choice: Education Week, Edutopia, Cult of Pedagogy, We are Teachers	Field immersion Review instructional components in F & P
Week 11	Field immersion Blog choice: Education Week, Edutopia, Cult of Pedagogy, We are Teachers	Field immersion Review instructional components in F & P
Week 12	Reading difficulties, MTSS, and intervention Independent writing and conferring demonstration T & G ch. 11 Johnston (2019) Lenski et al. (2006)	Reading difficulties, MTSS, and intervention Independent writing and conferring demonstration T & G ch. 11 Gambrell (2015) Lewis (2017) Wixson & Valencia (2011) Traditional literature: folk tales, fables
Week 13	Fluency and comprehension, materials and instruction McKee & Carr (2016) Son & Chase (2018) Young et al. (2017)	Fluency and comprehension, materials and instruction McKee & Carr (2016) Son & Chase (2018) Historical fiction

	Control Topics, activities, readings	Treatment Topics, activities, readings
Week 14	Writing, engagement and digital literacy F & P p. 46-59, 68-71 Hoch et al. (2018)	Working together as one: family, school, and community Simone et al. (2019) Application of text analysis to text-based discussion
Week 15	Professional learning Vu (2019)	Writing, engagement and digital literacy F & P p. 46-59, 68-71 Hoch et al. (2008) Creating a classroom context conducive to text-based discussion Analyze text-based discussion transcript

Procedures

The present study was a semester-long intervention designed to provide participants the specialized knowledge needed to facilitate text-based discussion including the ability to analyze text and an awareness of the discourse moves useful in supporting student collaborative meaning making⁴. The intervention was broken into three units: introduction to text analysis, text structures and genre, using the text analysis in text-based discussion. An overview of the intervention's topics and the calendar for the intervention is presented in Table 4. I also name the exemplar texts participants analyzed within this table.

⁴ The lack of awareness of discourse moves was not a strong finding from study one. However, because phase one of this second study took place in a different instructional context, one that does not include any pre-existing instruction in active discussion, I needed to provide this instruction. As I will argue in the discussion section, this decision, while correct for this study, may not be most effective for future studies. The entire semester intervention could have easily been dedicated to text analysis and the TAT. PSTs could then learn about text-based discussion and how to create classroom contexts conducive to discussions in the next semester.

Table 4

Overview of Intervention

Unit 1: Introduction to Text Analysis			
Week	Topic	Materials/Assignments/Exemplar Texts to Analyze	Key Questions
1	Introduction to text analysis	CoLTS (Kucan et al., 2011) baseline assessment assigned for homework PPT 1	What are the specific features of text that convey meaning? How do texts use language to convey meaning? What is a macro feature? What is a micro feature? What is coherence? What makes a text complex? How do you determine the main and supporting ideas of text?
2	Text type: informational, fiction, hybrid	Sort all the texts we will analyze this semester into text types Write text summaries including main and supporting ideas for <i>Flint Water</i> (Newsela, 2017), <i>Tops & Bottoms</i> (Stevens, 1995) PPT 2	What is a fiction text? What is an informational text? What is a hybrid text? What criteria did you use for sorting the texts? How are these criteria useful for teaching these texts to students?
Unit 2: Text Structures and Genres			
3	Text type: informational Text structure: cause and effect	<i>The Black Plague</i> (Callahan, 2013) PPT 3	What are the key text features used in informational cause and effect texts? What are the micro features? What are the structure-specific connectives?
4	Text type: informational Text structure: problem/solution	<i>Flint Water</i> (Newsela, 2017) PPT 4	What are the key text features used in informational problem/solution texts? What are the micro features? What are the structure-specific connectives?
5	Text type: informational Text structure: descriptive, biography	<i>Coral Reefs</i> (Solins, 2013) <i>Harvesting Hope</i> (Krull, 2003) PPT 5	What are the key text features used in informational descriptive texts? What are the micro features? What are the structure-specific connectives? What are the key features used in biographies?
6	Text type: informational Text structure: sequential; chronological	<i>American Plague</i> (Murphy, 2003) PPT 6	What are the key text features used in informational sequential; chronological texts? What are the micro features? What are the structure-specific connectives?

7	Text type: informational Text structure: position and reason; pro/con	<i>Harnessing the Wind</i> (James, 2013) PPT 7	What are the key text features used in informational position and reason; pro/con texts? What are the micro features? What are the structure-specific connectives?
Unit 2: Text Structures and Genres (Continued)			
8	Text type: fiction Introduction to common fiction text structures, linguistic features that make fiction texts complex	<i>Carmela Full of Wishes</i> (de la Peña, 2018) PPT 8	What are some common fiction text structures? What is the narrative arc? What are elements that make fiction texts more or less complex?
9	Text type: fiction Text genre: poetry	<i>On the Pulse of Morning</i> (Angelou, 1993) PPT 9	What are the key features used in poems?
10	Text type: fiction Text genre: traditional literature, folk tales, fables	<i>Tops & Bottoms</i> (Stevens, 1995) PPT 10	What are the key features used in traditional literature?
11	Text type: fiction Text genre: historical fiction	<i>The Bracelet</i> (Uchida, 1996) PPT 11	What are the key features used in historical fiction? Do students have background knowledge of the historical context? How can you tell? How can you supply it if needed?
Unit 3: Using Text Analysis in Text-Based Discussion			
12	Application of text analysis to text-based discussion	PPT 12	How do readers comprehend text? What is text-based discussion? How can teachers use linguistic features discovered in text analyses to build student comprehension in text-based discussions? What information do students need to notice in this text? What features of the text facilitate or inhibit student comprehension?
13	Creating a classroom context conducive to text- based discussion (part 1)	Metalanguage (Appendix E) Analyze transcripts of <i>Tops and Bottoms</i> (Stevens, 1995), <i>The Bracelet</i> (Uchida, 1996), <i>On the Pulse of Morning</i> (Angelou, 1993)	What are some norms teachers can set for text-based discussion? What does it mean for students to actively listen?
14	Creating a classroom context conducive to text- based discussion (part 2)	PPT 13	What are the discourse moves teachers should use to get students actively involved in text-based discussions?

The intervention began by introducing text analysis. In this two-week unit, I represented text analysis by overviewing the TAT and guiding participants as they completed their first text analysis using it. Through this process, I began to decompose the practice of text analysis by exposing participants to key questions such as: *what are the specific features of text that convey meaning?* and *what makes a text complex?* In answering the latter question, participants explored the likely unknown concept of coherence (Graesser et al., 2003) as well as plot elements such as flashbacks or shifts in point of view that disrupt the traditional narrative arc of a story and thus make the text complex. Participants also considered whether texts are missing information needed to understand a text or whether information is contained only in images, graphs, diagrams etc. Kucan and Palincsar (2018) argued this missing information impedes student comprehension and thus likely needs teacher scaffolding. This introductory unit introduced terms, such as “coherence,” “text structure,” and “connectives” that participants used in subsequent units. Within this unit I also provided direct instruction on text types (fiction, informational, or hybrid), characteristics of each type, and how to sort texts into these types. I paid specific attention to hybrid texts, as these texts were likely the most unfamiliar to the candidates (Reutzel et al., 2016). This unit also included a discussion of how to determine the main and supporting ideas of a text. I offered several strategies for doing this work including examining the title, looking for repeated words, phrases, or ideas, and examining graphic features such as bolded or italicized words. Participants completed this unit by independently sorting the texts analyzed during the semester by type.

In the second unit, participants continued to decompose the practice of text analysis as they received direct instruction about each text structure or genre during synchronous class time including the macro and micro features specific to each. Participants then engaged in representations as they used the TAT each week to analyze the exemplar text named in Table 5, above, during their asynchronous class time. They first generated a statement of the main and supporting ideas and then discussed how they would want to use the text in instruction—what information did they want students to learn while reading the text? With this in mind, participants then named the features of the specific text that would either inhibit or facilitate student comprehension of text information.

They submitted these TATs via ELMS the day before each synchronous class. Using my own exemplar TATs, I highlighted their responses as both examples and non-examples of a complete and accurate text analysis and presented these responses during synchronous class time. We also discussed the main and supporting ideas of the text and the macro and micro features that facilitate or impede students' understanding of main ideas.

The third and final unit addressed text-based discussions. For three weeks we explored how text-based discussions provide a forum for student reading comprehension. During this time, we evaluated transcripts from text-based discussions collected in Study One and identified ways in which those participants used the discussions to build student comprehension and what discourse moves the teachers used to cede interpretive authority to students. These discourse moves include uptake and revoicing but also include use of authentic questions to open discussions as well as norms or participation structures that

encourage student engagement in discussions. We also talked about how to use the information gained in text analysis in planning a text-based discussion. Participants answered key questions including: *how can teachers use linguistic features discovered in text analyses to build student comprehension in text-based discussions? What are the discourse moves teachers should use to get students actively involved in text-based discussions?* Within this unit's lessons, we talked about how participants can use their text analyses to create contexts where students collaboratively build knowledge of both the ways in which macro and micro features convey meaning and the content knowledge from each text. For example, participants explored how a discussion of the poem *On the Pulse of Morning* (Angelou, 1993) could focus on how Angelou used analogies including both her craft as a poet and how the analogies build toward the poem's theme of unity.

Method

Data Sources

This study utilized a single measure: the CoLTS assessment (Kucan et al., 2011). The CoLTS consists of two versions, which were counterbalanced at pre-intervention and post. According to Kucan and colleagues,

CoLTS is a paper-and-pencil test that includes three primary tasks: (a) analysis of a text to identify the most important text ideas, as well as those features of the text that might pose difficulties for students attempting to build an understanding of those ideas; (b) assessment of readers' attempts to comprehend the text as revealed in their responses to questions and comments about the text; and (c) the deployment of specific discourse moves in the form of questions, prompts, or cues

designed to address specific student comments and support students in making sense of text ideas (Kucan et al., 2011, p. 64).

Each version of the assessment consists of a single passage appropriate for fourth- and fifth-grade students that participants read. They then complete three subtests: (1) determining the main and supporting ideas of text; (2) identifying challenges the text poses to student comprehension; and (3) monitoring and responding to student comprehension. The first subtest asked participants to read and summarize the passage by identifying main and supporting ideas they would want students to understand after reading that passage. In the second subtest, participants identified the macro and micro features they believed would hinder student understandings. Finally, in the third subtest, participants were presented with several scenarios of teacher-posed questions and student responses, which they read and described their responses to the students. These scenarios asked participants to use their understanding of the text to monitor student comprehension. An example of one such scenario was “After reading the first paragraph, you ask for a volunteer to sum it up. A student says: ‘Bugs are everywhere.’” In this scenario, a student has misunderstood the first sentence—“bugs are everywhere”—to be representative of all information in the paragraph. This scenario also afforded opportunities to see if participants identified the lack of main idea sentences at the beginning of a paragraph would make the text more difficult for students to understand.

Originally, I hoped the CoLTS measure would have allowed me to evaluate participants’ specialized knowledge from all three units of my intervention (i.e., identifying the main and supporting ideas from text, determining which features of text would inhibit or facilitate student comprehension, and monitoring and responding to

student comprehension) and would have produced three distinct scores. These scores would have enabled me to quantitatively investigate whether the different forms of specialized knowledge would overlap or interact with one another. For example, I could have regressed ability to monitor and respond to student comprehension on text analysis and awareness of discourse moves. These analyses would have allowed me to consider something uncovered in study one: whether the ability to analyze text has any effect on participants' ability to monitor and respond to student reading comprehension.

However, the authors of the measure found it is only valid when a single composite score is presented (Kucan et al., 2011; personal communication, Kucan & Palincsar, August, 19, 2020). Accordingly, I used a single composite score to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention but present descriptive statistics and exploratory analyses that more fully describe the nature of the intervention including trends in the data for why differences emerged. I describe these analyses in the next section.

Analysis

Data analysis took place in two phases. In phase one, I calculated a single composite score from the CoLTS assessment (Kucan et al., 2011), following the scoring procedures offered by Kucan and colleagues. I first determined the completeness of participants' main idea statements using a rubric and comparing the number of ideas captured to the exemplar response offered by Kucan et al. As an example, participants would get the maximum score of two points if they included all three ideas in the exemplar response for CoLTS B ("How Big Can a Bug Be?"), as presented below.

Exemplar response:

Idea 1: the size of insects is constrained because their skeletons are on the outside of their bodies and it must support their muscles

Idea 2: if an insect is big, its muscles will be big, and its exoskeleton will be big

Idea 3: if the exoskeleton is too big, the insect will collapse under its own weight

Figure 2

Main Idea Rubric

Score	Number of main and supporting ideas identified
2	3
1	1-2
0	0

I then evaluated whether participants demonstrated any misunderstandings of the text in their main idea statements and awarded a single point if no evidence of misunderstanding was present. Then, participants received a single point for each text difficulty they noticed. Kucan and colleagues (2011) identified nine specific difficulties for each CoLTS passage, so participants could receive a maximum of nine points in these questions. For example, the CoLTS B text had no main idea statements at the beginning of the paragraphs. I awarded a single point if a participant noticed these main idea statements were missing. Participants received no points if these observations were missing. Finally, I evaluated participants' ability to monitor student comprehension and respond to student misunderstandings. Participants could receive a maximum of eight points by both correctly identifying student misunderstandings and responding to them strategically. To offer a specific example: participants who noted the student misidentified the first sentence in a paragraph as the main idea received one point. They received another point if they reminded the student of how to create a summary (i.e., by saying, "a summary needs to tell what most of the sentences in a paragraph are about. What do the other sentences in the paragraph talk about?").

Next, I summed these scores to get the composite score. Participants could receive a maximum of 22 points. Using R 4.0.3 software (R Core Team, 2020), I first calculated descriptive statistics using package *psych* (Revelle, 2020). These statistics are displayed in Table 5. Each cell contains the mean score and its standard deviation.

