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Beyond Sharing the Pen: Dialogue in the Context of Interactive Writing

Jennifer Jeanne Jordan
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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jennifer Jeanne Jordan entitled "Beyond Sharing the Pen: Dialogue in the Context of Interactive Writing." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

Anne McGill-Franzen, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Richard Allington, Trena Paulus, Kimberly Wolbers

Accepted for the Council:

Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

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Beyond Sharing the Pen: Dialogue in the Context of Interactive Writing

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jennifer Jeanne Jordan

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this design study was to examine how two teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. The study was designed to explore the role of teacher and student in socially situated writing environments and reveal how conversation affects student learning and instructional decision-making. Throughout the study I was an active participant observer continually modifying the intervention with the input of the classroom teachers.

This study was based on the theoretical model of reading as a meaning-construction process described by Ruddell and Unrau (2004). According to this model, the reader, or in this case the writer, the text, and the teacher negotiate meaning within the social setting of the classroom. Two first grade classrooms served as the bounded units of analysis for this case study with an emphasis on formative experiment. Data collected included classroom observations and transcripts, transcripts of afterschool planning and reflecting meetings, transcripts of teacher and student interviews, teacher reflection logs, written artifacts, and student assessments. Data analysis was based on Wells' (1999) progressive discourse analysis. Progressive discourse refers to the process of building knowledge through conversation. Dialogue is a tool used to gain new knowledge and modify existing knowledge.

The two participating teachers in this study were able to revise their instructional methods based on the individual needs of their students to varying degrees. The students in the more successful teacher's classroom had more significant academic gains in reading and writing by the end of the intervention. The findings from this study suggest

that it is important to understand the prior beliefs of teachers, their knowledge of the reciprocal relationship between reading and writing, and their preferred avenues of reflection when attempting to implement an interactive writing intervention. For student learning outcomes it may be important to consider the need for explicit literacy instruction, interactive dialogic moves, student engagement, and the opportunity for students to take on the role of teacher to their peers.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Chapter Introduction

Literacy has become an important topic in education since the publication of National Reading Panel (NRP) report (2000) and the enactment of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation (2001). The NRP report, which informed NCLB, focused on reading in particular and not literacy in general. According to NCLB, students must meet certain benchmarks in the areas of phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Writing was not specifically mentioned as one of the critical elements of reading instruction by the NRP, even though research consistently has demonstrated that writing is an integral part of any literacy program intended to prevent reading difficulties (Edwards, 2003; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). An underlying assumption of my dissertation study, and one that I elaborate in the section that follows, is that writing is a necessary component of literacy instruction that can impact the development of other literacy skills.

Studying the writing process provides researchers and teachers a window into young students' emerging understandings of the reciprocal relation between reading and writing. Also, by observing students' use of spelling and composing strategies researchers and teachers can infer what students know about the forms and functions of written language. Students may begin to solidify their understandings of form and purpose through social interactions focused on writing and opportunities to write independently. Through these interactions and opportunities for independent writing they

also may continually test and revise emerging hypotheses about how written language works. New discoveries may be added to their knowledge base while also raising questions that motivate them to learn more about the writing process. By documenting students' writing and conversation, I plan to make tacit knowledge more explicit for teachers to use in further instructional planning. By examining how teachers might use this information to revise their teaching methods, I plan to offer a picture of dynamic writing instruction for beginning readers and writers. Case study methodology is the most appropriate approach to describe how beginning literacy may be mediated through complex social interactions between students and their learning community (Bogdan, & Biklen, 1992; Yin, 1994).

Statement of the Problem

Recent surveys suggest that students are not prepared as writers when they leave high school and enter the workforce or college. The National Commission on Writing in America's Schools and Colleges (2003) was formed because of growing concern from the business and academic world that students' writing skills were inadequate and that these students would not be adequately prepared for the writing assessment portion of the SAT added in 2005. The commission determined factors such as time, measurement of results, and professional development as key reasons why student writing is not satisfactory.

The Commission found that *time* was one reason why writing is not being addressed fully in the classroom. Because writing was omitted by the NRP report that informed the NCLB Act, many teachers have been forced to devote classroom time to

those areas that are being tested. Writing is a time-consuming activity and "these skills cannot be picked up from a few minutes here, and a few minutes there, all stolen from more 'important' subjects" (National Commission, 2003, p. 58). According to this view, writing is an important subject in itself, and should be given the adequate time in the school day for instruction. The commission further recommended that writing be integrated into other subjects besides language arts across the curriculum to increase the amount of time being spent on this subject.

The Commission also suggested the reason that writing was not included in NCLB was because it is difficult, time consuming, and expensive to *assess* accurately. They reported, "writing is one area where using multiple-choice questions as the sole assessment technique compromises the very talent the assessment sets out to gauge" (National Commission, 2003, p. 67). Authentic assessment requires time for students to plan, write, and revise their writing, as well as extensive training of scorers to evaluate the texts in a consistent manner. As the Commission noted, teachers will likely continue to ignore this subject area until an actual writing assessment is added to high-stakes testing (Commission, 2003).

The Commission also examined teachers' *professional development* to determine its impact on student achievement. Teachers' expertise is important because as several research studies recently have suggested, the teacher may be the single most influential factor in student learning (Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004; Rowan, Correnti, & Miller, 2002; Snow et al., 1998). Snow, for example, recognized that "regular opportunities for self-examination and reflection are critical components of the career-long development of excellent teachers" (1998, p. 10). Because teachers are such

influential forces, they must be knowledgeable about pedagogy that develops critical thinkers and writers instead of merely delivering discrete skills and standards. Unfortunately, "existing state standards and assessment systems frequently constrain schools and teachers from best practices in teaching, specifically in writing instruction" (National Commission, 2006, p. 19). Thus, teachers must be knowledgeable about how to integrate the disjointed standards of learning that are tested into authentic writing activities.

The results from the 2007 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) show that students can write, however their writing skills are not refined enough to succeed in higher education and the workforce. Overall average student scores increased in eighth and twelfth grade from 2002, but this was only because the percentage of students writing at or above the basic level increased while the percent of writers at or above the proficient or advanced levels stayed the same (Salahu-Din, Perskey, & Miller, 2008). According to the descriptions of these levels of writing, a basic writer does not produce writing that is organized and sequenced, develop a main idea with supporting details, or show analytic, evaluative, or creative thinking at the eighth grade level (Salahu-Din, Perskey, & Miller, 2008). Subsequently, high school graduates are not prepared to compete in the world marketplace and the National Commission on Writing believes "American education will never realize its potential as an engine of opportunity and economic growth until a writing revolution puts language and communication in their proper place in the classroom" (2003, p. 41).

Clearly, writing has taken a backseat to other skills specifically referred to in NCLB. I agree with the Commission that, "writing should be at the top of the nation's

school reform agenda because writing and communication are essential to the development of students' critical thinking skills and their ability to conceptualize and organize their own knowledge and thinking" (2006, p. 28). Further, writing and reading bear reciprocal relationships to each other and should be taught simultaneously through integrated literacy lessons (Shanahan & Lomax, 1986). The learning of reading and writing are connected to one another and each influences the development of the other (Shanahan & Lomax, 1986; Tierney, 1990).

I believe that teachers and researchers need to work together to find ways to integrate writing into daily classroom instruction at all grade levels and formative experiments may be the best methodology for accomplishing this goal. Curriculum should not be composed of lists of discrete standards that emphasize what will be tested rather than what should be learned. I argue that interactive writing is one context, albeit a context suited to early literacy development, in which teachers can teach discrete literacy skills in an authentic and integrated manner. By conducting a formative experiment with multiple cases, I plan to examine how teachers construct and respond to classroom dialogue within interactive writing routines, given the support of my professional guidance. I also plan to examine how students evidence appropriation of teacher discourse and writing strategies in their own dialogue and writing.