Table 5

Mean CoLTS Score and Standard Deviation

	Pretest	Posttest
Control	7.10 (2.38)	9.00 (2.00)
Treatment	7.61 (2.40)	11.17 (3.35)

To consider Research Question 1—the effect of the intervention on participants’ ability to analyze text—I conducted a type III analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) using R function *aov* in package *car* (Fox & Weisberg, 2019) with pretest scores being entered into the model as covariates. Before doing so, however, I tested several assumptions of ANCOVA including whether scores were normally distributed, pretest scores were roughly the same across treatment and control groups, variances were similar across treatment conditions, and whether there was a significant interaction between pretest score and treatment condition. All tests were insignificant and assumptions were met except for normality. The Wilks-Shapiro test for normality of posttest scores was statistically significant, suggesting these data were not normally distributed. A histogram of the variable displayed a right skew. Accordingly, I log-transformed the posttest scores and used the log transformations for further analysis (see Figures 3 and 4).

Figure 3

Histogram of Posttest Scores (Original)
Transformed)

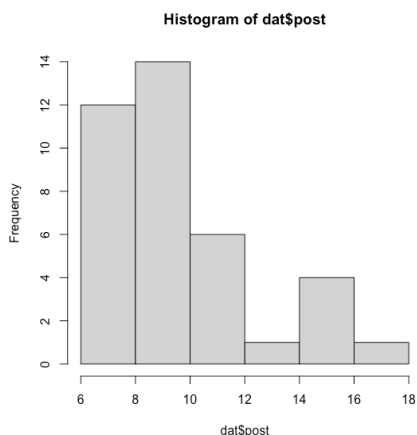
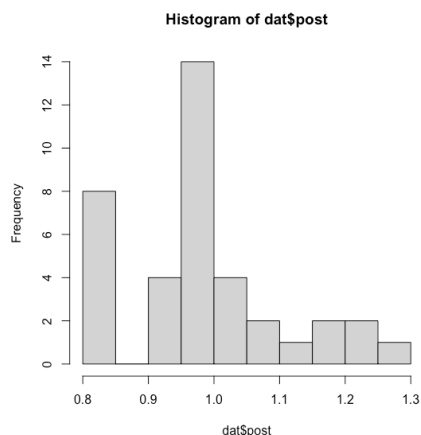


Figure 4

Histogram of Posttest Scores (Log



The second phase of data analysis allowed me to explore Research Question 2 and the related sub-questions regarding how the intervention had its effect and the potential relationship between the CoLTS subtests. I hypothesized participants' ability to monitor and respond to student comprehension would be impacted by participants' understanding of the text (as indicated by their main and supporting idea statements) as well as their awareness of the potential challenges the text poses to student comprehension. For example, if participants noticed the text does not offer main idea sentences at the beginning of the paragraphs, were they able to help the student who was not able to offer a summary and instead just read the first sentence of a paragraph?

First, I calculated four summed scores within the three subtests on the posttest CoLTS: identifying the main and supporting ideas from text, determining macro and micro features (calculated as two distinct summed scores) that could add to text complexity, and monitoring and responding to student comprehension. Then I conducted several exploratory analyses including pairwise Pearson's correlations between these four

summed scores using the `cor` and `cor.test` functions in R package *psych* (Revelle, 2020) and running several independent samples *t*-tests using function `t.test` in R base package (R Core Team, 2020). *T*-tests are useful for comparing differences between two means (e.g., Field et al., 2012) and thus provided a simple option for comparing differences in posttest scores between treatment and control group participants. Specifically, I conducted four separate *t*-tests that looked for statistically significant differences in posttest scores between treatment and control groups' ability to identify the text's main and supporting ideas, complex macro and micro features, and monitor and respond to student comprehension. I calculated effect sizes for monitoring comprehension, which was the only *t*-test found to be statistically significant.

Results

Research Question One: Statistical Significance of the Intervention

The results of the ANCOVA analysis indicate a statistically significant effect of the intervention on participants' text analysis ability, $F(1, 35) = 5.51, p = 0.025, \eta^2 = 0.39$. This result suggests the intervention had a moderate effect size and participants who received the intervention significantly increased their ability to analyze text when compared to the business-as-usual control condition. More specifically, instruction that did three things appeared to impact participants' ability to analyze text. First, participants received direct instruction on the specific macro and micro features of text that convey meaning including text structures and linguistic features such as connectives. Second, participants learned how to decipher main and supporting ideas as well as identify features of that specific text facilitate or inhibit student comprehension. Third, participants had repeated, hands-on opportunities to practice applying their new

knowledge. Each week, participants analyzed a text that they could theoretically use in instruction, including potential read-alouds such as *Carmela Full of Wishes* (de la Peña, 2018) and leveled readers like *The Bracelet* (Uchida, 1996).

Research Question Two: Exploratory Analyses

Although the overall effect of the intervention appears to be statistically significant, further analysis could shed light on how the intervention produced its effect. Using subtest scores, I ran a series of *t*-tests comparing the mean scores of treatment and control groups at posttest, see Table 6, significant values are bolded. These results suggest the intervention produced a statistically significant difference for monitoring comprehension alone. However, the intervention's effect size on participants' ability to monitor comprehension ($r = 0.45$) is moderate.

Table 6

Comparison of Mean Subtest Posttest Scores

	Total possible points	Mean score control	Mean score treatment	<i>t</i> (<i>p</i>)
Main and supporting ideas	5	1.90	2.11	-0.73 (<i>p</i> = 0.47)
Micro features	3	0.45	0.39	0.29 (<i>p</i> = 0.77)
Macro features	6	0.95	1.39	-1.39 (<i>p</i> = 0.18)
Monitoring comprehension	8	3.25	4.50	-2.96 (<i>p</i> = 0.005)

Evaluating pairwise correlations of the four subtests allowed me to investigate my hypothesis of a relationship between the four subtest scores. Specifically, I reasoned that participants' ability to decipher the main idea of texts as well as determine which macro and micro features make a text complex would impact their ability to monitor and respond to student comprehension. The correlations are presented in Table 7. Testing the

correlations revealed no value to be statistically significant, which suggests that no subtest is statistically significantly related to another subtest.

Table 7

Pairwise Correlations

	Main idea	Macro features	Micro features	Monitoring comprehension
Main idea	1.00			
Macro features	0.19	1.00		
Micro features	0.29	-0.02	1.00	
Monitoring comprehension	0.26	-0.08	0.24	1.00

These results were surprising, especially as they contradicted research that suggested teachers' own reading habits affects their instruction (Burgess et al., 2011; McKool & Gespass, 2009). I hypothesized teachers' own reading—their ability to decipher main ideas—would impact their instruction. Correlations suggest this is not the case. Due to the unexpected nature of this finding, I looked at participants' written responses on their CoLTS posttest. I found inconsistencies in participants' written responses, with participants at times using features they had missed in their text analyses to monitor student comprehension. A representative sample was offered by Alice⁵, who offered the following summary:

An overarching idea from the text is that bugs do not grow to be very big. A few important ideas are brought up in different paragraphs. First, insects have an exoskeleton which protects them and allows them to move. Insects are vulnerable without their exoskeleton when they are transitioning to a new one. Lastly, insects have only one blood vessel because they are so small, and they breathe not

⁵ All names are pseudonyms

through lungs like us, but through spiracles. The heart and blood vessel are protected by the exoskeleton, which contains spiracles.

Here Alice noticed that bugs are small but failed to demonstrate an understanding of the main idea of the text: that the size of bugs is constrained because of their exoskeleton and their lack of lungs. However, when monitoring student comprehension, she was able to notice the student

connected the sentence ‘no part of an insect’s body can be very far from its exoskeleton—and its spiracles’ to earlier in the text when it said that insects cannot grow to be large because of their exoskeleton, which could collapse under too much weight.

Similarly, Jordan, in her response to a student who inappropriately repeated the first sentence of a paragraph when asked for a summary said:

I would say “That is true, bugs are everywhere! I see you have gotten that from the first sentence. I want you to take a look at this paragraph again, because I want you to tell us a summary of the whole paragraph. This is what the paragraph is *mostly* about. I can tell you read the first sentence, but I want you to take another look and tell me what the paragraph *mostly* talks about.”

However, despite making this response to a student, Jordan did not indicate the lack of main idea sentences as a feature that would make texts complex and thus more difficult for students to understand.

Conversely, missing or misunderstood main ideas appeared to affect other participants’ ability to monitor student comprehension. For example, Angelica’s main idea statement included

- Insects are very small creatures which is why they have a different kind of body.
- Exoskeletons are “outside” the insect’s body and only have 1 vien [sic].
- Because an exoskeleton is outside the body, if an insect grows it needs to molt.
- Insects breathe using spiracles.

Angelica did not demonstrate understanding that insects have neither lungs nor blood that carries oxygen in this main idea statement. Later, when asked how she would respond to a student who inappropriately compared insect blood to human blood, she said “the student takes the in-text detail about insects having yellow/green blood and applies it to their knowledge on the human body.” She appears unable to monitor this student’s misunderstanding and thus does not have an appropriate response to it.

Discussion and Directions for Future Research

The small-scale study I present here shows promise: the intervention was statistically significant at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level with a moderate effect size. Exploratory analyses offered insight into the mechanisms behind the intervention’s effect: participants who received the treatment were able to more effectively monitor and respond to student comprehension. The intervention appeared to have minimal effect on participants’ ability to decipher main and supporting ideas or to determine macro or micro features that make a text complex. As findings from Study One suggest, preservice teachers who do not effectively identify main and supporting ideas or features that contribute to text complexity, may not use these features to support student comprehension and thus may miss valuable opportunities to support student comprehension.

However, the results of the exploratory analyses should be interpreted with caution as the CoLTS assessment is most reliable when “teachers’ responses were used in

the calculation of a single total scale rather than individual scales for text analysis and responding to students” (Kucan et al., 2011, p. 65). The results of the *t*-tests are useful in exploring why and how the intervention had its effect, but they should not be taken as measures of participants’ underlying ability to analyze text or respond to students. Future research should use validated measures to consider how participants’ abilities respond to intervention.

Exploratory analyses also suggest several clear places for revising the intervention and thus, potentially increasing its effect. First, although the treatment group demonstrated statistically significant growth in their ability to analyze text as measured by the CoLTS, participants still had much to learn about text analysis. Their scores across the four subtests (see Table 6, above) indicate participants were not deciphering all main ideas of text, nor were they determining macro or micro features that present potential difficulties to student comprehension. Previous research suggests several potential ways to improve the intervention in these areas. Wexler and colleagues (2021) taught teachers to determine the main idea of text by breaking an expository text into sections using subheading when possible and ask themselves two key questions while reading the sections: who or what is this section mostly about? What is the most important information about the who or what? Teachers learned to look for repeated words when answering the first questions and text features like pictures and captions, bolded words when answering the second. After generating a short statement answering the questions for each section, the teachers would synthesize across statements to determine the main idea of the text. Results suggested teachers made statistically significant gains in their own ability to write these main idea statements in response to professional development.

The strategies Wexler et al. offered could be easily integrated into the text analysis intervention and may lead to improvements in preservice teachers' ability to summarize text.

Another possibility for improving the intervention lies in increasing PSTs' ability to use micro features. Evaluating text complexity using micro features was especially challenging for participants, even after the intervention, a finding which was also noted in Study One. For example, no participant noted the absence of main idea sentences on their CoLTS posttest. Participants also appeared to not attend to text coherence, with only seven participants noticing the fact that the main ideas were not connected but were instead distributed throughout the text. Previous research (e.g., Graesser et al., 2003) has also found coherence to be an unfamiliar concept for teachers and in light of this research, the present finding is unsurprising. Despite its predictability, the finding that the intervention did not make a statistically significant difference in participants' ability to attend to text difficulties represents a clear place for revisions and further investigation. Graesser and colleagues suggested teachers receive direct instruction into the factors that make a text coherent or not (e.g., presence of topic sentences to cue a reader to a change in topic, main ideas that are spread throughout the text). They said, "it is not sufficient to spend a day or two giving a lecture on the taxonomy of coherence relations. The process of identifying and interpreting such relations will need to be *overlearned* [emphasis in original] to the point of being automatic" (Graesser et al., 2003, p. 22).

A practice-based approach could be particularly helpful for teaching coherence. The practice of evaluating a text's coherence could be decomposed into specific factors that affect it and approximated as PSTs practice evaluating the coherence of texts they

could use in instruction. Doing this work under the guidance of a teacher educator would likely be helpful as the teacher educator can scaffold learning and provide opportunities for participants to reflect on their performance. McDonald and colleagues (2013) argued this reflection is vital for teacher learning. Future research could explore the potential effect of instruction into evaluating coherence.

A third way to improve the intervention could be removing the third unit and instead dedicating more time to the instruction described in the above paragraphs. This option is especially appealing for the participants of the current study as they have one more course in the four-course literacy sequence described in Study One. The present intervention was set in within the third course in this sequence and if it was dedicated to text analysis, participants' attention could be turned to applying text analysis to leading text-based discussions in the fourth course. This fourth course was the setting for Study One and is more fully described in that study. However, as a reminder, that course contains a specific unit dedicated to active discussion (a form of text-based discussion) and thus naturally presents opportunities for participants to analyze texts in preparation for leading discussions. In this scenario, instruction into text-based discussions would span two semesters: semester one would be dedicated to text and would help participants understand how teachers analyze texts and how this information helps them anticipate student confusions and how they will respond to them. In semester two, participants would continue to practice analyzing texts in preparation for discussions but would focus on using information gained in the text analysis to support student active sensemaking. This two-course sequence may address findings from Study One; namely, that participants' lack of specialized knowledge such as awareness of connectives and ability

to summarize texts, impacted their discussions. With more specialized knowledge, future teachers may lead more effective, student-centered discussions than they would without this knowledge. Future research should investigate the effect of this change to the intervention.

Perhaps the most surprising finding to come from this study was the suggestion that participants' ability to determine main ideas and to notice macro and micro features that made texts complex were uncorrelated with participants' ability to monitor and respond to student reading comprehension. Said differently, participants appeared to be able to monitor and respond to student comprehension without completely understanding the main ideas of a text or the macro and micro features that made a text complex. There are several possible reasons for this finding. First, it is possible that participants understood more of the main ideas of text than they wrote on the CoLTS. As a written assignment, participants may have had difficulty demonstrating their comprehension in writing. The reading/writing disconnect can be noted in school-aged students (e.g., Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000) and while these participants are undergraduate students and should thus be competent writers, they may have not been able to demonstrate all they know about a text in writing.

Second, participants may have been cued into main ideas of the text through student responses as Alice may have demonstrated when she noticed a bug's size is constrained by its body features. It is possible that Alice had not noticed the bug's features required its small size in her reading of the text but may have made that connection when her student did. The nature of the CoLTS assessment may come into play here. Because it is a paper-and-pencil task as opposed to live teaching, participants

had time to analyze and consider their responses to students in a manner that they would not have been able to in the field. This additional time to think through and plan, or even revise initial responses may have interrupted the relationship between what teachers knew about the text and what they do when teaching the text.

Third, participants may have differed on some ability not measured by the CoLTS assessment that allowed them to monitor student comprehension more effectively. For example, participants in the treatment section may have had additional field placements prior to the intervention which provided them opportunity to learn how to monitor student comprehension and what pedagogical moves are effective as responses to their observations.

Fourth, is the possibility that participants' understanding of a text does not impact their ability to monitor student comprehension. Although this possibility is somewhat counter-intuitive and is contrary to research that connected teachers personal reading habits with their ability to deliver instructional best practices (Burgess et al., 2011; Dreher, 2002; Guthrie et al., 2000; McKool & Gespass, 2011), it is not without warrant. Shulman's (1986) concept of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge is useful to consider here. Content knowledge "includes knowledge of the subject and its organizing structures" (Ball et al., 2008, p. 2) while pedagogical content knowledge is knowledge teachers possess for teaching the content, for making the subject intelligible to others (Shulman, 1986). For teachers of reading, their ability to summarize texts and to identify features that impact text complexity can be seen as a form of content knowledge while their ability to apply content knowledge to their teaching is a form of pedagogical content knowledge. However, the connection between content knowledge and

pedagogical content knowledge is not yet clear (Ball et al., 2008; Phelps & Schilling, 2004). In one of the few studies that has investigated the relationship between teachers' reading content knowledge and their knowledge of teaching and children (pedagogical content knowledge), Phelps and Schilling (2004) found that content knowledge and knowledge of teaching and children to be separate and distinct factors. Taken together, their findings and those from the present study's exploratory analyses clearly suggest what teachers need to know about reading comprehension to be able to effectively teach it, as an area for future research. The areas for future research here represent one implication from this dissertation. In the next and final chapter, I look across findings from Study One, and Study Two and link these with the existing research described in Chapter Two in order to draw conclusions and implications from this dissertation.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION OF THE DISSERTATION

Together, findings from the two studies suggest all three factors under examination—epistemological beliefs, text analysis, and experiential knowledge—impacted preservice teachers' learning about and ultimately leading text-based discussions. In this section, I summarize findings from Study One and Two and link these findings with existing research. I then synthesize findings across the two studies and provide conclusions regarding what how teacher educators can prepare preservice teachers for text-based discussions. These conclusions include recommendations for what preservice teachers should learn—the content of teacher education for text-based discussion—and how teacher educators can create learning experiences that help preservice teachers apply what they know when working with students.

Conclusions from Study One

Study One shed light into the way in which three factors affected PSTs' discussions. First, PSTs' epistemological beliefs appeared to influence the amount of interpretive authority they shared with students in discussions while also reducing the effect of experiential knowledge. PSTs with certain types of epistemological beliefs may learn less about text-based discussions, even with opportunities to practice leading them with students. Participants Taylor and Mary demonstrated pre-reflective thinking on the Reflective Judgment Interview (RJI; King & Kitchener, 1994) and also maintained the most control over student talk in their discussions. For example, in her reflection after her second discussion, Mary stated that she used her talk as a way of controlling student discourse. Mary and Taylor also appeared to make few changes to their discussions even after several opportunities to plan, lead, and reflect on their teaching, which may be

evidence of pre-reflective beliefs having an impact on PSTs' learning about text-based discussions.

This finding echoes a claim made by Wilkinson and colleagues (2017) that student-centered instructional techniques, like text-based discussions, which center student voices and invite students to construct knowledge, may be incompatible with pre-reflective judgment. Because those with pre-reflective judgment see knowledge as inherently subjective, they do not see knowledge as constructable and thus do not value instructional contexts that ask students to build understandings. They may instead believe their role is to transmit knowledge to students and may seek to minimize student talk, which Taylor and Mary did. Their third turn moves controlled the flow of conversation and limited opportunities for students to interact and build on one another's ideas. Further evidence of the impact of epistemological beliefs on PSTs' discussions came when contrasting Taylor and Mary with Malika, who demonstrated reflective thinking and who shared the most interpretive authority with students in her text-based discussion. Those with reflective thinking, like Malika, not only believe knowledge is socially constructable, they have clearly established methods for evaluating opinions. These beliefs may lead teachers with reflective thinking to create tasks where students have interpretive authority and use it to jointly negotiate meaning, which Malika and her students did in their discussion. Reflective thinking may also facilitate PSTs' learning about text-based discussion because the instruction aligns with their beliefs. Future research should continue to explore the connection between epistemological beliefs and teachers' learning about and leading discussions.

Study One also revealed text analysis as influential on PSTs' text-based discussions. In this study, participants received approximately three hours of direct instruction on text analysis and had two opportunities to practice analyzing texts using the text analysis tool (TAT; Kucan & Palincsar, 2018) in the university classroom. Once they began their internships full time, participants continued planning for discussions with the TAT and had opportunities to reflect on the effect this planning had on their discussions. When analyzing texts with the TAT, participants considered what information they wanted students to acquire from the text and what features of the text may inhibit or facilitate student understanding that information. In answering the latter question, participants identified macro features including the text structure, common features of that text structure, and whether the text had any unconventional features that could add to text complexity (Reutzel et al., 2016). Participants also considered text micro features including connectives (e.g., *but*, *however*, *despite* which connect discrepant ideas and are common in compare and contrast or pro/con text structures) and co-referents.

Each participant indicated planning with the TAT made her feel more prepared for discussions with students. Participants felt they understood the text more after analyzing it. For example, Mary said she attended to text structure after only analysis while McKenna noted that she was able to self-monitor her own comprehension of the text while analyzing it. Upon noticing she did not understand the text, Mary was able to seek guidance from her mentor teacher and, in the end, felt prepared to lead the discussion with her students. These findings support an argument made by Kucan and Palincsar (2018) who believed analyzing text "provides the teacher with a working

knowledge of the text, freeing the teacher to be more attentive to the contributions and challenges of the students in the course of a discussion” (p. 100). Analysis of participants’ text-based discussion transcripts suggests this working knowledge of the text did appear to make them responsive to students in their discussions. When participants correctly anticipated student difficulties, they were able to mitigate them successfully in a manner that kept the discussion student-centered. Heather, for example, was prepared to supply background knowledge missing from the text but necessary to understanding it and McKenna was able to scaffold students understanding of confusing vocabulary by uptaking student ideas.

However, participants in Study One also demonstrated a lack of specialized knowledge on the TAT which may have limited their’ working knowledge of the text and also appeared to impact their text-based discussions with students. Participants inconsistently demonstrated awareness of genre-specific connectives, the importance of repeated ideas, features of text structure, all of which convey meaning that students can use to understand text. Although each of these difficulties was noted in existing research (Kucan et al., 2011; Meneses et al., 2018), the present study extended the findings of existing research when it examined the effect of missing specialized knowledge on preservice teachers’ actual teaching with students. When the participants did not notice these items on the TAT, they did not use them to support their students’ sensemaking in the discussion. Additionally, participants displayed difficulty summarizing text by connecting main and supporting ideas on the TAT; this difficulty appeared to prevent them from effectively scaffolding students as they, students, answered higher-order questions. Lara exemplified this finding when she was unable to bring together

supporting ideas to help students identify the lesson of a text, which was a main idea. These findings give credence to Meneses et al.'s (2018) suspicions that preservice teachers who do not demonstrate understanding of a text may have difficulty engaging in the complex task of monitoring and scaffolding student comprehension through discussion. Future research should continue to explore the effect of text analysis on preservice teachers' use of discussions with students.

Finally, findings from Study One offered evidence of the experiential knowledge gained as PSTs planned, led, and reflected on multiple text-based discussions. Participants' ability to analyze text on the TAT did not appear to change across Study One, however, participants Heather, McKenna, Taylor, and Meredith did appear to share more interpretive authority with students in their second and third discussions. For example, Heather, when reflecting on her first discussion said she wanted to help students understand they should be communicating amongst themselves and building on each other's ideas, rather than talking to her or answering her questions only. She supported students in doing this work in the second discussion and the students responded by demonstrating more instances of student-student communication. Taylor continued to frequently control students' responses with her third turn moves in her third discussion but did reduce the number of IRE-type questions she asked. This growth is noteworthy because participants and their students had really only begun practicing text-based discussion when COVID-19 forced their work to end. But even within their first few attempts, four participants had started shifting interpretive authority to students and their students began accepting the opportunities to collaboratively build understandings.

These findings support those offered by researchers using a practice-based teacher education framework (e.g., Grossman et al., 2009; McDonald et al., 2013) to guide their studies. Practice-based teacher education argues that teachers need opportunities to enact knowledge as they actively teach as well as opportunities to reflect on their teaching. The PSTs under investigation appeared to benefit from repeated opportunities to plan, lead, and reflect on discussions. Future research should consider the effect of additional opportunities to do this work and should also consider whether PSTs gain more knowledge when they reflect as part of a group. For example, the PSTs who Juzwik and colleagues (2012) studied recorded short sections of their discussions and engaged in joint reflections with peers. Through these joint reflections, PSTs not only learned from their own teaching, they learned from the teaching of others. This learning from others allowed them to not only see additional instances of discussions but to see discourse moves used purposefully and flexibly across contexts.

Conclusions from Study Two

Study Two built on findings from Study One by delivering a semester-long text analysis intervention to preservice teachers. Within this intervention, participants received direct instruction on common expository text structures and narrative genres as well as the features and connectives common to each (Crosson & Lesaux, 2013). Participants also received weekly opportunities to apply their knowledge as they analyzed exemplar texts and considered how they would use texts in instruction using the text analysis tool (TAT; Kucan & Palincsar, 2018). When doing this work, participants questioned what information they would want students to understand in the text (the text's main ideas) and what specific features of the text could either inhibit or facilitate

student comprehension of the main ideas. They practiced considering the text from the point of view of their students as they questioned whether students would have background knowledge and vocabulary necessary to access text. This intervention had a statistically significant effect on participants' ability to analyze text, including their ability to monitor and respond to student comprehension.

The intervention's results suggest instructing teachers on how to use the TAT to analyze texts is worthwhile and results from the exploratory analyses indicate that PSTs learned how to monitor and respond to students from this intervention. However, exploratory analyses also suggest the intervention may not have improved PSTs' ability to summarize texts or their awareness of specific macro and micro features of text that convey meaning. Future research should consider whether additional instruction on these features further improves PSTs' ability to analyze text. Future research should also question how text analysis impacts the discussions PSTs lead with students including how they monitor and respond to student comprehension. Exploratory analyses appeared to indicate PSTs were able to monitor student comprehension without establishing a comprehensive understanding of the text, but would this finding stand up to further scrutiny? Future research should find out.

Synthesizing Across the Two Studies

Taken together, the findings from this dissertation offer further evidence that teacher education is a viable mechanism for addressing the need for novice teachers who can deliver sophisticated instruction like text-based discussion from the very beginning of their teaching careers. The statistically significant intervention in Study Two suggests preservice teachers can learn how to analyze text through direct instruction on common

text structures and genres as well as their features and linguistic elements such as connectives. Repeated opportunities to practice analyzing exemplar texts also appears to impact not only their ability to analyze text but their capacity for monitoring and responding to student sensemaking. Findings from Study One also support the benefit from repeated opportunities to practice. In this study, PSTs practiced planning discussions with the TAT and leading discussions with students and appeared to grow in their ability to shift interpretive authority to students over time. These findings offer insight on what this teacher education can look like (i.e., what preservice teachers should learn and the ways in which teacher educators should teach it) and highlight key areas for future research, each of which I will describe in this section.

The contingent nature of discussions means that teachers must improvise as they monitor and respond to student sensemaking in a manner that keeps students actively engaged in building understandings. This contingent nature makes discussions for all teachers, but especially for novices (Kucan et al., 2011; Kucan & Palincsar, 2018; Meneses et al., 2018; Moos & Pitton, 2014; Reisman et al., 2018). Teacher educators face challenges in preparing novice teachers for this work, in part because questions remain regarding what teachers need to know in order to lead text-based discussions and how teacher educators can best create learning environments that help future teachers learn to lead discussions. The findings from the two studies of this dissertation offer some guidance.

First, because preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs may impact their learning about and ultimately leading text-based discussions, these beliefs should be articulated and intentionally examined. This examination may mitigate a challenge noted

by researchers including Alvermann and Hayes (1989) who found teachers' use of discourse stubbornly hard to shift. The five teachers Alvermann and Hayes studied each received personalized coaching for six months on ways to improve student discourse in the classroom. Although several teachers displayed changes in their use of discussion when actively working with a coach, all returned to previously established instructional routines once coaching support was removed. Alvermann and Hayes argued the extended coaching did not result on meaningful instructional changes because the recommended discourse practices conflicted with teachers' beliefs.

Existing research not only supports the connection between teachers' epistemological beliefs and their use of discussions (e.g., Alvermann & Hayes, 1981; Buehl & Fives, 2016; Bråten et al., 2017; Wilkinson et al., 2017), it articulates the potential effect of examining beliefs on one's teaching. When teachers reflect, they consider beliefs and assumptions in light of current evidence, such as videos or transcripts of teaching (Dewey, 1933). This act of reflection not only encourages the development of reflective thinking, as defined by King and Kitchener (1994), it can help teachers understand when their teaching practice does not align with their stated goals (Lunn Brownlee et al., 2016; 2017) and thus can spur changes to their pedagogy. In the case of text-based discussion, teachers could examine their beliefs, which often include engaging students in classroom talk, and reflect on whether their instruction is truly engaging students in conversation.