Description of the Context of Interactive Writing

Interactive writing was developed in 1991 by researchers at Ohio State University and teachers from Columbus, Ohio, who were participating in the Literacy Collaborative. This collaborative was interested in designing initial literacy instruction for Title 1,

kindergarten, and first grade classes (Pinnell & McCarrier, 1994). The researchers borrowed heavily from the theoretical foundations of Reading Recovery, a tutoring program designed to give struggling readers the assistance they need to develop cognitive strategies that facilitate independent reading and comprehension (Clay, 1972). In the seminal textbook, *Interactive Writing: How Language and Literacy Come Together* (McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas, 2000), the authors compared interactive writing to the language experience approach, shared writing, and independent writing. Interactive writing combines all of the above approaches, and further extends the shared writing and language experience approach to include the sharing of the pen with students. The last stage of interactive writing is extension into independent writing. Interactive writing is not designed to stand alone, but rather should be an integral part of any writing program.

"Interactive writing is a dynamic, collaborative literacy event in which children actively compose together, considering appropriate words, phrases, organization of the text, and layout" (McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas, 2000, p. xv). Children are viewed as apprentices to an expert writer, the teacher or their peers, as they construct meaningful texts together that are beyond what the students could have composed on their own. "At the core of effective instructional interaction there is a shared exchange of ideas between teacher and student—and a more balanced role for all participants" (Langer & Applebee, 1984, p. 175).

Writing in an interactive format is designed to instruct students from preschool through second or third grade in the emergent, early, transitional, and self-extending stages of reading and writing. It can also be modified to include interactive editing in the intermediate grades (Swartz, Klein, & Shook, 2001; Tompkins & Collom, 2004). The

texts that are created by teachers and students can be considered instructional materials, because students can later revisit these texts to read, copy strategies used, and gather ideas for future writing (Button, Johnson, & Furgerson, 1996). Through revisiting the written texts, students may increasingly take up writing skills and become more independent writers.

Interactive writing can be viewed as a transitional tool that strives to move children toward individual writing. Through modeling of skills and strategies, students may begin to transfer these strategies and skills learned in interactive writing into their independent text construction. "For beginning writers, putting together and talking about ideas, negotiating the text with others, and sharing the pen to write it, propel them toward grasping the power of the written word" (McCarrier, et al., 2000, p. xix). Once students begin to understand that writing is oral language written down and how and why people write, they may begin to write purposeful texts on their own and possess the strategies to do so.

According to McCarrier et al. (2000) there are eight steps to the interactive writing process:

1. Provide a base of active learning experiences.
2. Talk to establish purpose.
3. Compose the text.
4. Construct the text.
5. Reread, revise, and proofread the text.
6. Revisit the text to support word solving.
7. Summarize the learning.

8. Extend the learning. (p.73)

These steps usually occur in a recursive manner, rather than a lockstep format. Depending on the particular needs of the students, interactive writing will appear differently in diverse settings. The steps will be described in the order that they generally appear during interactive writing lessons. An interactive writing lesson usually begins with exploring shared experiences. These experiences can be from home or school, and may include literature previously read aloud (Lancia, 1997). Literature read alouds are opportunities to draw children's attention to concepts of print, literary syntax, style and genre, story structure, and connections between reading and writing. All children are at different stages of writing development along a continuum of learning, so teachers should respect and understand each child's background knowledge and experiences. According to Pinnell and Fountas (1998), students in an interactive writing classroom begin to view themselves as writers and readers because they are able to participate in and take ownership of the construction and reading of new texts. As they internalize this new information, they may transfer this knowledge to the construction of their own individual texts.

Dialogue between teacher and students to establish an authentic purpose is also a key aspect of interactive writing (Gundlach, 1982; Wiley, 1999). Having a purpose to write is highly engaging and meaningful and therefore motivating (Pajares & Valiante, 2006). "The socio-constructivist approach assumes that the processes of classroom discourse are motivating in that they are processes of meaning making" (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006, p. 153). Writing a morning message, extending or summarizing a read aloud, recording new information, writing letters, and writing labels are all purposeful activities.

Through meaningful discussion, students draw on their teacher, peers, and literature as models of how to discuss what to write and how to write.

Once students form a foundation based on experience and purpose, composition occurs. Composition refers to the process of discussing what will be written. Children are engaged in, and take ownership of, the writing process through the dialogue between teacher and student as well as through the actual writing of letters and words. "Throughout the interactive writing event, children are supported in making connections between their own use of oral language, the oral language of the teacher, the language they encounter in books and other texts, and the language they use for the purpose of writing" (McCarrier et al., 2000, p.12). Children must think about, and discuss, the message they want to convey, the audience they are targeting, and what words are most suitable to convey that message. They also draw from their knowledge of previously read or written texts to decide on how to structure the text and which conventions of writing will be required depending on the genre. Through these discussions, students generate different ways of conveying the same message and build upon others' ideas. They also may expand their own speaking and listening vocabularies through these discussions.

After discussion of what to write, the class jointly constructs the text. The construction of the text involves writing down the previously agreed upon message by the teacher and students. Deciding on what topics to focus on and choosing which students to participate in sharing the pen depends on the instructional needs of the students and will shift throughout the year. Focusing on too many concepts is confusing. Therefore, children do not need to write every word; rather the teaching points should be selected

carefully and be focused on the needs of the individual students. While the students provide ideas about what to write, the teacher should guide these ideas to make them clear for the intended audience. Thus, the teacher serves as an active participant intentionally directing the students in learning about particular skills. What words are actually written is negotiated, but not the focus of the lesson. The teacher should have learning outcomes for each student in mind during the interactive writing lesson. Everyone should agree on the intended message and after the text is produced the class should evaluate the message to see if it corresponds to the intended meaning. When constructing texts, standard conventions of written language should not be ignored.

These texts will be reread and when "displayed in the classroom, they provide a permanent demonstration and reminder to the children of how to go about writing" (McCarrier et al., 2000, p.27). Discussion should revolve around making letter to sound connections for emergent writers. Students need to be explicitly taught that letters and sounds correspond, and they require strategies to assist them in figuring out how to spell words on their own. Connections should also be made to enforce the fact that words they use in conversations can be written down and that the spelling of those words is consistent. "They are learning how to learn about print. They are learning how to look, where to look, and what to look at, and they are connecting that knowledge to what they hear and what their fingers do" (McCarrier et al., 2000, p.75). Higher-order writing skills, such as sequencing of events and how to vary word choice, may also be appropriate for some learners.

Composing texts may require students to engage in certain processes during construction, as well as after it, in order to be effective. While composing the text, the

class rereads, revises, and proofreads the text. Rereading the text serves as a means of remembering the text and anticipating what will come next. Revising sometimes occurs when students want to clarify the meaning of the text. Students constantly proofread as they write to ensure intended meaning and conventional grammar. After proofreading the text, it is effective to revisit the text. When revisiting the text, the focus should be on word study to direct children's attention to the patterns and principles of spelling patterns and how words are constructed. This emphasis will facilitate students' awareness that some words share parts or meanings. These strategies may then be carried over into their own reading and writing. After revisiting a text, the specific strategies or concepts being targeted should be explicitly restated and summarized. Having children summarize what they have learned causes them to be more likely to carry this new knowledge into their own independent writing. Students may also begin to understand how they learn by reflecting on how and what they have already learned.

Children should be given an opportunity to explore writing independently after composing text as a group. Students should be encouraged to choose their own topics, purpose, and audience. These student decisions should be informed by the explicit discussions that previously took place during the interactive writing lessons. Therefore, previously composed texts should be available to these students as a support to guide their independent writing.

Interactive writing is designed to be an integral part of any writing curriculum which focuses on explicit instruction of authentic student writing. Dialogue and observation can be used as an assessment tool to track on-going progress and teachers should engage in note taking to inform instruction in subsequent small group teaching.

By following the steps put forth by McCarrier, et al. (2000) students may move from writing co-constructed texts to writing their own independent texts.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this case study was to examine how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. The study was designed to explore the role of teacher and student in socially situated writing environments and reveal how conversation affects student learning and instructional decision-making. In order to achieve this purpose, I used formative experiment with multiple cases. I compared and contrasted the cases for patterns of discourse and strategy transfer. Data collected within each case included student assessments, student and teacher interviews, observations and transcripts of classroom talk, students' writing, class constructed interactive writing texts, and teachers' reflective journals. Throughout the study I was an active participant observer continually modifying the intervention with the input of the classroom teachers and methods for verification were employed to make the study's findings more robust.

Research Questions

The following research questions will be examined in this study:

1. In what ways do teachers reflect on student responses, both oral and written, to revise their instructional methods in the context of interactive writing?

2. In what ways do students evidence appropriation of teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing?

   Subquestion: Do students with different ability levels take up this knowledge in different ways?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are given to clarify the essential terms presented in this study.

Authentic Questions: "Questions for which the asker has not prespecified an answer and include requests for information as well as open-ended questions with indeterminate answers" (Nystrand, 1997, p. 38)

Case Study: "An empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. The case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis" (Yin, 1994, p. 13).

Dialogic Environment: A setting in which authentic conversation occurs between two or more participants exchanging information or ideas.

Dialogic Move: A conversational utterance in which information is exchanged between participants.

Formative Experiment: "A research methodology that addresses specifically how promising instructional interventions might be implemented in classrooms to achieve valued pedagogical goals" (Reinking & Bradley, 2004, p. 151).

Independent Writing: Writing the student does without adult assistance. The student transfers learning strategies from classroom instruction to inner speech to aid in the writing process.

Inner Speech: "A form of discursive action that is realized in utterance; but, whereas in speech and writing the saying is overt and what is said has a material form that is simultaneously accessible to others as well as to the speaker, inner speech is not overt and what is said is accessible to the speaker alone" (Wells, 1999, p. 118).

Internalization: To acquire strategies within one's self as part of one's language competence.

Mutual Knowledge: "Knowledge that two or more individuals possess in common" (Nystrand, 1986, p. 52).

Reciprocity**:** **"**The principle that governs how people share knowledge, specifically their determination of what knowledge they shall exchange when they communicate, plus how they chose to present it in discourse" (Nystrand, 1986, p. 53).

Scaffolding: **"**Provides students with appropriate models and strategies for addressing new problems; these are in turn internalized by the students, providing them with the resources to eventually undertake similar tasks on their own" (Langer & Apple bee, 1984, p. 176).

Shared Knowledge: "Result of people exchanging whatever knowledge they have, mutual or not" (Nystrand, 1986, p. 53).

Sharing the Pen: Activity in which children write selected letters and words while continuing to participate in dialogue during construction of a group text. (McCarrier, et al., 2000).

Strategies: Mental activities used by students to gain control over the writing process.

Sociocultural Writing: Writing "activity that is situated in concrete interactions that are simultaneously improvised locally and mediated by prefabricated, historically provided tools and practices (Prior, 2006, p. 55).

Uptake: Incorporation of a previous answer into a subsequent question. (Nystrand, 1997, p. 37)

Verbal Protocol: A metacognitive dialogue about a student's comprehension of skills and use of strategies.

Zone of Proximal Development: "The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

Assumptions

Throughout the study I assumed the following to be true. First, I assumed that observed behaviors can provide evidence of students' thought processes. These internal processes cannot be observed directly, but rather through observation of student transfer of strategies and verbal protocols these processes can be examined (Afflerbach & Johnston, 1984; Afflerbach, 1990; Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Brown, Pressley, Van Meter, Schuder, 1996).

Another assumption of this study is that interactive writing is an effective method for teaching writing skills, which has been documented previously (Brotherton & Williams, 2002; Button, Johnson, & Furgerson, 1996; Cicalese, 2003; Compton, 1994; Craig, 2006; Henry, 1999; Pinnell and McCarrier, 1994; Runge, 1997). Although this study did not examine the effectiveness of interactive writing directly, it used interactive writing as a context to study dialogue and teacher reflection in the classroom.

This study also assumed that because the participating teachers volunteered for the study, they were willing to revise their instructional methods in relation to writing. This study assumed that the teachers would be able to reflect on their instruction and use this information to make instructional decisions based on this knowledge.

Limitations

The limitations of this study include the ability to generalize the research findings, the researcher's participation, the recording of student conversation and verbal protocols, and the diversity of participants. This qualitative study was limited in the extent that it can be generalized to apply to other classroom settings. The classrooms studied were unique, and therefore, the findings from this study may not apply to other first grade classrooms. My presence as a participant observer may also have influenced the activities occurring in the classroom. Participants' awareness of being studied may have impacted their actions in unintended ways.

Also, not all student conversation was recorded and analyzed. Instead, I focused on a small group of children to study on certain days and conversation between other children, or between the focus students when I was not present, was not examined. Also,

verbal protocols allow the researcher to make inferences based on the comments of the participants; however these inferences might not be completely accurate. In addition, young children may have a difficult time expressing themselves orally (Afflerbach & Johnston, 1984). Therefore, the data might underreport their actual thinking.

A final limitation of this study was that the school in the case study did not have a diverse population of children. 89.6% of the children were Caucasian, with the next largest group being African American, which comprised 6% of the total population. Again, the findings of this particular study cannot be generalized to other more diverse populations.

Delimitations

The following researcher imposed delimitations narrow the scope of this study. Two first grade classrooms at the same elementary school were selected to study how classroom dialogue affects learning. The school was chosen for the study because of its proximity to me and because I had already developed rapport with some of the teachers. Twelve focus students and two teachers were chosen for closer observation. The classroom teachers and students were selected based on the following criteria. The teachers were recommended by the administration and they were willing to participate. The focus students were recommended by their classroom teacher, they were willing to discuss their writing with me, and they were representative of the range of writing development in the classroom as assessed through writing samples and classroom observation. The narrow focus of the study also served as a delimitation. This study did

not examine the effectiveness of interactive writing, but rather how dialogue affects student learning and teacher reflexivity.

Significance of the Study

Although I was able to locate studies that examined the craft of writing, student gains in phonemic awareness and orthography, student's ability to transfer skills to independent writing, how students compose texts, and students' perspectives of writing in the context of interactive writing, I was unable to find any current studies that examined the phenomenon of transfer of dialogue as a measurement of learning in the context of interactive writing or how teachers revise their instruction based on this dialogue. This study will add to the growing base of research on interactive writing, fill in a gap in the research base, and the results will inform teachers as well as other researchers. Suggestions for implementation will be given for teachers and further areas for research will be offered.

Organization of the Study

The purpose of this case study was to examine how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. In chapter two, I will review the literature related to beginning writing, interactive writing, classroom discourse, and teacher learning. In chapter three, I will describe the rationale for the research methodology, the role of the researcher, the population and setting, the data collection procedures, the data analysis procedures, and the methods of verification.

In chapter four, I will present the findings of the study. In chapter five, I will offer implications for teachers and professional developers.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter Introduction

The reciprocal relationship between reading and writing is important to understanding students' literacy development at all stages of learning. Both reading and writing "depend on identical or similar knowledge representations, cognitive processes, and contexts and contextual restraints. Therefore, we should expect reading and writing to be quite similar, their development should parallel each other closely, and some type of pedagogical combination may be useful in making learning more efficient" (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000, p. 40). This view departs from the traditional belief that children should learn to read before they learn to write (Shanahan & Lomax 1986; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). Studies have found that an interactive instructional model of reading and writing in which reading influences writing development and writing influences reading development is most beneficial for student learning (McCarrier, Fountas & Pinnell, 2000; Shanahan and Lomax, 1986; Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, & McGinley, 1989). Through reading and writing, students practice their skills and knowledge. Not only are these skills practiced, but this learning is deepened through examining information from different cognitive perspectives (Shanahan, 2006). Although not all processes of reading and writing are related, research has shown a positive relationship between spelling and reading, writing and reading vocabulary, reading comprehension and complexity of writing, and reading comprehension and writing structure or organization (Shanahan, 1984).

As students develop and move through the stages of reading and writing the nature of the reciprocal relationship changes as well as the skills and strategies being taught (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). In the early literacy stages students are beginning to understand that written language is oral language written down and they are mastering phonetic and orthographic patterns. By high school, readers and writers are focused on text structure, the ability to see others' viewpoints, and the ability to analyze and critique texts. If the goal, as stated by the National Reading Panel, is to increase reading comprehension, phonics skills, phonological awareness, vocabulary, and fluency; writing must be integrated into literacy instruction across all grade levels.