Second, text analysis should be included as a component of the practice of leading text-based discussions, especially for novice teachers. Novice teachers may not yet understand how to monitor and respond to student sensemaking and may struggle to do

so in the moment when teaching (Moss & Pitton, 2014). Text analysis affords teachers an opportunity to not just develop a comprehensive representation of the text itself, but also to anticipate and plan responses to potential student difficulties. This planning may allow teachers to monitor and respond to student sensemaking and thus navigate the ill-defined space of discussion while keeping the students actively engaged in sensemaking (Kucan & Palincsar, 2018; Meneses et al., 2018). I also posit text analysis as an effective means to address some of the challenges noted in earlier research. For example, the preservice teachers Reisman and colleagues (2018) studied, had difficulty using discourse moves flexibly to engage students as sensemakers even when teaching from prepared lessons that instructors vetted prior to use. It is possible that the teacher's understanding of text, gained in text analysis, would have facilitated their use of discourse moves in a way the plan could not. Students, when given interpretive authority, may move in unanticipated directions in discussions (e.g., Kucan & Palincsar, 2011). They bring their individual textual interpretations, which are often rooted in their own lived experiences and backgrounds, into conversation, and teachers, especially novices, may have difficulty anticipating these responses (e.g., Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017). Teachers' understanding of the text may allow them to label unanticipated responses as either evidence of comprehension or misunderstandings efficiently and may allow teachers to focus more on their responses. The findings from both studies in this dissertation give credence to this idea and warrant future investigation.

Preservice teachers should also receive direct instruction on how to summarize texts by connecting main and supporting ideas. Findings from Study Two suggested PSTs continued to struggle with this work, even after multiple opportunities to practice it.

Instruction like that offered by Wexler and colleagues (2021) that provides teachers with strategies for deciphering main and supporting ideas, could benefit PSTs. Although the exploratory analyses I conducted in Study Two revealed PSTs' ability to detect main ideas may not impact their ability to monitor and respond to student comprehension, PSTs should know how to summarize texts. Their ability to summarize is a form of content knowledge that research could eventually link to their instruction.

Third, this dissertation adds another example of the effectiveness of practice-based approaches to teaching text-based discussion. Preservice teachers appear to benefit from teacher educators who decompose, represent, and approximate both the practice of text analysis and text-based discussion, and who also provide opportunities for PSTs to reflect on their text analyses and discussions. Situating instruction on planning and leading text-based discussion into courses where PSTs are also student teaching may facilitate their learning for two key reasons: (1) they can practice taking student perspectives as they analyze texts and consider what information they would want students to take from a text but also what aspects of the text might facilitate or hinder student comprehension. For example, would students be distracted by certain interesting, but only tangentially important information? This work may be more easily and effectively done when PSTs have a specific group of students in mind while planning. (2) Multiple opportunities to practice leading and reflecting on discussions may increase PSTs' flexible use of discourse moves.

Limitations

The ultimate aim of this dissertation is to make an important contribution to the field of teacher education by shedding light on the ways in which preservice teachers can

be prepared to lead a sophisticated instructional practice—text-based discussion—at the start of their teaching careers. However, my choice to set this dissertation in the context of teacher education, both in the university classrooms where preservice teachers learn reading methods and in their field placements, ultimately limits the capacity of this dissertation to reach its goal. This dissertation does not help preservice teachers negotiate the pressures they are likely face when they enter the classroom that may impede their ability to lead text-based discussions. These pressures include the mandates of states, districts, and school administrators to deliver IRE-style instruction believed to help students pass high-stakes tests as well as the influence of their grade-level or content-area teammates whose plans likely do not include text-based discussion. Without a clear understanding of how to situate text-based discussions within the mandated curriculum and how discussions can actually prepare students for success on high-stakes tests, it is possible novice teachers may not use the instructional technique.

My choice to situate the dissertation within teacher education also limits my ability to consider the effect of text-based discussions on student reading comprehension. Although improved student achievement is the ultimate rationale behind my desire to prepare preservice teachers to be able to lead text-based discussions, I am not able to answer any questions related to student achievement in this dissertation. My selection of the CoLTS measure further inhibits any answers to questions of student achievement as this measure is designed for use with teachers, not students. Future research could use longitudinal designs to follow preservice teachers into their induction years of teaching and consider the effect of teacher education for text-based discussions on student

achievement. Measures other than the CoLTS would need to be used to evaluate student comprehension gains.

Another potential limitation of this dissertation is the fact that it did not directly address participants' ability to answer the questions of which students should participate in text-based discussions and why as well as how to situate text-based discussion within a framework of balanced literacy instruction so all students can be successful in discussions. The questions of who should participate in discussions and why is an important one because many teachers, even those within Study One, harbor attitudes that text-based discussion is only appropriate for their "high" readers. The answer to the second question may come from the fact that Study One and Study Two both take place within the four-course reading methods sequence in the elementary education program. In these courses, preservice teachers learn how to create a balanced literacy program that addresses the needs of all students in their classrooms. The syllabi for these four courses are included in Appendix F, G, H, and I. They display the instruction preservice teachers receive in assessing students' literacy development and in "plan[ning], deliver[ing] and evaluat[ing] evidence-based reading instruction in the core components of reading—*phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension.*" Preservice teachers learn how to create effective tier 1 instruction while also learning how to modify instruction to meet the needs of individual learners. However, it is possible that the preservice teachers do not understand how to sequence instruction so that all students are able to engage in text-based discussions. For example, students should be able to construct a mental representation of text (van den Broek et al., 1998) prior to entering into discussion. My failure to address these questions may impact the reach of this

dissertation as preservice teachers, who do not have clear answers to these questions, may decide that some students are not able to participate in discussions upon entering their classrooms.

There are also several methodological limitations to note. First, this dissertation also used convenience samples of preservice teachers from a single teacher education program, which limits the generalizability of findings. Second, the sample sizes in both studies were small. Third, Study Two contained only a single covariate: pretest scores. Not including any other covariates, either as explanatory variables or control variables, greatly reduces my ability to conclude that the intervention was responsible for the outcome. In light of this limitation, my moderate effect size ($\eta^2 = 0.39$) should be interpreted with caution. Future research should address these limitations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, findings from this dissertation suggest epistemological beliefs; text analysis; and repeated opportunities to practice planning for discussions by analyzing text, leading discussions with students, and reflecting on their enacted discussions all impact PSTs' learning about and leading text-based discussions. Knowledge of text analysis appears to provide PSTs with an understanding of the text that allows them to effectively monitor and respond to student comprehension. These findings have implications for teacher educators who may find PSTs benefit from direct instruction into macro and micro features of text that convey meaning and how they can use these features to support student sensemaking in text-based discussions as well as opportunities to enact this knowledge when working with students and reflect on these enactments. Although the work of preparing novice teachers for sophisticated, student-centered

instruction, like text-based discussion is difficult, the rewards of this work are potentially huge. Demographic shifts in the teacher workforce indicate more and more students are educated by novice teachers (Ingersoll, 2018) so it is incumbent on teacher educators to arm teachers with instructional techniques, like text-based discussion, that lead to student achievement.

Appendix A

Text Analysis Tool

Name: _____

Text: _____

Macro-level Features

Genre/text structure

1. What is the genre of text? What is the text structure? What are the important features of the structure?
 - a. Is the text a hybrid text, with information about a topic embedded in a narrative, or with different text genres in sidebars or special sections?
 - b. What are the important sections or parts in the text that focus on specific topics?
 - c. Are there cues to the text topic(s) and organization in a title, an overview or introduction, headings, subheadings?

Content

1. What are the most important ideas in the text?
 - a. What questions could you pose to focus student attention on those ideas before reading and return to after reading?
 - b. Is there important content presented in graphic features such as photographs, illustrations, maps, diagrams, timelines?
 - c. Is there information in the text that might distract students from focusing on important content?
 - d. Is there information needed to understand important text ideas missing from the text or inadequately explained

2. Do these important ideas connect to:
 - a. Important ideas in the disciplines or to the practices of disciplinary experts such as scientists and historians?
 - b. Current events?
 - c. Other texts that might be used in a text set?

Micro-level Features

What opportunities does the text provide for pointing out specific text/language features that would support students in imposing coherence on the information?

- Main idea sentences (also note placement or lack of such sentences)
- Transition words between paragraphs or sentences
- Repetition of key words or phrases
- Coreferents: words or phrases that refer to the same person, place, event, or idea
- Precise word choice to indicate differences between actions or thoughts (e.g., *believe, suggest, confirm*)
- Connectives: words that signal relationships between ideas such as:
 - Additive connectives: *and, also, in addition*
 - Contrastive connectives: *but, however, despite*
 - Causal connectives: *because, consequently, as a result*
 - Temporal connectives: *then, next, first, second, finally*
- Analogies
- Numerical details such as dates or statistics
- Typographic cues for vocabulary such as boldface or italic type

Appendix B

Codebook

TAT -> TEXT-BASED DISCUSSION

Code	Use of Code in TAT	Use of Code in text-based discussion
Main idea	Participant-identified main idea, listed in participant's words. No judgment of accuracy made here	Main idea identified in text-based discussion, can be identified by either students or participant
Supporting ideas	Participant-identified supporting ideas, listed in participant's words. No judgment of accuracy made here	Supporting ideas noted in text-based discussion by students
Supporting ideas connected to main idea	Determination of whether participant connected supporting ideas to main idea or if ideas are disparate	Did the participant link supporting ideas to determine the main idea in the text-based discussion? Did students do this work?
Text structure	Participant-identified text structure; includes whether text is a hybrid	Did the participant identify text structure to students or help students make this identification? Was this identification used to help students organize information in the text-based discussion?
Features of text structure	Participant-identified features of text structure	Did the participant identify features of text structure to students or help students make this identification? Was this identification used to help students organize information in the text-based discussion?
Micro features	Participant identified micro features including connectives; co-referents; existence and placement of main idea sentences; transition words; repetition of key words, phrases, or ideas; precise word choice such as believe, suggest, confirm; analogies; dates and numerical statistics; typographic cues including bold or italicized words	Did the participant identify features of text structure to students or help students make this identification? Was this identification used to help students understand information in the text-based discussion?
Notices <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distracting information 	Participant identified distracting, confusing, or misleading information	Information students found distracting, confusing, or misleading in the text-based discussion

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Missing background information 	Participant noticed background knowledge needed to understand the text but not supplied by it	Background knowledge participant supplied or activated in text-based discussion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Confusing vocabulary 	Participant identified confusing vocabulary	Vocabulary students found confusing in the text-based discussion
Missing/misunderstood		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> main idea 	Expert panel lists main idea and determines that participant misidentified or missed main idea(s)	Did the main idea identified in the text-based discussion match what was identified in TAT? Was it accurate?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> supporting idea 	Expert panel lists supporting ideas and determines that misidentified or missed them	Were the supporting ideas identified in text-based discussion match what was identified in TAT? Were there supporting ideas unidentified in text-based discussion?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> connection between main and supporting ideas 	Expert panel generates text summary that connects main and supporting ideas and determines that participant did not accurately connect main and supporting ideas	This idea was captured by the “supporting ideas connected to main idea” code above
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> student issue 	Determination that participant did not identify potential student issues on the TAT. Issue could be identified by researcher after reading text-based discussion transcript or could be noticed by the participant in reflection	Confusions (e.g. confusing ideas or vocabulary) students had in text-based discussion but were not identified by the participant in the TAT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> micro feature(s) 	Expert panel lists micro features and determines participant misidentified or missed at least one	Were micro features noticed by either participant or student(s) in the text-based discussion? Were micro features used to help students understand information in the text-based discussion?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> text structure 	Expert panel names text structure and determines participant did not accurately name it. Error could be in text structure (i.e. F/NF) or genre (i.e. cause & effect)	This idea was captured by the “text structure” code above

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • features of text structures 	Expert panel lists features of identified text structure and makes determination whether participant accurately identified them	This idea was captured by the “features of text structure” code above
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • student issue 		What issue(s) did the students have in the text-based discussion that the participant had not anticipated?

Text-Based Discussion: Participant Function Codes

Code	Definition
Asks IRE question	Participant asks a question that has a pre-determined answer, similar to one found on tests (e.g., Cazden, 2001)
Asks authentic question	Participant asks a question with no pre-determined answer that thus invites multiple interpretations and responses (Applebee, et al., 2003; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Soter et al., 2008)
Uptakes student idea	Participant references student idea and incorporates it into the next question or comment. Can include request for more information from the same student or others (i.e. <i>do you agree with</i> ?). Idea of weaving (Wilkinson et al., 2003) is included here
Follows student-directed change of topic	Participant grants students interpretive authority by following their change in topic
Third turn move	Description of what happens in the third turn move (Move after initial participant question and student response). Does participant ask new question? Is this question related or unrelated? Uptake student response? Step back to allow another student to respond? Activate student background knowledge? Evaluate?
Requests more information	A form of third turn move where participant requests more information on student-generated idea. Request can either be to same student or to another or more generally to the group
Directs attention to text	Participant draws student attention back to text
Provides information	Participant supplies background information or other information directly to students
General evaluation	Participant evaluates student response, meaning making as correct or incorrect
Synthesis	Participant synthesizes information from multiple sources. Main idea is often captured here

Uses participation structure	Participant structures student participation. Examples can include mapping student conversation, referring student attention to conversational norms, writing questions students can answer during text-based discussions, repeatable rounds where all students supply an answer to a question
Activates background knowledge	Participant activates student background knowledge
Holds discussion of group norms	Participant explicitly discusses expectations for student behavior during discussion. Can include written or stated expectations for active listening, turn taking, involving peers etc. Code includes both a notation of whether teacher includes group norms in their text-based discussion as well as a description of what they look like
Thinks aloud	Participant models a strategy for figuring out vocabulary word, answering question, interpreting text information etc.