Unfortunately, the 2007 National Assessment of Educational Progress results show that students are not learning the writing skills they need to succeed as adults. The NAEP was only administered to students in eighth and twelfth grade in 2007, but educators cannot wait until middle and high school to teach these necessary skills. Instruction on writing skills and strategies must start with beginning writers. Interactive writing is a context in which beginning writers can develop the skills they will need to succeed in strategic reading as well as in fluent and proficient writing. This review of the literature will examine how writing has been considered through cognitive and socio-cultural perspectives. The research on beginning writing, interactive writing, classroom dialogue, and teacher learning will also be explored. Finally, suggestions for further research based on gaps in the literature will be addressed.

Theoretical Perspectives

While many researchers and teachers in the past viewed writing as a solitary effort, recent thought considers it a collaborative and constructive process. This division became apparent in the late 1980's and early 1990's when there was a shift in the research focus of how children learn to write. Researchers in the early 1980's emphasized a cognitive view that focused on writing as a set of developmental stages and strategies (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Hayes, 1996). These recursive strategies included planning, drafting, and revising in a nonlinear fashion in which writers needed to handle multiple strategies simultaneously through self-regulation and coordination. Through inner speech students "talk themselves through difficult tasks, planning and evaluating their options, and they talk to themselves as they appropriate various strategies to assist their performance. Language then, in this view, becomes a central tool not only for communication with others but also for communication with one's self, and cognition is inextricably intertwined with language" (Singer & Bashir, 2004, p. 568).

Studies of writing from the cognitive perspective tended to examine why expert writers are more successful than novice writers. Findings identified the major factors that determined writing success, including memory capacity as a writing aid, processing speed, prior content knowledge, self-efficacy beliefs, the ability to diagnose problems with text, and the ability to revise these problems (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Swanson & Berninger, 1994). The cognitive view of writing regarded the writer as a lone participant "actively organizing input and constructing generalized understandings about language structure and patterns of use", but relatively unaffected by outside social forces (Stone,

2004, p.7). Adherents of the cognitive perspective of writing consider knowledge as representation and learning as internalization of information.

Although this cognitive perspective dominated for some time, in recent years a sociocultural view of writing has gained ground. Introduced in the 1970's, sociocultural perspectives on writing did not garner much attention from researchers until the 1990's. Research with a sociocultural lens focuses on descriptive questions about how children actually do write, rather than studying normative issues about how students should write (Prior, 2006). This perspective holds that children are influenced by their prior life experiences when they enter school. As such, students come to school having had differing experiences with spoken language (Hart and Risley, 1995), written language, and spoken stories (Heath, 1983).

This theory differs in that "rather than viewing knowledge as existing inside the heads of individual participants or in the external world, sociocultural theory views meaning as being negotiated at the intersection of individuals, culture, and activity" (Englert, Mariage, & Dunsmore, 2006, p.208). According to this standpoint, writing involves a dialogic process in which texts are co-constructed by multiple participants inside as well as outside of school. This co-construction of text is influenced by students' own experiences and purposes and is mediated through scaffolding of instruction, explicit instruction with the use of procedural facilitators, and a community of practice (Bromley, 1999; Englert, et al., 2006). Through social interaction, language becomes a cognitive tool for gaining knowledge and also functions as a mediator of understanding. This perspective differs from the cognitive approach by viewing knowledge as a performance of skills and learning as appropriation and participation in the learning process.

Both cognitive and sociocultural perspectives of writing are important and can support each other. Even though these views seem to have little in common, there is a need to understand how context influences writing as well as how individuals process information and develop as writers. An integration of these views reveals "the salient patterns of human behavior and development as a system of 'softly assembled' dynamic systems. Such systems are determined jointly by the individual and by the structured dynamics of the environment" (Stone, 2004, p. 20). In this way, both views compliment each other to give a fuller picture of how children begin to learn writing.

The sociocultural perspective on writing views meaning construction as one of the critical goals of writing instruction. Therefore, this study was also based on the theoretical model of reading as a meaning-construction process described by Ruddell and Unrau (2004) (see Figure 2.1: All figures and tables are in the appendix). Since reading and writing bear a reciprocal relationship with one another, this model can be adapted to explain the meaning-making process occurring in the context of interactive writing lessons with only slight modifications. According to this model, the reader, or in this case the writer, the text, and the teacher negotiate meaning within the social setting of the classroom.

According to Ruddell and Unrau (2004), several interacting components influence the writer's ability to make meaning from written text. Prior beliefs and knowledge affect the writer's construction of meaning. This includes both affective and cognitive conditions. Affective conditions include motivation to write, attitude toward writing and content, writer's stance and sociocultural values and beliefs. These conditions influence the writer's decision to write. Cognitive conditions include declarative, procedural and

conditional knowledge. Declarative knowledge can be described as the writer's "what" knowledge of facts, procedural knowledge is the "when" of writing knowledge, and conditional knowledge is considered the "why" knowledge of writing. All of these types of knowledge create a writer's schemata. The writers "schemata are probably best understood as networks of associated knowledge that are activated and instantiated or as knowledge clusters that can be tapped for pieces of information that the [writer] reassembles to form new schemata" (Ruddell and Unrau, 2004, p. 1477). Cognitive conditions also include knowledge of language, word analysis, text-processing strategies, metacognitive strategies, knowledge of classroom and social interaction, and personal and world knowledge.

The knowledge construction process can be understood as prior beliefs and knowledge influencing the writer's purpose setting, planning and organizing of text, and construction of text. As the writer interacts with the written text, a text representation is formed. This representation "is conceived as a 'text world' that represents the text meaning structure and a record of text processing" (Ruddell and Unrau, 2004, p. 1486). During the writing process the writer's executive and monitor makes decisions about which tasks will be given the most attention due to limited quantities of attentional ability. (Samuels, 2004) Meaning is continuously reviewed and revised by the executive and monitor.

The learning outcomes of the writer include semantic and lexical knowledge, interpretation of written text, discussion, composition of written text, knowledge acquisition, motivational changes, and attitude, value, and belief changes.

The teacher also performs an important role in the meaning-construction process. The teacher also brings prior beliefs and knowledge to the meaning making process. The teacher's affective conditions include motivation to engage students, instructional stance, and sociocultural values and beliefs. A teacher's cognitive conditions also include declarative procedural and conditional knowledge of instruction. Cognitive conditions also include knowledge of the writer's meaning-construction process, knowledge of literature and content areas, teaching strategies, metacognitive strategies, and personal and world knowledge. "An important part of the teacher's strategy knowledge resides in understanding and using informal observations and assessments of the [writer] during instruction" (Ruddell and Unrau, 2004, p. 1493). Metacognitive strategies are used to make instructional decisions based on the writer's strengths and weaknesses.

The teacher's instructional decision-making process differs slightly from the writer's knowledge-construction process. The teacher relies on purpose setting and planning and organizing as well, but focuses on strategy construction rather than knowledge-construction. Strategy construction includes deciding on which strategies will lead to the desired instructional stance and learning outcomes. Just as the writer composes a text representation, the teacher composes an instructional representation in her mind. The teacher's executive and monitor manages attention allocation, reviews discussions and interactions, and restructures instructional decisions based on inferences and conclusions.

Through instruction, the teacher has expectations of student learning outcomes. The outcomes of a teacher's instructional decision making include semantic and lexical knowledge, interpretation of text, discussion, written responses, knowledge acquisition,

motivational changes, changes in attitudes, values and beliefs, insights into writer affect and cognition, and reflective insights into instruction.

The final piece of the meaning-construction process is the text and classroom environment. Characteristics of a high-quality learning environment include "useful feedback to students, meaningful demonstrations of language in action to engage students, and the development of learner responsibility for independence and self-direction" (Ruddell and Unrau, 2004, p. 1498). All of these aspects are present in interactive writing classrooms. Through dialogue surrounding constructed written texts the teacher and students construct meaning. "The texts and their interpretations exist in a hermeneutic circle. Thus, meaning construction and negotiation are viewed as fundamentally circular" (Ruddell and Unrau, 2004, p. 1500). Meaning is continually changed, disputed, and discussed. Meaning does not need to be agreed upon and a writer's meaning of a text might change over time based on new knowledge and understanding. Not only text meanings, but task meanings, source of authority meanings, and socio-cultural meanings interact to influence one another.

From a sociocultural perspective, meaning is negotiated between the writer, the teacher, and the text. Many factors influence the meaning making process including prior knowledge and classroom atmosphere. In classrooms where interactive writing occurs, this meaning making process and learning outcomes can be examined.

Review of Beginning Writing

The major goal of any writing instruction is to move students from guided to independent writing. Students must learn how to successfully implement strategies and

self-regulate their writing without the aid of others by the time they finish school. This transfer of knowledge from teacher to student has been documented by the research literature. Some scholars have examined how students cognitively internalize writing strategies through explicit instruction with procedural facilitators while others have considered how students learn writing in social situations through active participation. Both of these views recognize that writing objectives should suit each student, that authentic and purposeful writing have a positive impact on meaning making, and that teacher responsiveness is an important factor in students' transfer of knowledge.

Explicit Strategy Instruction

Studies examining explicit strategy instruction have focused on writing objectives such as phonemic awareness (Dahl, Scharer, Lawson, and Grogan, 1999; Ehri & Roberts, 2006; McIntyre & Freppon, 1994) grammar, and the writing process. Graham and Harris (2005) have studied orthography and handwriting as well as higher level objectives such as planning and revising through the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) writing program. This writing program focuses on self-regulation, implementation of strategies, and activation of prior knowledge (Graham & Harris, 2003).

Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) is another writing program designed to make the individual processes and strategies of writing visible through modeling and think alouds (Englert, 1992; Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, and Steven, 1991).

Both of these programs also utilize think sheets, graphic organizers, and teacher modeling to support writers during the writing process. Vygotsky (1978) and Wertsch (1991) view these procedural facilitators as meditational tools used to make strategies and

processes more visible to developing writers, thereby scaffolding their learning. Studies on these programs have shown that children at all levels, including struggling writers and students with disabilities, can make gains in writing skills and strategies through explicit instruction.

Socially Situated

Explicit instruction is not the only instructional strategy required for student learning. Research has also shown that writing should be socially situated, and that the active participation of students is beneficial to student learning as well. Numerous studies have investigated the context and process of how children learn to write and to make meaning of their surrounding social worlds. Bissex (1980) and Himley (1991) both examined the writing their sons composed during their beginning writing development. Bissex (1980) conducted a case study of her son from age five through 11 years old. She described his development in orthography (from invented to conventional), spacing, genre development, awareness of audience and purpose at home and at school. She observed his growth in writing at school and at home and determined that his writing progress relied on the social situation he was participating in. His progress differed at home and at school based on the emphasis of instruction.

Himley's son, Matthew, was observed from first through fifth grade. She examined his journal writing and writing prompts from school which were mostly narrative and his home writing which was about actual events from the recent past. She determined that he was using genre as a mentor and scaffold. Personal meaning and an understanding of the larger social culture were mediated through his expanding repertoire

of genre development. This study illustrated how he gained an understanding of audience and began to understand the culture around him through socially situated writing.

Bomer and Laman (2004) examined how students position themselves in a classroom writing community in their year long study of a combined first and second grade classroom. Through observation and interviews they found that through conversation with one another, the students positioned themselves as teacher, critic, and learner. Students supported, challenged, and encouraged their peers in their writing community. Larson and Maier's (2000) ethnography also studied how first grade students co-construct written text in a dynamic community of literacy learning. The environment created by the first grade teacher encouraged and supported student writing through teacher modeling, opportunities for students to write, and a sense of community. Writing texts was "linked to learning to become a community member through which students learned a relationship to text, to each other, and to the world through writing and authorship" (Larson & Maier, 2000, p. 493). The students in these studies learned through socially situated writing experiences how to negotiate and understand the social worlds around them.

Students also learn from interactions with each other and their environment. Dyson (1993) examined student interactions and observed how children used drawing, writing, and dialogue to represent meaning. In *Multiple Worlds of Child Writers*, Dyson studied a kindergarten through third grade language arts teacher. She observed this teacher for three consecutive academic school years and focused on eight students to study more closely. At the beginning of the study four of the students were kindergarteners and four of the students were first graders. Dyson determined that the

teacher's "success in language arts teaching was not found only in the formal group activities she orchestrated but, moreover, in the talk her activities so influenced—the talk among the children themselves" (1989, p. 273). By examining the talk that occurred between students during journal writing after formal writing instruction, she found that students' interactions around the text helped them represent meaning, express their experiences, and express their feelings. Dyson perceived writing development as "evolving within and shaped by children's interactions with other symbolic media and other people, including their peers" (1989, p. 255). Through discussion with peers around written text these students constructed meaning.

Dyson (1993) extended the findings from the previous study as she observed in another primary classroom. Over a two year period she followed six focal students; two kindergartners, two first graders, and two third graders. She observed writing instruction twice a week and made copies of students' written texts to examine. During this case study, she learned that culture can affect the written texts produced in an urban environment as language is negotiated around texts in a school community. "As the children participated in the culturally complex social arenas of the classroom, they learned how the written medium itself could accomplish valuable social ends" (p. 106). Through discussion of popular culture and the unofficial school culture, students also negotiated meaning around written texts.

Another study by Dyson (2006) also examined the social interactions between students. In this ethnographic study which spanned an academic school year, the teacher explicitly taught skills through modeling and think alouds, but there was tension between standard grammatical fix-its offered by the teacher and student generated socially situated

fix-its. She found "the children's identification of problems in each others' texts primarily involved judging them against the demands of those relations and practices, rather than against a set list of language conventions" (2006, p. 26). Children learned more from each other through written jokes and stories than through the explicit instruction provided by the teacher. In this study, students did not master grammatical usage skills, but did learn that writing is a visual representation of communication. The findings illustrate that teaching written conventions is not enough for learning to occur if they are not socially situated and meaningful.

In a related study wherein students routinely discussed and reacted to each other's texts, Chapman (1995) examined how a first grade classroom context influenced children's acquisition of genre knowledge. She collected data over the course of an entire school year in the form of observations, teacher interviews, copies of classroom texts, student texts created at school and at home, and questionnaires completed by the students' parents. Six focal students learned these genres through participation in various activities such as a daily morning news activity, writer's workshop, and author's circle. Chapman noted:

> Through author's circle and informal conversations during Writing Workshop time, the children's own written genres became part of the discourse community. Children would 'catch' enthusiasm for particular topics and forms from each other. In this way, both the teacher's texts and the children's texts became part of the ongoing dialogue and children were both actors and reactors to the writing of authors known and unknown. (1995, p. 184)

Understanding of genre was developed through these social interactions and written genre choices were made in response to the texts the students engaged in with their teacher and peers. These studies show that interaction among peers and with the environment are influential factors in writing development.

Objectives That Suit the Individual Learner

While active participation and socially situated learning is important, other studies have illustrated the importance of objectives that suit the individual writer and that the writer's prior knowledge should be considered during writing instruction. Many researchers have examined the stages writers go through (Clay, 1979; Donovan, 2001; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1982; Langer, 1985; Newkirk, 1987) and how their prior knowledge about writing conventions affects the movement through these stages (Chapman, 1995; Chapman, 2002). By examining the level of written text produced, or analyzing a student's ability to pretend read texts (Purcell-Gates, 1988), for example, it is possible to see that children's understanding of written text becomes more complex and coherent as they develop throughout a school year. As they move forward through the stages of writing development, they begin to better understand writing for an audience as well as more complex language structures for expressing their ideas. These stages of development vary in length and linearity for each child depending on the amount of support they receive from their environment.