Text-Based Discussion: Student Function Codes

Code	Definition
Asks question	Student asks question either to participant or peers
Responds to participant	Student responds to participant's question
Responds to peer	Student directly responds to peer(s)
Shares opinion	Student shares opinion or hypothesis about text; can include evidence to support opinion or not
Requests evidence/ information	Student requests further evidence or information either from text, another student, or participant
Activates background knowledge	Student demonstrates activation of background knowledge. Can include experiential knowledge, text-to-text connection
References text	Student references text
Agrees with peer	Student verbally marks peer's comment and agrees
Disagrees with peer	Student verbally marks peer's comment and disagrees with peer

Demonstrates confusion/misunderstanding	Student demonstrates confusion or misunderstanding including misinterpreting text, not understanding a vocabulary word
Elaborated explanation (Soter et al., 2008)	“Thinking is explained in some detail through extension, building of an idea step-by-step, giving reasons for a statement or expanding on a statement” (Soter et al., 2008, p. 381). Completed by single student
Exploratory talk (Soter et al., 2008)	“Co-reasoning where students build and share knowledge over several turns, evaluate evidence, and consider options. Using language to ‘chew’ on ideas, think collectively. Typically contains concentration of reasoning words” (Soter et al., 2008, p. 381). Reasoning words include because, if so, I think, I agree, I disagree, maybe

Temporal Codes (changes across study duration noted in any data source)

Code	Definition
Change in amount of participant talk	Increase or decrease in participant talk across text-based discussion transcripts
Change in amount of student talk	Increase or decrease in student talk across text-based discussion transcripts
Change in number of student-student exchanges	Increase or decrease in number of student to student exchanges across text-based discussion transcripts
Student use of comprehension strategy	Do students pick up and use comprehension strategies demonstrated by their peers across text-based discussion instances?
Change in types of questions asked	Do participants change the types of questions they ask across text-based discussion transcripts?
Change in information provided on TAT	Do participants change the amount or substance of specialized knowledge displayed on the TAT?
Change in reflection	Do participants change the ways they reflect across reflect sessions? Special attention paid to whether they focus on their actions or their students’ responses
Changes in number of student questions asked	Increase or decrease in number and type of student questions asked across text-based discussion transcripts
Participant gradually releases conversational norms to students	Evidence of participant gradually releasing interpretive authority to students

Appendix C

Reflection Protocol

1. What were your goals for the discussion?
2. How did you help students move toward those goals?
3. Did the students reach these goals? Why or why not?
4. Did the students learn the content?
5. What did your students have difficulty understanding?
 - 5a. Had you anticipated that difficulty?
 - 5b. Is that difficulty surprising?
6. When stopping at points of student difficulties or confusions in the text-based discussion transcript: Talk to me about what you are noticing here. How are you feeling? What are your students doing? How are you responding?
7. Did the TAT help you prepare for the discussion?
 - 6a. If so, how?
 - 6b. If not, why not?
8. How can you use what you learned through this reflection in your next discussion plan?

Appendix D

End of Study One Interview Protocol

When scheduling the interviews, I asked participants to think about their answers to questions one and seven. Several of them had already written their teaching philosophies and sent them to me via email.

1. How do students comprehend texts?
2. Do text-based discussions help students understand text? How if so?
3. How did you learn about the process of facilitating text-based discussions?
 - conversational norms/structure
 - setting goals
 - how to support students as they collaboratively build understandings
 - in university classes?
 - watching mentor teacher?
4. What was helpful in your leading discussions?
 - in person classes/lectures?
 - practicing with students?
 - coaching?
 - planning for discussions?
 - face-to-face sessions?
 - watching mentor teacher model?
 - reflecting after leading discussions (either with me or on log)?
5. Did your mentor teacher lead text-based discussions? Did the students talk to each other or work together? What did behavior management look like?
6. Do you think you will have students complete text-based discussions in your future classrooms? Why or why not?
 - 5a. If you will use discussions in your future class, do you think you will use them with all groups of students, regardless of language status, reading level, or grade level?
7. Is this type of instruction different from what you experienced as a student?
8. Briefly describe your overall approach to teaching, your teaching philosophy.

Appendix E


Metalanguage

Term	Definition
IRE question	Teacher asks a question that has a pre-determined answer, similar to one found on tests (e.g., Cazden, 2001)
Authentic question	Teacher asks a question with no pre-determined answer that thus invites multiple interpretations and responses (Applebee, et al., 2003; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Soter et al., 2008)
Discussion goal	Goal, often framed as questions, teacher uses to open the discussion
Third turn moves:	
• Uptake	Teacher references student idea and incorporates it into the next question or comment. Can include request for more information from the same student or others (i.e. <i>do you agree with ?</i>)
• Activate background knowledge	Teacher activates student background knowledge
• Draw attention to text	Teacher draws student attention to text
• Request more information	A form of third turn move where participant requests more information on student-generated idea. Request can either be to same student or to another or more generally to the group
• Synthesize across sources of information	Teacher synthesizes across sources of information, main idea is often captured here
• General evaluation	Teacher evaluates student response as correct or incorrect
• Supply additional information	Teacher supplies additional information to students in the form of statements
Student responds to peer:	
• With agreement	Student verbally marks peer's comment and agrees
• With disagreement	Student verbally marks peer's comment and disagrees

• Asks question	Student asks a question in response to student comment
• Exploratory talk	Co-reasoning where students build and share knowledge over several turns, evaluate evidence, and consider options. Using language to ‘chew’ on ideas, think collectively. Typically contains concentration of reasoning words” (Soter et al., 2008, p. 381). Reasoning words include because, if so, I think, I agree, I disagree, maybe
Student elaborated explanation	“Thinking is explained in some detail through extension, building of an idea step-by-step, giving reasons for a statement or expanding on a statement” (Soter et al., 2008, p. 381). Completed by single student
Teacher holds discussion of group norms	Teacher explicitly discusses expectations for student behavior during discussion. Can include written or stated expectations for active listening, turn taking, involving peers etc.
Teacher uses participation structure	Teacher structures student participation. Examples can include mapping student conversation, referring student attention to conversational norms, writing questions students can answer during text-based discussions, repeatable rounds where all students supply an answer to a question
Discussion close	How does the teacher close the discussion?

Appendix F

Literacy Methods Sequence Course 1 Syllabus

	TLPL 341	Assessing Language and Literacy Development in Elementary Classrooms^{††}
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Semester/Year

PROGRAM

SYLLABUS

Instructor: [Name + contact information]

Teaching Assistant: [Name + contact information]

Office hours: [Days, times, location]

This course is available on *CANVAS*. Go to <https://elms.umd.edu> and log in with your university directory ID and password.

Course Catalog Description

An exploration of the social and cognitive processes involved in reading and writing, the developmental nature of those processes, the foundational concepts associated with effective literacy assessment, a variety of formative and summative literacy assessments, and the nature of individual differences in reading and writing. Restriction: Elementary Education majors. Co-requisite: TLPL 479, EDHD 411, EDSP 401.

Introduction

Assessing student learning is at the heart of effective teaching. This course is designed to prepare you to be a proficient, classroom-based assessor of student literacy learning and development. The course is organized along four major themes: *the nature of literate behavior and its development*; *the foundations of effective literacy assessment*; *assessing student literacy behavior in diverse classroom contexts*; and *communicating assessment information to students, parents and colleagues*. Instruction will focus on *the what, why, how, where and when* of literacy assessment, including the purposes of assessment and the types and features of assessment tools. Participants will also learn how to use valid and reliable, formal and informal assessments of literacy and related skills, how to effectively interpret the results of assessments, and how to communicate assessment results in a variety of contexts.

Readings/Media

Complete the readings by the date specified by your instructor.

Required: Afflerbach, P. (2018). *Understanding and using reading assessment, K-12* (3e). Alexandria, VA: ASCD. ISBN: 978-1-4166-2501-8.

Additional required course materials are available in *CANVAS* (see the section on Folios later in this syllabus).

Course Objectives

Alignment

^{††} Faculty team involved in the development of this syllabus: John O’Flahavan (johno@umd.edu), Peter Afflerbach, Ayanna Baccus, Jennifer Turner, Maggie Peterson)

Objective	MSDE ^{††}	ACEI ^{§§}
Identify the component processes involved in reading and writing	1.0	1.0
<i>Components of reading performance</i>	<i>1.1</i>	
<i>Research-based models of literacy processes</i>	<i>1.2</i>	
Apply knowledge of the component processes in reading and writing to understand the reading and writing processes of native English speakers and English learners	2.0	1.0
<i>The evolution of language</i>	<i>2.1</i>	
<i>Structure of English</i>	<i>2.2</i>	
Describe how key components of reading and writing processes develop and what biological, cognitive, linguistic and sociocultural factors may influence literacy development	3.0	1.0
<i>Models of reading development</i>	<i>3.1</i>	
<i>Models of writing development</i>	<i>3.3</i>	
<i>Other factors that may influence literacy acquisition</i>	<i>3.6</i>	
Identify the foci, purposes and features of literacy assessments and application of literacy assessments	12.0	2.1 4.0
<i>The foci of literacy assessment</i>	<i>12.1</i>	
<i>Purposes of literacy assessment</i>	<i>12.2</i>	
<i>Assessment features</i>	<i>12.3</i>	
<i>Assessment tools</i>	<i>12.4</i>	
<i>Legal and ethical issues in the fair and meaningful evaluation of students</i>	<i>12.5</i>	
Select or design appropriate literacy assessments and use data from those assessments to make valid educational decisions, differentiate instruction, collaborate with instructional specialists, and evaluate the effectiveness of literacy instruction	13.0	2.1 4.0
<i>Use of commercially available assessments</i>	<i>13.1</i>	
<i>Use of informal assessments</i>	<i>13.2</i>	
<i>Analysis of assessment data</i>	<i>13.2</i>	
Understand the purposes associated with communicating assessment information	14.0	4.0
<i>Purposes associated with communicating assessment information</i>	<i>14.1</i>	

Calendar

Week	Topics	Readings (See Folio contents, pp.6-7)
1	Course overview: <i>The what, why, how, where and when</i> of literacy assessment The <i>what</i> : Motivated and proficient reading and writing in English	Afflerbach (2018), Introduction & Chapter 1
2	The <i>why and how</i> : Assessment basics (purposes, features, tools, legal and ethical issues) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Case 1: Will this translate to the real world? • Case 2: Wait...is this fair? 	Assessment Terms Folio Afflerbach (2018), Chapters 5 & 8
3	The <i>where and when</i> : Developmental models of skilled reading	Models of Reading Folio

^{††} 2020 Maryland State Department of Education Elementary Literacy Competencies (used for program accreditation)

^{§§} 2007 Association for Childhood Education International Standards (used for program accreditation)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 3: Developmental or normative? 	
4	<p>The <i>where and when</i>: Developmental models of writing competence</p> <p>Factors that influence literacy acquisition</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 4: Two children, two paths to literacy 	Models of Writing Folio
5	Exploring the suitability of assessments: The CURVV Framework	Leipzig & Afflerbach (2000)
6	<p>Assessing early literacy performance (emergent literacy skills, phonological skills)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 5: Primary teachers assessing emergent literacy <p>Quiz: Assessment terms and concepts</p>	Early Literacy Folio
7	<p>Assessing early literacy performance (phonics, fluency)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 6: Primary teachers assessing early reading 	Early Reading Folio
8	Assessing orthographic development	<p>Vocabulary Folio</p> <p><i>Words Their Way</i> assessment materials</p>
9	<p>Assessing reading performance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 7: Teachers tracking reading performance <p>Due: Analysis of Spelling Inventories</p>	<p>Reading Performance Folio</p> <p>Afflerbach (2018), Chapter 2</p>
10	<p>Assessing reading comprehension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 8: Teachers assessing comprehension 	<p>Comprehension Folio</p> <p>Afflerbach (2018), Chapter 3 & 4</p>
11	<p>Assessing writing performance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 9: Teachers assessing writing competence <p>Due: Analysis of Reading Inventory</p>	<p>Writing Folio</p> <p>Analytic writing assessment materials</p>
12	<p>Assessing other aspects of reading and writing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 10: Teachers assessing students' motivation to read and write 	<p>Wigfield, A., Gladstone, J., & Turci, L. (2016). Beyond cognition: Reading motivation and reading comprehension. <i>Child Development Perspectives</i>, 10 (3), 190-195.</p> <p>Afflerbach (2018), Chapter 7</p>
13	<p>Communicating assessment information to students, parents/guardians and colleagues</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case 11: Teachers assessing in the context of a multi-tiered system of supports (MTSS) <p>Due: Analysis of Student Writing</p>	<p>Sharing Assessment Information Folio</p> <p>Afflerbach (2018), Chapter 9</p>

14	Distribution of Capstone Assessment Case, small group discussion	
	Course evaluations	
15	Due: Capstone Assessment Case (by 5 PM)	

Student Responsibilities

Assignments

Your final grade in TLPL 341 is based on the successful completion of the following assignments. The descriptions follow. More detailed descriptions and guidance is available through the CANVAS course site. All assignments will be uploaded through CANVAS.

Assignment	Points (Total = 100)	Due Date
Folios (10)	0	Vary
Cases (11)	0	Vary
Quiz, assessment terms and concepts	10	[Date]
Analysis of spelling inventories	20	[Date]
Analysis of reading inventory	20	[Date]
Analysis of student writing	20	[Date]
Capstone Assessment Case	20	[Date]
Participation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attend all class sessions • Stimulate other people's thinking • Participate fully in team activities • Complete readings and folios on time 	10	Ongoing

FOLIOS. These are collections of materials (e.g., articles, videos, links to sites) related to special topics, accessed through Canvas. You are to read these in advance of the class session listed in the Calendar. For more on the Folios, see the Appendix.

CASES. You will read, interpret, and discuss an assortment of cases that reflect authentic classroom or school-based assessment situations. While these cases are short, they are full of detail and provide you and your peers the opportunity to see into real classroom situations, evaluate the decisions made by those involved and imagine how you would proceed if you were involved. Typically, each case contains contrasting situations which enable you to draw comparative conclusions. These cases will prepare you to analyze the final case in the course—the Capstone Assessment Case—and produce a written response (see below).

QUIZ (Assessment terms and concepts). This is an online quiz that you will take during class on the most important terms and concepts related to assessment (e.g., validity; grade equivalent).