Another way of matching writing to a student's instructional level is by noting what children can learn with the assistance of a more capable other. This other person can be a parent, teacher, or peer. The distance between what a child can do alone and what he can do with support is called the zone of proximal development (ZPD). "The

zone of proximal development defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state"(Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). With the support of a knowledgeable other the student can develop skills through side by side apprenticing. Vygotsky determined, "human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life around them. Children can imitate a variety of actions that go well beyond the limits of their own capabilities" (1978, p. 88).

Unfortunately, not all teachers are responsive to instructing students on their individual level. A survey of 220 teachers revealed that only 58% of teachers in first through third grade differentiate instruction based on their students' needs (Graham, Harris, Fink-Chorzempa, & MacArthur, 2003). This survey revealed that many teachers claim to be mindful of struggling writers' individual needs, but are unwilling or unable to provide instructional adaptations for these students.

Purpose and Authenticity

Purpose and authenticity also effect students' success in writing. Wharton-McDonald (2001) examined the differences between exemplary first grade teachers and average first grade teachers. She observed and interviewed five outstanding and four typical teachers nominated by language arts coordinators over a seven month period. She found that high-achievement teachers had high levels of instructional balance that was integrated and deliberate, instructional density, extensively used scaffolding, encouraged self-regulation, thoroughly integrated reading and writing activities, held high expectations for all students, exercised masterful classroom management, and were aware of purpose that drove practice. She also observed that exemplary teachers made

purposeful connections between reading and writing and emphasized communication as a purpose for writing.

Other researchers (Gundlach, 1982) have also studied the influential factor of purpose in writing. Less effective teachers tend to emphasize "manipulating written language as a code rather than accomplishing purposes through writing, in the hope that by the time the child matures to the point of taking on authentic uses for writing, he will have already become 'fluent' and will have mastered the tools" (Gundlach, 1982, pp. 133-134).

Beck (2006) identified purpose as important in a study of the effectiveness of a ninth grade teacher. Without instruction that connected mechanics to meaning, the students in this study were not able to make significant writing gains. In contrast, exemplary teachers balance explicitly teaching morphology and structure with scaffolding and independent practice (Wharton-McDonald, 2001). "When there is room for students to develop purposes of their own within the context of their school writing, teachers have a natural opportunity to provide structured help where such assistance is needed" (Langer & Applebee, 1984, p. 171).

Further defining the importance of purpose in literacy instruction, Purcell-Gates, Duke, and Martineau (2007) looked at the explicit and authentic teaching of text structure in informational and procedural texts in second and third grade classrooms. The authors observed writing instruction in these classrooms over a four month period. According to Purcell-Gates et al. (2007), authentic purpose occurs when "the literacy event serves a social communicative purpose, such as reading for information that one needs to know or writing to provide information for someone who wants or needs it" (p. 14). In this study,

explicit teaching was defined as naming, modeling, describing, and explaining the function of the genre. Through longitudinal and correlational designs, this study found, "students in the high authenticity/high explicitness classrooms tended to grow at a faster rate than any other students. Those children in low authenticity/high explicitness classrooms tended to grow at the slowest rate" (2007, p. 39). This research illustrated that interventions that focus on explicit teaching, to the exclusion of authenticity, will not produce significant student learning.

Teacher Responsiveness and Transfer of Knowledge

Teacher responsiveness and transfer of knowledge are also important facets of a successful writing program. Effective teachers scaffold their instruction for students based on students' present level of knowledge (Wharton-McDonald, 2001). The goal of this scaffolding is the transfer of knowledge from teacher to student. As students become more successful, the scaffolds can be removed and students should be able to exhibit the ability to transfer their learning to individual writing tasks

Mariage (2001) observed this type of transfer of knowledge through observation that occurred over a three month time period at the end of a larger two year long ethnography. He examined how social dialogue becomes internalized and used to guide independent action in a third and fourth grade inclusive classroom through the morning message students wrote about their own personal experiences. Students were able to write their own morning message story and edit a hypothetical morning message as measures of transfer. Students were able to internalize the instruction offered during the whole group morning message lessons and showed growth in mechanics and content on the measures of transfer.

A case study by Englert (1992) examined the program known as Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) with fourth and fifth grade students over a three year period. The goal of this program is "the ability to model strategies and hand over control of the strategy to students in a discourse that is socially constituted by the entire literacy community" (Englert, 1992, p. 159). In this program, the teacher modeled the writing process through think alouds and instruction was scaffolded by teaching in students' zone of proximal development and through activating their prior knowledge. Students were invited to participate in the planning, brainstorming, drafting, and revising activities. After a genre had been introduced and students had been given an opportunity to use it in their own writing, the teacher would introduce a new genre. The teacher was viewed as a more knowledgeable other, but a collaborative social dialogue did occur. After much practice, students begin to internalize this dialogue. "The ability to carry on this internalized dialogue with oneself is an important aspect of self-regulation and an important literacy goal" (Englert, 1992, p. 159). Students in Englert's study worked in small groups and discussed in whole group the strategies that were being used. As editing occurred, students learned to negotiate meaning with one another. "Through these interactions, students learned new strategies, as well as how to flexibly implement and transform strategies to become more efficient in response to authentic writing needs" (Englert, 1992, p. 163). This strategy instruction was embedded in the authentic needs of these writers. Through conversations, they understood the meaning of audience and acknowledged the importance of writing considerate texts. Transfer of learning occurred and instruction was situated for the individual learner.

Through concrete scaffolding and interaction, "learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90). Interactive writing, SRSD, and CSIW exhibit these features.

Review of Interactive Writing

As I described in the previous section, the literature on beginning writing demonstrates that writing objectives should be explicitly taught, instruction should suit each student, that social interaction among peers is beneficial, that authentic and purposeful writing have a positive impact on meaning making, and that teacher responsiveness is an important factor in students' transfer of knowledge. The research on interactive writing is more limited than that of beginning writing in general, but findings do support several of these tenets.

Research on interactive writing has traditionally focused on student writing outcomes such as vocabulary, phonemic awareness, and orthography. Many studies have been conducted to examine how students learn print level writing skills through explicit instruction in an interactive writing context. Brotherton and Williams (2002) conducted a case study with one first grade teacher to examine which skills she focused on during interactive writing lessons once a week. The authors observed these interactive writing lessons for the duration of one academic school year. They found that the teacher focused on literacy-related vocabulary such as word and letter, phoneme-grapheme correspondence, spelling strategies for unknown words, letter formation, and strategies for composing. The findings from this study are limited in that they focus on what was

taught, but do not consider how they were taught or whether the students learned these strategies and were able to transfer them during later independent writing.

Other researchers have studied whether or not students are internalizing these writing skills. Craig (2006) examined the effects of interactive writing versus metalinguistic games with a group of eighty-seven kindergartners. Craig found that students in the interactive writing group scored better on word identification, word reading, and passage comprehension than those who were in the metalinguistic games group. In related studies, Button, Johnson, and Furgerson (1996) and Runge (1997) measured student outcomes related to interactive writing using Clay's Observation Survey. Button, et al. (1996) observed interactive writing lessons in a kindergarten classroom for one academic school year and Runge (1997) conducted a case study with 22 three through five year olds. Through observation and examining children's writing samples, they found student scores increased in all areas of the survey including reading accuracy, dictation tasks, spelling of high-frequency words, and written vocabulary. These studies focused on which writing behaviors were modeled by the teacher and student outcomes.

Pinnell and McCarrier (1994) conducted a similar study as Button, et al. and also administered Clay's Observation Survey. In this case study with one kindergarten Title I classroom, the authors found students made gains in concepts of print, letter identification, dictation tasks, writing vocabulary, and average text reading level as well. An interesting aspect of this study was that most of these students were expected to participate in Reading Recovery the following year. Due to this interactive writing intervention, all but two or three students of the students were not eligible for the Reading

Recovery program. This study illustrates the importance of an early intervention for struggling readers and writers.

Cicalese (2003) examined gains in writing and student perspectives of writing in one first grade classroom that engaged in interactive writing versus more traditional independent writing activities. Another first grade classroom and a second grade classroom served as control groups as the interactive writing intervention was only implemented in one first grade classroom. Cicalese administered a district writing task and a writing survey in October and again in February. She determined that students who engaged in interactive writing lessons performed significantly better on a district-wide writing task than the control students who participated in more traditional writing programs. Her results also showed that students in the interactive writing classrooms took more risks and saw their mistakes as learning opportunities. These studies support the notion that interactive writing does improve beginning writers' skills in numerous areas.

Teachers' ability to instruct on each child's level is also important for beginning writers to succeed. Furgerson (2004) examined students' ability to internalize new skills, but was more interested in investigating how teachers planned their interactive writing lessons. She observed ten interactive writing lessons over a six week period in two first grade classrooms. She discovered that these teachers planned lessons around the individual development of their students and that the aspects of composition taught in these classrooms included sentence variation, audience awareness, and evaluation and revision. These teachers reflected on their teaching which informed their subsequent instruction. Compton (1994) had similar findings in her year long study of a first grade

teacher implementing interactive writing. The study took place over a ten month period and data collected included daily observations, transcripts, interviews, and student writing samples. The first grade Reading Recovery teacher in her study taught at students' instructional levels, used uptake, and varied instruction based on student responses. This teacher's instruction integrated reading and writing and children made gains based on Clay's observational survey.

Although many studies have looked at what students learn in interactive writing lessons, few have examined how students transfer this learning to their own independent writing. Henry (1999) investigated how one kindergarten child was able connect what he learned during an interactive writing lesson to his own independent writing. In this study, the researcher focused mainly on the transfer of spelling strategies for unknown words. Results revealed that this student was able to transfer spelling strategies learned in whole group instruction, such as segmenting words from left to right and repeating parts of words, to aid his memory while writing. This study's findings support the theory that a transfer of skills is occurring to independent writing.

The previous research has examined which skills students learn explicitly through interactive lessons and the benefits of teachers being responsive to individual student needs. Only one study (Henry, 1999) has explored the transfer of strategies to independent writing. More research is needed to explore how purpose and authenticity in instruction, active participation of students through dialogue, and teacher responsiveness can affect student learning outcomes.

Review of Classroom Discourse

Language is the essence of education. Bakhtin believes, "language and the word are almost everything in human life" (1986, p. 118). Without some type of language, either written or verbal, communication and learning would be impossible. As such, the structure of classroom discourse is an important factor in determining what type of learning will occur in any given classroom. Typical classrooms are organized so that the teacher is the giver of knowledge and the students are viewed as empty vessels. In these classrooms, the teacher usually participates in dialogue described as Initiate, Respond, and Evaluate (IRE), where the student is prompted by a question to which the teacher already knows the answer (Cazden, 1988). The teacher then evaluates the students' response to that question. Usually, this type of dialogue is disjointed from students' own experiences. This means "instead of the knowledge-in-action that both allows and develops through participation in culturally significant traditions of discourse, we have emphasized the knowledge-out-of-context that comes from studying its characteristics" (Applebee, 1996, p. 26).

Most of the research on classroom discourse has taken place with middle and high school students rather than beginning writing students. Nystrand (1997) studied classroom discourse and found that it was primarily monologic with the teachers lecturing and then asking questions. These questions tended to be unauthentic and teachers rarely followed-up on student responses. Through this type of interaction, children implicitly learned what topics were appropriate for discussion in school as well as how these topics were to be addressed (Applebee, 1996; Mercer & Littleton, 2007). This format provides no option for negotiating meaning, risk taking, or for students to

discuss their own personal connections and experiences. Mercer and Littleton (2007) and Hillocks (2002) argue that high-stakes testing may be one reason teachers continue to use this type of teaching strategy. "If there is too much material to cover—and pressure for coverage is usually the villain here—dialogue is almost of necessity supplanted by what they need to know" (Applebee, 1996, p. 56). Unfortunately, the knowledge that children do gain will remain decontextualized and unproductive in this type of atmosphere.

In contrast to this more traditional classroom setting, is a dialogic environment that encourages conversation between the teacher and students as would be observed in an interactive writing setting. The teacher engages in uptake where she expands on students' prior discussions and experiences. Under this model, school provides children a place to learn language as well as learn through language (Applebee, 1996; Johnston, 2004; Wells, 1999). "The roles we establish as teachers and the interactions we undertake with our students, through our questions, responses, and assignments, inexorably set out the possibilities for meaning in our classes, and, in this way, the context of learning" (Nystrand, 1997, p. 9). This type of discourse requires negotiation among participants which leads to better student understanding and knowledge (Nystrand, 1986). "Whereas monologially organized instruction seeks to transmit information, dialogic instruction works by cultivating knowledge—transforming understandings through reflection and talk" (Nystrand, 1997, p.26). Reciprocity occurs when mutual knowledge becomes shared knowledge through conversation and reflection. "Reciprocity in instruction occurs most often when students, as well as the teacher, have some input into and control over instructional discourse, and when their previous learning significantly affects the course of subsequent learning" (Nystrand, 1997, p.73).

Christoph and Nystrand (2001) followed a ninth grade English teacher as she tried to transition to more dialogic teaching strategies by integrating dialogic bids such as asking authentic questions, practicing uptake, and using high-level evaluation. In the beginning of the study the teacher asked 99% of questions, of which 7% were authentic and 9% were marked by uptake. Results showed that an environment of involvement and respect was being formed through the teacher's knowledge of her students and consideration of their suggestions. Through gradual change this teacher began her journey toward a more dialogic classroom. She realized, "some of these interruptions and off-topic comments actually made learning possible because they bridged the lives of the students to the coursework in ways that were meaningful to the students" (2001, p. 276). When students play an active role in their learning, they tend to build understanding and knowledge (Maloch, 2002; McIntyre, Kyle, and Moore, 2006).

Both students and teachers derive numerous benefits from conversational discourse in the classroom. Cazden (1988) describes four cognitive benefits of this type of discourse. When discourse is used as a catalyst, "peer interaction enhances the development of logical reasoning through a process of active cognitive reorganization induced by cognitive conflict" (1988, p. 128). When students are urged to defend their thinking, learning is more likely to occur. Students also learn when discourse is used as the enactment of complementary roles. Students are able to complete tasks together that they might not have been able to finish on their own (Adams, 1995; Englert, Berry, & Dunsmore, 2001). Through discourse students also begin to build a relationship with an audience (Chapman, 1995). Children begin "performing the teacher's role for each other—to the benefit of the teacher as author, through experiences with a responsive

audience; and to the benefit of each child as critic, through internalizing such questions not only by answering them for the teacher but also asking them of peers" (Cazden, 1988, p. 132). Finally, discourse builds knowledge through exploratory talk. As children communicate with each other they begin to understand concepts more fully. Thus, "by contributing to the joint meaning making with and for others, one also makes meaning for oneself and in the process, extends one's own understanding" (Wells, 1999, p. 108).

According to Bakhtin (1986), knowledge is constructed between active social participants. In writing lessons both the teacher and the student speak in meaningful utterances that influence the written text produced. As the teacher relinquishes the pen to the student, utterances move from teacher only, to teacher and student co-constructed, to student only. Therefore, the text that the student creates is not entirely his own. Instead, "the text is an utterance included in the speech communication (textual chain) of a given sphere" (Bakhtin, 1986, pp. 104-105). The student is influenced by the previous speech utterances of his teacher and classmates while constructing text. This is what Bakhtin (1981) terms ventriloquation which is described as:

> The word in language is half someone else's. It becomes 'one's own' only when the speaker populates it with his own intention, his own accent, when he appropriates the word, adapting it to his own semantic and expressive intention. Prior to this moment of appropriation, the word does not exist in a neutral and impersonal language (it is not, after all, out of a dictionary that the speaker gets his words!), but rather it exists in other people's mouths, in other people's concrete contexts, serving other people's intentions: it is from there that one must take the word and make it one's own (pp. 293-294).

The student then reflects on what he has learned from classroom exchanges and integrates that knowledge into his own writing (Wertsch, 1991). Therefore, "the text is a subjective reflection of the objective world; the text is an expression of consciousness, something that reflects" (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 113). Because the text is connected to previous speech utterances, the text will reflect the student's knowledge of writing processes and strategies at that particular time. Just as spoken utterances develop over time, written utterances will progress as well.