ANALYSES (of spelling inventories, a reading inventory and writing samples). There are three written reports of assessments you will complete. The first is an analysis of student spelling inventories. The second is an analysis of a student's performance in a reading inventory. The last is an analysis of a set of writing samples. In each, you will be given the data from which you will draw assessment conclusions (e.g., videos of a student engaging in each segment of a reading inventory) and a clear set of directions to complete the task successfully.

Appendix G

Literacy Methods Sequence Course 2

	TLPL 342	Promoting Skilled and Motivated Readers in Diverse Elementary Classrooms (Part 1)^{***}
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Semester/Year
SYLLABUS

PROGRAM

Instructor: [Name + contact information]

Teaching Assistant: [Name + contact information]

Office hours: [Days, times, location]

This course is available on *CANVAS*. Go to <https://elms.umd.edu> and log in with your university directory ID and password.

Course Catalog Description

An investigation of the materials, curriculum, teaching and learning practices and assessment methods associated with promoting skilled and motivated readers in diverse elementary classrooms. Teacher candidates will learn to use assessments to design instruction in the core components of reading, in line with students' individual needs and the Maryland College and Career Ready Standards. Restriction: Elementary Education majors and permission of the Department. Co-requisite: TLPL 362, TLPL 361, TLPL 332, TLPL 479.

Introduction

Promoting Skilled and Motivated Readers in Diverse Elementary Classrooms is a course in two parts, spanning two semesters (Semester 6 and 7 in the program). In Part I, you will learn how to use assessments of students' literacy development and performance, to plan, deliver and evaluate evidence-based reading instruction that addresses the core components of reading—*phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency* and *comprehension*. Particular emphasis will be placed on adapting group instruction in the core components of reading, in line with students' individual needs and the Maryland College and Career Ready Standards.

Readings/Media

The required texts below are part of a text set which you will use in several of your literacy methods courses, so plan to keep them!

Complete the readings by the date specified by your instructor.

Additional course materials are available in *CANVAS*.

Required Texts

Richardson, J. (2016). *Next step forward in guided reading*. New York: Scholastic. ISBN: 978-1-338-16111-3

*** Faculty team involved in the development of this syllabus: John O'Flahavan (johno@umd.edu), Ayanna Baccus, Jennifer Turner, Peter Afflerbach, Maggie Peterson)

Course Objectives		
Objectives	Alignments	
	MSDE ^{†††}	ACEI ^{‡‡‡}
Describe how the key components of reading and writing processes develop and what biological, cognitive, linguistic and sociocultural factors may influence development	3.0	2.1
<i>Development of the components of reading (emergent literacy skills; phonics/word identification; orthography; fluency; vocabulary; comprehension)</i>	3.2	
Identify characteristics that define evidence-based practices in literacy programming and instruction	4.0	3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4 3.5
<i>Principles that define effective reading instruction for all students</i>	4.2	
Use evidence-based criteria to select and organize print and multimedia resources for teaching reading and writing	5.0	
<i>Characteristics of an instructional collection designed to promote reading-related outcomes (variety of resources; ways to organize them for instruction)</i>	5.1	
Use a variety of print and multimedia resources to engage students as readers and writers	6.0	
<i>Factors that shape the alignment between instructional materials, reading instructional approach and students' learning needs and interests</i>	6.1	
Provide instruction focused on the core components of reading that leads to proficient and motivated reading behavior for all students	7.0	
<i>Effective methods for promoting students' phonological and phonemic awareness</i>	7.2	
<i>Effective methods for promoting students' orthographic knowledge</i>	7.3	
<i>Effective methods for promoting students' accurate, fluent reading</i>	7.4	
<i>Effective methods for promoting students' vocabulary growth</i>	7.5	
<i>Effective methods for promoting students' self-regulated comprehension of texts from a variety of genres and for a variety of purposes</i>	7.6	
Provide instruction focused on the core components of reading that leads to proficient and motivated writing behavior for all students	8.0	
<i>Approaches to writing instruction that optimize reading-related outcomes (e.g., interactive writing with beginning readers; writing in response to reading with more mature readers)</i>	8.2	
<i>Strategies that foster the connection between home, school and community to promote students' literacy competence</i>	8.4	
Provide literacy instruction that reflects and is responsive to the diversity of the classroom community and promotes all students' cultural competence through inclusive and equitable learning opportunities	11.0	
<i>Literacy-related practices that promote students' cultural competence (feature students' cultures, countries or origin and home language; expose students to a variety of identity groups; promote students' cultural knowledge and empathy for others)</i>	11.2	
Select or design appropriate literacy assessments and use data from those assessments to make valid educational decisions, differentiate instruction, collaborate with instructional specialists, and evaluate the effectiveness of literacy instruction.	13.0	4.0
<i>Analysis of assessment data</i>	13.3	
<i>Use of assessment data to plan and deliver instruction</i>	13.4	
Use effective techniques for communicating assessment information to a variety of stakeholders	14.0	5.2
<i>Practices to share assessment information (with families)</i>	14.2	

^{†††} 2020 Maryland State Department of Education Elementary Literacy Competencies (used for program accreditation)

^{‡‡‡} 2007 Association for Childhood Education International Standards (used for program accreditation)

Calendar

<i>Week</i>	<i>Topics</i>	<i>Readings</i>
1	<p>Principles of Effective Literacy Instruction in Diverse Classrooms</p> <p>(Evidence-Based Reading Instruction, Literacy Standards, Gradual Release of Responsibility)</p>	<p>Chapter 1 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p>International Reading Association, N. D. (2002). <i>What Is evidence-based reading instruction? A position statement of the international reading association</i>. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.</p>
2	<p>Principles of Effective Literacy Instruction in Diverse Classrooms</p> <p>(Stages of Literacy Development, Text Levels and Characteristics, Selecting and Evaluating Texts)</p>	<p>Chapter 2 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p>McNair, J.C. (2016). #WeNeedMirrorsAndWindows: Diverse classroom libraries for K-6 students. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 70(3), 375-381.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Lexiles ● Text-level gradients ● Factors related to text difficulty ● Instructional grade-level equivalence chart
3	<p>Principles of Effective Literacy Instruction in Diverse Classrooms</p> <p>(Classroom Libraries, Comprehensive Literacy Instruction, Culturally Responsive Pedagogies, Interactive Read Alouds)</p>	<p>Chapter 3 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p>Blog Post - What is an Interactive Read Aloud?</p> <p>Sharma, S.A., & Christ, T. (2017). Five steps toward successful culturally relevant text selection and integration. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 71(3), 295–307.</p> <p>Giroir, S., Grimaldo, L.R., Vaughn, S., & Roberts, G. (2015). Interactive read-alouds for English learners in the elementary grades. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 68(8), 639-648.</p> <p>McLure, E.L. (2017). Instructional interactions: Supporting students’ reading development through interactive read alouds of informational texts. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 71(1), 51-59.</p> <p><u>Due:</u> Report from the Field (Group 1)</p>
4	<p>Assessment & Observation</p> <p>(Formative & Summative Assessments)</p>	<p>Chapter 4 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p>Afflerbach, P. (2016). Reading assessment: Looking ahead. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 69(4), 413–419.</p> <p>Davis, D.S., Vehabovic, N. (2017). The dangers of test preparation: What students learn (and don't learn) about reading comprehension</p>

		<p>from test-centric literacy instruction. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 71(5), 579-588.</p> <p>Involving parents in assessment</p> <p><u>Due:</u> Report from the Field (Group 2)</p>
5	<p>Planning Literacy Instruction for Emergent and Early Readers</p> <p>(Oral Language, Phonological Awareness, Alphabet Knowledge, Writing)</p>	<p>Chapters 1-2 in <i>The Next Step Forward in Guided Reading</i></p> <p>Chapter 6 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p>Word-level reading problems (Dr. Kilpatrick; webinar)</p> <p>Kaye, E.L., & Lose, M.K. (2018). As easy as ABC? Teaching and learning about letters in early literacy. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>. doi:10.1002/trtr.1768</p> <p><u>Due:</u> Report from the Field (Group 3)</p>
6	<p>Planning Instruction for Beginning, Intermediate, & Fluent Readers (Word Recognition, Phonics, Fluency)</p>	<p>Chapters 3-4 in <i>The Next Step Forward in Guided Reading</i></p> <p>Chapters 6-7 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p>Rawlins, A., & Invernizzi, M. (2018). Reconceptualizing sight words: Building an early reading vocabulary. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>. doi:10.1002/trtr.1789</p> <p><u>Due:</u> Report from the Field (Group 4)</p> <p><u>Due:</u> <i>Response to Formative Assessment and Families Case</i></p>
7	<p>Planning Instruction for Beginning, Intermediate, & Fluent Readers</p> <p>(Vocabulary, Comprehension, Metacognition)</p>	<p>Chapters 5-7 in <i>The Next Step Forward in Guided Reading</i></p> <p>Chapters 7-8 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p>Boulware-Gooden, R., Carreker, S., Thornhill, A., & Joshi, R. M. (2007). Instruction of metacognitive strategies enhances reading comprehension and vocabulary achievement of third-grade students. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 61(1), 70-77.</p> <p><u>Due:</u> Report from the Field (Group 5)</p> <p><u>Peer share:</u> Plans for Interactive Read Aloud Experience</p>
8	SPRING BREAK	
9	FIELD IMMERSION WEEK (1)	Complete:

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interactive Read Aloud Experience • Report due ([DATE])
10	FIELD IMMERSION WEEK (2)	Complete: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guided Reading Exploration • Report due [DATE]
11	Planning Literacy Instruction in Diverse Classrooms (English Language Learners, Culturally Responsive Instruction)	Chapter 5 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> Giroir, S., Grimaldo, L.R., Vaughn, S., & Roberts, G. (2015). Interactive read-alouds for English learners in the elementary grades. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 68(8), 639-648. Sharma, S.A., & Christ, T. (2017). Five steps toward successful culturally relevant text selection and integration. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 71(3), 295–307.
12	Planning Instruction for Independent Readers (Critical Literacy, New Literacies)	Chapter 10 in <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> Karchmer-Klein, R., & Shinas, V. H. (2012). Guiding principles for supporting new literacies in your classroom. <i>Reading Teacher</i> , 65(5), 288-293.
13	Planning Instruction for Independent Readers (Critical Literacy, New Literacies)	Callow, J. (2017). “Nobody spoke like I did”: Picture books, critical literacy, and global contexts. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 71(2), 231–237. McLaughlin, M., & DeVoogd, G. (2019). Critical expressionism: Expanding reader response in critical literacy. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 00(0), 1–9. <u>Due:</u> Report from the Field (Group 6)
14	Critical Literacy Presentations	<u>Due:</u> Critical Literacy Project
15	Revisiting the Principles of Effective Literacy Instruction (Professional Learning)	Bates, C.C., & Morgan, D.N. (2017). Moments of Stillness: Creating Time to Solve Problems of Practice. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 71(1), 111–114. Fountas, I.C., & Pinnell, G.S. (2018). Every Child, Every Classroom, Every Day: From Vision to Action in Literacy Learning. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 72(1), 7–19.

Student Responsibilities

ELMS/Canvas is an integral component of this course and is used for all course communication. Readings, information, and course updates are shared weekly on ELMS. Personal laptops should be brought to class

and used to access course materials only. Students may also check out laptops to use during class from the Educational Technology Desk in the basement of the Benjamin Building. Each student should have an active ELMS account with an updated email address and is expected to check ELMS regularly.

Students should refrain from completing work from other classes, sending emails and using social media during class time.

In case of inclement weather and/or the closing of the UMD campus, scheduled classes will be held online on ELMS.

Assignments

Your final grade in TLPL 342 is based on the successful completion of the following assignments. The descriptions follow. More detailed descriptions and guidance is available through the CANVAS course site. Upload all assignments through CANVAS.

Assignment	Points (100)	Due Date
Team Up Reports from the Field	15	
<i>Principles of Effective Reading Instruction (Team 1)</i>		Session 3
<i>Formative Assessment Practices (Team 2)</i>		Session 4
<i>Sounds, Letters and Spelling (Team 3)</i>		Session 5
<i>Word Reading, Phonics and Fluency (Team 4)</i>		Session 6
<i>Vocabulary and Comprehension (Team 5)</i>		Session 7
<i>Traditional and New Literacies (Team 6)</i>		Session 13
On Your Own Response to Formative Assessment and Families Case	5	Session 6
On Your Own Interactive Read Aloud Experience	20	Session 7 (feedback) Report due: [Date]
On Your Own Small-Group Reading Exploration	30	[Date]
Team Up Critical Literacy Project	20	Session 14
Participation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complete all readings on time • Attend all class sessions • Stimulate other people's thinking • Participate fully in team activities • Complete readings and folios on time 	10	Ongoing

PARTICIPATION. You are expected to attend all class sessions, arrive on time, and be prepared to participate in all class activities. Active participation in discussions and activities is expected, including whole-class, partner and small-group work. Possible class activities include quizzes on the readings, blog/journal entries, leading and participating in discussions, completing exit tickets, sharing and reflecting on internship experiences, analyzing student work and data, and brainstorming lesson ideas.

Please remember to sign in on the attendance sheet for every class session. Everyone is allowed one absence, which may include: illness, funerals, or other excused reasons.

REPORTS FROM THE FIELD. During the first session, you will sign up for a team to conduct “reports from the field.” There are six choices: *principles of effective reading instruction; formative assessment practices; sounds, letters and spelling; word reading, phonics and fluency; vocabulary and comprehension; and, traditional and new literacies.* The members of your team will conduct specific observations in their internship settings related to the focus of your group. For example, the *vocabulary and comprehension* group will examine how word meanings are taught, how text structure is emphasized and how comprehension strategies are learned in as wide a grade span as possible. Are students asked to memorize

definitions of words? Are comprehension strategies taught in a general way or as genre-specific strategies? How are anchor charts used? How are texts selected and organized for instruction? How is comprehension assessed?

Together, you will analyze these observations in the context of the assigned readings and generate themes that tell the story of your experience. Then, on the day your team is due to report, you will summarize your findings as part of your instructor's plans for the session. Your instructor will provide more detailed guidance at the appropriate time.

RESPONSE TO FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT AND FAMILIES CASE. Your instructor will provide you with a teaching and learning case that features one teacher's attempt to communicate formative literacy assessment information to families and to enlist their at-home support for literacy outcomes. You will critique the teacher's attempts in a variety of situations: a) back-to-school night, b) parent-teacher conferences, c) a regular newsletter, d) an annual Literacy Celebration event at school and e) the school's learning management system. For those instances where you can see ways to enhance the teacher's attempts, you will outline these. Submit a response that explains your critiques and your recommended enhancements.

INTERACTIVE READ ALOUD EXPERIENCE. Beginning in the early part of the semester, you will make careful observations of your mentor's approach to read aloud. If your mentor does not use read aloud on a regular basis, make arrangements to observe another teacher in your placement school.

As the middle of the semester approaches, you will plan an interactive read aloud lesson to be delivered in your placement classroom during the first immersion week. Working closely with your mentor, you will select and read an informational or fiction text that serves as a mentor or touchstone text for teaching a particular reading or writing skill/strategy. The written lesson plan should include an overview of the text, instructional objectives, rationale for the lesson and text selection, statements for a book introduction, prompts to monitor comprehension, discussion questions, and formative assessment plan. The plans should also include considerations for English learners and struggling readers. An anchor chart that highlights the focus skill should accompany the lesson plan.

You will bring your plan to class (Week 7) to get feedback from your peers. Then you will conduct the read aloud lesson during the first immersion week (Week 8). Afterward, you will submit a report that incorporates a reflection on your mentor teacher's observation of the lesson. Your instructor will provide more detailed guidance at the appropriate time.

SMALL-GROUP READING EXPLORATION. This assignment is a semester-long effort. Beginning in the early weeks of the semester, you will regularly observe your mentor teacher (or another teacher in the building) deliver small group reading lessons. You will pay particular attention to the following: a) the rationale for grouping students, b) text selection, and c) how the lessons unfold, including word-level instruction, fluency support and comprehension-related instruction. During your second immersion week (Week 9), you will work with your mentor teacher to plan and deliver two small group reading lessons for the same group. You will submit a full report of the experience following the guidelines provided by your instructor.

CRITICAL LITERACY PROJECT. You will work in a small team to develop a critical literacy presentation about a social issue or social justice issue that impacts elementary students' daily lives. Projects should include the following: 1) a high-quality children's picture book that introduces the issue, 2) an explanation and overview of the issue, 3) a collection of print and non-print resources (text set) that students may use to learn more about the issue, 4) a description of an assignment or project that allows students to show their understanding of the issue and their response, and 5) a rubric that may be used to score the assignment or project. Each team will create a multimedia presentation (Google Slides) about the project and present it in class.

Appendix H

Literacy Methods Sequence Course 3

	TLPL 343	Promoting Skilled and Motivated Readers in Diverse Elementary Classrooms (Part 2)^{§§§}
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Semester/Year
SYLLABUS

PROGRAM

Instructor: [Name + contact information]

Teaching Assistant: [Name + contact information]

Office hours: [Days, times, location]

Much of this course is available on *CANVAS*. Go to <https://elms.umd.edu> and log in with your university directory ID and password.

Course Catalog Description

Application of the materials, curriculum, teaching and learning practices and assessment methods associated with classroom reading programs designed to promote skilled and motivated readers in diverse elementary classrooms. Teacher candidates will learn to assess and scaffold students' self-regulated literacy learning in line with students' individual needs and Maryland College and Career Ready Standards. Restriction: Elementary Education majors and permission of the Department. Co-requisite: TLPL 312, TLPL 321, TLPL 446, TLPL 489.

Introduction

Promoting Skilled and Motivated Readers in Diverse Elementary Classrooms is a course in two parts, spanning two semesters (Semester 6 and 7 in the program). In Part I, you learned how to use assessments of students' literacy development and performance, to plan, deliver and evaluate evidence-based reading instruction in the core components of reading—*phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency* and *comprehension*, with particular emphasis on adapting group instruction. In this course, Part II, you will continue to develop your skills with instruction in the core components of reading, while also shifting your attention to learning to create a literate classroom environment and managing a classroom program that meets the reading-related needs of all children.

Readings/Media

The required text below is part of a text set that you started to compile in an earlier course. Complete the readings by the date specified by your instructor. Additional course materials are also available in *CANVAS*.

Required Text

Fountas, I.C., & Pinnell, G.S. (2018). *The literacy quick guide: A reference tool for responsive literacy teaching*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. ISBN: 978-0325051284

Texts used in TLPL 342 (also required in TLPL 343)

Richardson, J. (2016). *Next step forward in guided reading*. New York: Scholastic. ISBN: 978-1-338-16111-3

^{§§§} Faculty team involved in the development of this syllabus: John O'Flahavan (johno@umd.edu), Ayanna Baccus, Peter Afflerbach, Jennifer Turner, Maggie Peterson)

Templeton, S., & Gehsmann, K. (2014). *Teaching reading and writing: The developmental approach*. New York: Pearson. ISBN: 978-0-205-45632-1

Course Objectives

Objectives	Alignments	
	MSDE****	ACEI††††
Identify characteristics that define evidence-based practices in literacy programming and instruction	4.0	
<i>Characteristics of effective literacy programs (nurturing, learner-centered, developmental orientation...)</i>	4.1	
Use evidence-based criteria to select and organize print and multimedia resources for teaching reading and writing	5.0	
<i>Characteristics of an instructional collection designed to promote reading-related outcomes (supplemental materials used to support struggling readers)</i>	5.1	
Provide instruction focused on the core components of reading that leads to proficient and motivated reading behavior for all students	7.0	
<i>Long-term planning that aligns the reading program with curriculum requirements, students' needs, instructional histories and school or grade-level priorities</i>	7.1	
<i>Effective methods for promoting students' phonological and phonemic awareness, orthographic knowledge, fluent reading, vocabulary growth, comprehension, critical thinking and inquiry skills</i>	7.2-7.6	
Provide instruction focused on the core components of reading that leads to proficient and motivated writing behavior for all students	8.0	3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4 3.5
<i>Strategies that foster the connection between home, school and community to promote students' literacy competence</i>	8.4	
Design speaking and listening opportunities that lead to more active, equitable and academically oriented conversations for all students	9.0	
<i>Active discussion strategies that enable students to facilitate whole-class and small-group discussions on their own</i>	9.2	
Identify the role of classroom literacy instruction in a multi-tiered system of supports and work with colleagues to provide effective interventions for students who struggle as readers and writers	10.0	
<i>The procedures and practices associated with a multi-tiered system of supports (MTSS) for students who are at risk of falling behind their peers</i>	10.1	
<i>Evidence-based interventions that support students who struggle to read</i>	10.2	
Provide literacy instruction that reflects and is responsive to the diversity of the classroom community and promotes all students' cultural competence through inclusive and equitable learning opportunities	11.0	
<i>Literacy-related strategies that help students analyze stereotypes (e.g., gender, class, SES, race, religious, ability, cultural, linguistic)</i>	11.3	
Select or design appropriate literacy assessments and use data from those assessments to make valid educational decisions, differentiate instruction, collaborate with instructional specialists, and evaluate the effectiveness of literacy instruction.	13.0	4.0
<i>Analysis of assessment data</i>	13.3	

**** 2020 Maryland State Department of Education Elementary Literacy Competencies (used for program accreditation)

†††† 2007 Association for Childhood Education International Standards (used for program accreditation)

<i>Use of assessment data to plan and deliver instruction (and as they relate to intervention decisions)</i>	13.4	
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Calendar

<i>Week</i>	<i>Topics</i>	<i>Readings</i>
1	<p>Foundations of Responsive Classroom Literacy Instruction in Diverse Classrooms</p> <p>(Standards, Evidence-Based Comprehensive Literacy Instruction, Gradual Release of Responsibility)</p>	<p><i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> (Chapters 1-2)</p> <p>MSDE Curriculum Standards (Maryland College & Career Ready Standards)</p> <p>Shanahan, T. (2014). Educational policy and literacy instruction: Worlds apart? <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 68(1), 7–12.</p> <p>Webb, S., Massey, D., Goggans, M., & Flajole, K. (2019). Thirty-five years of the Gradual Release of Responsibility: Scaffolding toward complex and responsive teaching. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 73(1), 75-83.</p>
2	FIELD IMMERSION WEEK #1	Participate in the opening of the new school year in your internship site
3	<p>Literacy Assessment & Instructional Planning</p> <p>(Word Knowledge Inventories; Considerations for English Learners and Students with Literacy Difficulties)</p>	<p>Chapter 4, <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i></p> <p><i>The Literacy Quick Guide</i> (pp.2-24)</p> <p>Fountas, I.C., & Pinnell, G.S. (2018). Every child, every classroom, every day: From vision to action in literacy learning. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 72(1), 7-19.</p> <p>Organizing Your Classroom Collection</p> <p>Perspectives on Leveled Text Systems</p>
4	<p>Literacy Assessment & Instructional Planning</p> <p>(Word Study Instruction & Routines, Multisensory Instructional Approaches)</p>	<p><i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> (pp. 97-110)</p> <p><i>The Literacy Quick Guide</i> (pp. 72-79)</p> <p>Mesmer, H., & Griffith, P. (2005/2006). Everybody's selling it - But just what is explicit, systematic phonics instruction? <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 59(4), 366-376.</p>
5	<p>Emergent Literacy</p> <p>Alphabet Knowledge, Phonemic Awareness, & Phonological Awareness</p> <p>(Materials & Instruction)</p>	<p><i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> (pp. 202-216)</p> <p>Erickson, J.D., & Wharton-McDonald, R. (2019). Fostering autonomous motivation and early literacy skills. <i>The Reading Teacher</i>, 72(4), 475-483.</p>
6	Beginning Conventional Reading and Writing	<i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> (pp. 220-241)

	Phonics, Spelling, & Vocabulary (Materials & Instruction)	
7	Transitional Reading and Writing Phonics, Spelling, & Vocabulary (Materials & Instruction)	<i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> (pp. 271-286)
8	Intermediate Reading and Writing Phonics, Spelling, & Vocabulary (Materials & Instruction)	<i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> (pp. 330-349)
9	Skillful Literacy Phonics, Spelling, & Vocabulary (Materials & Instruction)	<i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> (pp. 385-405)
10	Reading Difficulties, MTSS^{****} and Intervention	Chapter 11, <i>Teaching Reading & Writing</i> Gambrell L.B. (2015). Getting students hooked on the reading habit. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 69(3), 259–263. Lewis, K. (2017). Lessons learned: Applying principles of reading recovery in the classroom. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 71(6), 727-734. Wixson, K. K. and Valencia, S. W. (2011). Assessment in RTI: What teachers and specialists need to know. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 64, 466–469.
11	Fluency & Comprehension (Materials and Instruction)	McKee, L., & Carr, G. (2016). Supporting beginning readers in reading to learn: A comprehension strategy. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 70(3), 359-363. Richek, M. A. (2005), Words Are wonderful: Interactive, time-efficient strategies to teach meaning vocabulary. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 58: 414-423. doi: 10.1598/RT.58.5.1 Son, E.H., & Chase, M. (2018). Books for two voices: Fluency practice with beginning readers. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 72(2), 233– 240.

**** Multi-tiered systems of support ([MTSS](#))

		Young, C., Stokes, F., & Rasinski, T. (2017). Readers theatre plus comprehension and word study. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 71(3), 351-355.
13	FIELD IMMERSION WEEK #2 Fluency & Comprehension	Review instructional components in <i>The Literacy Quick Guide</i> . Complete Literacy Project
14	FIELD IMMERSION WEEK #3 Fluency & Comprehension	Review instructional components in <i>The Literacy Quick Guide</i> . Complete Literacy Project
15	Working Together as One: Family, School & Community	Simone, J., Hauptman, A., & Hasty, M. (2019). Better together on behalf of our children. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 73(3), 281– 289. Merga, M.K., & Mat Roni, S. (2018). Empowering Parents to Encourage Children to Read Beyond the Early Years. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 72(2), 213–221. Jensen, D. A. (2006), Using newsletters to create home–school connections. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 60, 186–190.
16		Due: Literacy Project [Date]

Student Responsibilities

ELMS/Canvas is an integral component of this course and is used for all course communication. Readings, information, and course updates are shared weekly on ELMS. Personal laptops should be brought to class and used to access course materials only. Students may also check out laptops to use during class from the Educational Technology Desk in the basement of the Benjamin Building. Each student should have an active ELMS account with an updated email address and is expected to check ELMS regularly.

Students should refrain from completing work from other classes, sending emails and using social media during class time.

In case of inclement weather and/or the closing of the UMD campus, scheduled classes will be held online on ELMS.

Assignments

Your final grade in TLPL 342 is based on the successful completion of the following assignments. The descriptions follow. More detailed descriptions and guidance is available through the CANVAS course site. All assignments will be uploaded through CANVAS.

Assignment	Points (Total = 100)	Due Date
Team Up Co-Teaching Activity and Literacy Demonstration	20	Varies
On Your Own Word Work Lesson Plan	20	Varies
On Your Own Literacy Project	50	Week 16

Participation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complete all readings on time • Attend all class sessions and arrive on time • Stimulate other people’s thinking in class • Participate fully in class activities 	10	Ongoing
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PARTICIPATION. You are expected to attend all class sessions, arrive on time, and be prepared to participate in all class activities. Active participation in discussions and activities is expected, including whole-class, partner and small-group work. Possible class activities include quizzes on the readings, blog/journal entries, leading and participating in discussions, completing exit tickets, sharing and reflecting on internship experiences, analyzing student work and data, and brainstorming lesson ideas.

Please remember to sign in on the attendance sheet for every class session. Everyone is allowed one absence, which may include: illness, funerals, or other excused reasons.

CO-TEACHING ACTIVITY AND LITERACY DEMONSTRATION. You will collaborate with others in a small group to plan and teach peers (teacher interns in the university classroom setting) about one component of comprehensive literacy instruction (guided reading, book clubs, shared writing, writing mini lessons, etc.) described in *The Literacy Quick Guide*.


Presentations (15-20 minutes) should include declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge and information as well as a demonstration of the component. An anchor chart for the component should be posted during the presentation. After the presentation and demonstration, the professor will assist your group in answering questions about the component. Specific directions will be provided in class.

WORD WORK LESSON PLAN. You will plan and teach (in the university classroom setting) one small group word work lesson plan. The plan should demonstrate a high level of competence in teaching reading and literacy and include evidence-based instructional practices. Instruction should address diverse learners’ needs, and target one of the following components: *phonological awareness* (including phonemic awareness), *phonics*, *spelling*, or *vocabulary*. The lesson should also include an appropriate formative assessment. A written explanation and visual literacy tool (anchor chart, slide presentation, etc.) should accompany the lesson plan. Specific directions and lesson plan formats will be provided in class.

LITERACY PROJECT. You will assume responsibility for teaching reading and language arts to a small group of diverse learners. You may teach a reading group or other research-based small group format (reciprocal teaching, etc.) that is used in the classroom. You will observe learners and review assessment data, select appropriate texts for instruction, plan and implement small group literacy lessons, use formative assessments to monitor student progress and to plan subsequent lessons, and reflect on instruction and student learning. Specific components of the project will be explained in class. In this assignment, you should demonstrate a high level of competence in teaching reading and language arts, and in guiding learners to apply what they learn to different texts and contexts.

Appendix I

Literacy Methods Sequence Course 4

	TLPL 344	Culturally Responsive Language and Literacy Instruction in Diverse Elementary Classrooms^{§§§§}
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Semester/Year

PROGRAM SYLLABUS

Instructor: [Name + contact information]

Teaching Assistant: [Name + contact information]

Office hours: [Days, times, location]

Much of this course is available on *CANVAS*. Go to <https://elms.umd.edu> and log in with your university directory ID and password.

Course Catalog Description

Application of the asset-based practices associated with culturally responsive language and literacy programs. Teacher candidates will learn to plan, guide and assess students' integrated language and literacy practices (reading, writing, speaking and listening), with emphasis on writing instruction, in line with students' individual needs and Maryland College and Career Ready Standards. Restriction: Elementary Education majors and permission of the Department. Co-requisite: TLPL 300, TLPL 478, TLPL 489.

Introduction

The goal of the teacher preparation programs at the University of Maryland is to prepare knowledgeable and reflective teachers for a diverse society. TLPL 344 focuses on curriculum, instruction and assessment associated with the English Language Arts (reading, writing, speaking and listening), *with emphasis on writing-related teaching and learning*.

It is the final course in your literacy sequence (TLPL 341, Assessing Language and Literacy Development in Elementary Classrooms; TLPL 342, Promoting Skilled and Motivated Readers in Diverse Elementary Classrooms, Part 1; and TLPL 343, Promoting Skilled and Motivated Readers in Diverse Elementary Classrooms, Part 2). Course content from other courses in your program is relevant, too (e.g., TLPL 340, Introduction to Children's Literature and Critical Literacy; TLPL 446, Language Variation and Multilingualism in Elementary Classrooms; and EDSP 401, Teaching Children with Disabilities in Elementary Classrooms). You will pull all of these content threads together in this final course.

The course is designed to complement your experience as a full-time *teaching resident*. You will learn from a mix of experiences. Some of these will include more traditional modes of learning, such as class sessions, discussions and readings. Mostly, though, you will learn through an emphasis on *practice*, supplemented by online course modules, case studies, teaching and learning demonstrations, observation, coaching (face-to-face and remote), and trials in your own classroom. These activities will look a lot like *job-embedded professional development*, which is the most effective model for professional learning. Learning alongside your peers, as a team, will play a significant role in your development, as well.

Your spring residency is a full-time experience, five days per week, from early January through mid-May. Your schedule follows the school district schedule in which you are a resident. One-half day each week

^{§§§§} Faculty team involved in the development of this syllabus: John O'Flahavan (johno@umd.edu), Maggie Peterson, Jennifer Turner, Peter Afflerbach, Ayanna Baccus)

is set aside for job-embedded learning. This includes any learning activities associated with coursework and your professional seminar. Therefore, your commitment to the classroom portion of your residency is generally 4.5 days/week.

You will have some flexibility to determine how you use your time. For example, in one week, you might use an hour Monday morning to observe and coach a peer in your school, an hour after school Tuesday to meet with others, and two hours on a Wednesday afternoon to participate in a team learning experience with your course instructor. This will depend on your classroom commitments from week to week, how you want to use your time, and whether you need to attend a required event (e.g., a F2F team learning session or a seminar).

Readings/Media

Complete the readings by the date specified by your instructor. Additional course materials are available through the *CANVAS* course site.

Required: Shubitz, S., & Dorfman, L. R. (2019). *Welcome to writing workshop: Engaging today's students with a model that works*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse. ISBN: 978-1-62531-166-5.

Supplemental Resources: See the Appendix

Course Objectives

Course Objective 1: Identify how children from a variety of cultural and linguistic backgrounds develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening competence in English

Objective	Alignment	
	MSDE****	ACEI****
Identify the component processes involved in reading and writing	1.0	2.1
<i>Research-based models of literacy processes</i>	<i>1.2</i>	
Describe how key components of reading and writing processes develop and what biological, cognitive, linguistic and sociocultural factors may influence literacy development	3.0	
<i>Models of writing development</i>	<i>3.3</i>	

Course Objective 2: Create and maintain a culturally responsive language arts program and inclusive classroom environment that promote increasingly sophisticated, self-regulated language and literacy behavior in elementary-aged students.

Objective	Alignment	
	MSDE	ACEI
Identify characteristics that define evidence-based practices in literacy programming and instruction	4.0	2.1 5.1 5.2
<i>Principles that define effective practice in literacy instruction for all students</i>	<i>4.2</i>	
Use evidence-based criteria to select and organize print and multimedia resources for teaching reading and writing	5.0	
<i>Characteristics of an instructional collection designed to promote writing-related outcomes</i>	<i>5.2</i>	
Provide instruction focused on the core components of writing that leads to proficient and motivated writing behavior for all students	8.0	

**** 2020 Maryland State Department of Education Elementary Literacy Competencies (used for program accreditation)

**** 2007 Association for Childhood Education International Standards (used for program accreditation)

<i>Long-term planning that aligns the writing program with curriculum requirements, students' needs, instructional histories or grade-level priorities</i>	8.1	
<i>Effective methods for promoting the reciprocal relationship between writing and reading</i>	8.2	
<i>Strategies that foster the connection between home, school and community to promote students' literacy competence</i>	8.4	

Course Objective 3: Plan, differentiate, deliver and evaluate language and literacy instruction to meet students' individual needs.

Objective	Alignment	
	MSDE	ACEI
Use a variety of print and multimedia resources to engage students as readers and writers	6.0	3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4 3.5 4.0
<i>Strategies for engaging students with print and multimedia resources as writers</i>	6.2	
Provide instruction focused on the core components of writing that leads to proficient and motivated writing behavior for all students	8.0	
<i>Effective methods that help students learn how to write and to effectively communicate their ideas in writing, through multiple means of expression</i>	8.3	
Design speaking and listening opportunities that lead to more active, equitable and academically oriented conversations for all students	9.0	
<i>The balance between teacher-directed talk, teacher-facilitate talk and peer talk in classrooms</i>	9.1	
<i>Active discussion strategies that enable students to facilitate whole-class and small-group discussions on their own</i>	9.2	
Identify the role of classroom literacy instruction in a multi-tiered system of supports and work with colleagues to provide effective interventions for students who struggle as readers and writers	10.0	
<i>Evidence-based interventions that support students who struggle as writers</i>	10.3	
Select or design appropriate literacy assessments and use data from those assessments to make valid educational decisions, differentiate instruction, collaborate with instructional specialists, and evaluate the effectiveness of literacy instruction	12.0	
<i>Use of commercially available assessments</i>	12.1	
Select or design appropriate literacy assessments and use data from those assessments to make valid educational decisions, differentiate instruction, collaborate with instructional specialists, and evaluate the effectiveness of literacy instruction	13.0	
<i>Use of informal assessments</i>	13.2	
<i>Use of assessment data to plan and deliver instruction</i>	13.4	

Course Objective 4: Implement language and literacy practices that promote cultural competence in elementary-aged students.

Objective	Alignment	
	MSDE	ACEI
Provide literacy instruction that reflects and is responsive to the diversity of the classroom community and promotes all students' cultural competence through inclusive and equitable learning opportunities	11.0	NA
<i>Literacy-related practices that promote students' cultural competence</i>	11.2	
<i>Literacy-related strategies that help students analyze stereotypes (e.g., gender, class, SES, race, religious, ability, cultural, linguistic...)</i>	11.3	

Student Responsibilities

Assignments

Your final grade in TLPL 344 is based on the successful completion of the following assignments. The descriptions follow. More detailed descriptions and guidance is available through the Canvas course site.

Assignment	Points (Total = 140)	Due Date
Team Learning: <i>Active discussion</i>	10	[Date]
Team Learning: <i>Writing lessons</i>	10	[Date]
Team Learning: <i>Writing conferences</i>	10	[Date]
Course Modules (7)	70	Vary [Date range]
Writing Mini Lesson	30	[Date]
Participation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attend all class sessions and be prepared • Contribute to team learning • Attend all face-to-face team learning sessions • Maintain your log entries 	10	Ongoing

TEAM LEARNING. Team Learning is one aspect of job-embedded professional learning. You will form a support team with the other teaching residents in your school. You will explore active discussion, writing lessons and writing conferences, by planning together, observing each other teach, coaching each other's teaching attempts and meeting with your instructor. In every case, you will extend your capabilities to ensure that your teaching is responsive to the needs of the students with whom you are working. Each focus will last several weeks. For each focus, you will anoint a team leader who will track the activity of the team, generate a brief report of meetings and take care of the logistics surrounding each F2F session. Each member of the team will log at least three attempts for active discussion, writing lessons and writing conferences.

- **ACTIVE DISCUSSION.** Class discussions tend to be teacher-directed. Over time, this can lead to diminished student engagement and learning. Your commitment to *active discussion* shifts the responsibility of managing discussion to students. Active discussion results in more equitable learning opportunities for students, allows students to lean on their knowledge and language assets in support of their learning, and, in the long run, saves time. During this team learning experience, you will help a group of students in your classroom (a small group or your whole class) in their attempts to become more active in their discussions. This will require multiple trials. You will log at least three attempts.
- **WRITING LESSONS.** Learning to write in many US schools looks more like “practice, practice, practice” (e.g., responding to one writing prompt after another), with little in the way of proactive teaching to help young students improve. In this team learning experience, you will plan, deliver and evaluate “mini” lessons focused on writing improvement. This will require multiple trials. You will log at least three attempts.
- **WRITING CONFERENCES.** One of the best ways to coach young writers is in a “writing conference,” typically a 1-1 meeting between a teacher and writer, with the dual purpose of improving a text and shaping the writer over time. Writing conferences should also occur between students in 1-1 and small group configurations. During this team learning experience, you will conduct many writing conferences, with as many students as possible. You will also work with a small group of students to scaffold their capability to manage their own conferences over time. This will require multiple trials. You will log at least three attempts.

COURSE MODULES. Much of the course material is organized as modules and tied to the major themes of the course (e.g., active discussion; culturally responsive instruction). The module resources may include animated Power Point files, readings, activities to complete on your own or with your team, teaching and learning cases, and the like. You will move through these modules at your own pace, but each has a specific starting point, a due date (after which you may not receive full credit) and an expiration date (after which you will not be able to submit).

Module	Description	Due	Expires
CM1: Professional Knowledge for Teaching Writing and Related Instructional Frameworks	Explores the nature of writing and what it means for teachers of writing, including professional standards for teaching writing, evidence-based instructional frameworks for teaching writing to young writers, asset-based perspectives on individual differences, and culturally responsive writing instruction in inclusive classrooms.	TBD	+1 week
CM2: Scaffolding Talk in Inclusive Classrooms	Explores accountable talk and active discussion approaches and strategies, useful for opening up participation structures in inclusive classrooms.	TBD	+1 week
CM3: Signposts of Writing Development	Designed to help you become more familiar with the normative signposts of writing development, to appreciate individual differences in young writers and to apply what you are learning to student writing samples.	TBD	+1 week
CM4: A Closer Look at Writing Lessons	Examines classroom-level issues related to writing instruction, then dives into the “must-haves” of writing lessons, including a chance to examine a variety of examples of writing lessons that were designed for young writers. The module closes with a closer look at the Writing Mini Lesson Assignment, one of the core assignments in this course.	TBD	+1 week
CM5: Teaching English Written Language Conventions	Reviews written language fundamentals and explores the continuum of approaches to teaching and reinforcing conventional spelling, punctuation and usage.	TBD	+1 week
CM6: A Closer Look at the Consume-Critique-Produce Framework	Takes a close look at the key practices associated with the Consume-Critique-Produce Framework, featuring an examination of the immersing, consuming, critiquing and producing practices that need to be in place for the target discourse (e.g., argumentative, narrative or informational discourse).	TBD	+1 week
CM7: A Closer Look at Writing Conferences	Examines the kinds of writing conferences that are worth employing in your classroom and the elements of productive writing conferences.	TBD	+1 week

WRITING MINI LESSON. Plan and deliver writing lessons as often as possible and invite your mentor teacher and peers to observe your attempts. After sufficient practice and later in the semester, you will design and deliver a small-group lesson that supports the instructional goals of the mentor’s classroom (e.g., curricular requirements), fits the writing needs of your students (based on your assessment), and showcases one or more inclusive teaching practices. *Please note that it is important that you strive to include at least one English Learner (EL) in the lesson.* Begin by collecting and analyzing recent student writing samples (“product”). Evaluate these samples. Make informal observations of your students as they write (“process”). Plan the lesson and deliver it at a time when it makes the most sense. A brief report is due. The report should include (a) the lesson plan, (b) rationale for the instructional focus, (c) any supplemental materials used in the lesson, (d) a self-assessment of your delivery of the mini lesson, and (e) your mentor teacher’s completed evaluation form.

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