Different aspects of dialogue between teacher/student and student/student allow students to become more knowledgeable about the world around them. According to Wells (1999), knowledge "is not an object of any kind—material, mental, or immaterial—that exists outside particular situations of knowing; and in such situations, it does not preexist the activity but is what is recreated, modified, and extended in and through collaborative knowledge building and individual understanding" (p. 89). Mercer and Littleton define the space where this mutual building of understanding occurs the Intermental Development Zone (IDZ). In this shared space students build knowledge at their own levels of development. "In this sort of accepting climate, speech allows all participants to enter the dialogue at the level of which they are capable; it also enables the teacher or tutor to offer immediate support and assistance that is tailored to the needs of the individual student" (Wells, 1999, p. 115). Knowledge is therefore developed through discourse which must be socially situated and dialogic (Wertsch, 1991). This knowledge building is obtained through scaffolding of children's understanding and modeling new skills in a child's zone of proximal development (ZPD).

This knowledge can be observed externally by examining students' inner control of novel concepts. "Knowledge building and understanding are related to each other as the outer and inner orientations that individuals adopt at different moments in the spiral of knowing" (Wells, 1999, p. 107). Students' knowledge building is based on their experiences, new information, and their developing understandings. Children are able to move back and forth in their conversations and thinking between their outer and inner control of knowledge (Vygotsky, 1986). As they move back and forth they are generating meaning and knowledge for themselves individually. The meaning derived from inner speech is closely related to egocentric speech and social speech. Social speech is comprised of the conversations occurring around the child everyday and egocentric speech is the spoken words of the child. The knowledge building of inner speech is influenced by these two factors (Vygotsky, 1986). Inner knowledge can be defined as dialogue that is only accessible to the individual.

According to Clay (1991) there are three strategies, observable by teachers, which demonstrate inner knowledge building. These strategies include students being able to work independently on increasingly more difficult texts, more rapid and efficient self-correcting activities, and engagement in high-level problem solving strategies (p. 254). Children who are internalizing new material begin to make discoveries on their own that were not explicitly taught by the teacher. By comparing their inner and outer control of knowledge, writers examine matches and mismatches in their understanding and make decisions for future learning. Therefore, while the direction of one's learning is always variable it is not always linear. "By helping students weave various bits and pieces of information into coherent webs of meaning, dialogically organized instruction promotes

retention and in-depth processing associated with the cognitive manipulation of information" (Nystrand, 1997, p. 28). Children's development and movement between egocentric speech and inner speech is one indicator that students are building knowledge and learning is occurring.

Review of Teacher Change

I was not able to locate any previous research on teacher change associated with beginning writing instruction. Therefore, for this review of teacher change I examined teacher learning related to any type of literacy event at any grade level. The findings assert that for teacher change to occur participants need to be willing to change and reflection needs to be based on classroom experiences related to the intervention. Also, support through discussion with colleagues and teacher expertise are important factors for teacher change to occur.

In a study by Richardson (1994), data was gathered through videotaped observation of teachers' reading lessons focusing on comprehension, staff development sessions, and teacher interviews about teaching beliefs connected to comprehension of 17 grade 4, 5, and 6 teachers including special education teachers. Through discussion and reflection, teachers unveiled their competing beliefs and reconciled these beliefs with their classroom practices. Through this journey the staff developers were considered knowledgeable others supportive of change and gradually let the teachers take control of the process. According to Richardson (1994), it is important that the staff developer "must not be seen as the only expert. A democratic process must be facilitated that allows the teachers to recognize and value their own expertise" (p. 125). These

observations showed that teachers do teach reading comprehension and they do incorporate research-based practices, even if they do not realize it. After a year of professional development, most teachers changed how they taught, what they taught, and their rational for choosing what to teach. These findings suggest that "teachers' beliefs and understanding (and therefore their instructional purposes, roles, and practices) *can* change, especially when provided with a staff development program that presents opportunities for teachers to examine their own beliefs and teaching, to provide practical arguments about their teaching, and to meet with other teachers to discuss their teaching" (Richardson, 1994, p. 61). These findings illustrate the necessity of support by colleagues during the change process.

In a multiple case study, Scharer (1992) documented five teachers' journey to change their instructional methods from a basal reading program to instruction based on trade books over a nine month period. Through interviews, discussions, and classroom observations of the first through sixth grade teachers, she noted that four of the six teachers did move from instruction based on the basal reading series to a literature based program based on the needs of her individual students. She also explored the factors that enhanced the likelihood of change in these teachers. First, all the participants in this study volunteered, and therefore, were more motivated to make changes in their instructional methods. Secondly, the participants were supported through the change process by their colleagues. The other participants were able to meet throughout the study and reflect on the change process during in-service training days. This research illustrates the need for support from colleagues for teacher change to occur.

Stephens, Boldt, and Clark (2000) examined changes in four teachers' reading instruction over a two year period. Through observation, interviews, and meetings with the participating teachers the researchers were able to determine their beliefs related to reading and trace changes in those beliefs over the course of the study. Findings from this research suggest that it is not only necessary for teachers to be engaged in the process of inquiry, but that this inquiry must be focused on the actual skills and strategies that their individual students are working on. It is insufficient for teachers' to question instructional methods that they are not actually using with their students. For change to occur, they need to be asking questions about and reflecting on actual situations that they are experiencing in their classrooms. The researchers agreed with Scharer (1992) that is important to give the teachers the opportunity to discuss their experiences with their colleagues so they can juxtapose their ideas with the suggestions of other teachers. Through this juxtaposition, learning may occur when teachers must resolve incongruence between their teaching and the teaching of their peers.

Bauer and Garcia (2002) conducted a case study with one second grade teacher in regard to her ability to implement alternative literacy assessment in her classroom. The researchers observed in this classroom over an eight month period and interviewed the teacher throughout this time. The researchers also followed up three years later and had the participating teacher describe her current literacy instruction as well as reflect on her previous practices. Not only was this teacher able to integrate alternative literacy assessments into her instructional repertoire, but other important findings related to teacher change were reported. First, the researchers felt that the teacher's ability to implement change in her classroom was partially due to the fact that she was able to

gradually incorporate the instructional method into her current teaching methods. She did not have to completely abandon her pedagogical beliefs, but rather, was supported over time to gradually integrate the alternative literacy assessments into her classroom. Secondly, the researchers gave her the flexibility to implement these changes as she saw fit. The researchers were there to support her, but ultimately the ways in which she decided to implement the alternative literacy assessments were up to her. Finally, the participating teacher was willing to make changes in her instructional methods because she felt that the assessments provided her with the information she needed and valued. She believed that "teachers should change their instruction when they are convinced that the change is best for them and their students" (pp. 485-486). Without this type of shift in belief, change is unlikely to occur.

Scanlon, Gallego, Duran, and Reyes (2005) examined how teachers responded to interactive staff development as compared to training staff developments. Interactive staff developments were defined as including a shared purpose by all participants, on-going interaction between participants, and the exchange of knowledge and ideas. The authors provided professional development for 19 teachers from elementary through high school. Four instructional practices were introduced during the professional development sessions. Semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis, and semantic-syntactic feature analysis were all interactive practices. Verbal rehearsal practice was the only non-interactive practice introduced and served as a control. The researchers provided a workshop day at the beginning of the study and again six weeks later. During the first workshop session the teachers were randomly assigned to one of the four instructional practices. The researchers videotaped classroom instruction, interviewed the teachers,

and surveyed teacher beliefs. Discourse analysis of the talk occurring in these classrooms revealed that the teachers using the three interactive instructional methods used interactive utterances more often than the control group. This illustrated that the teachers understood the underlying principles of the intervention and were not merely replicating the visible features of the instruction. These teachers' changed their beliefs when it came to interactive instructional practices. The three major factors that led to this professional development's success included commitment to participation, informed practice, and genuine collegiality. Through discussion among the teachers during the second workshop day, the teachers participated by asking questions and giving examples from their own classrooms. The researchers, who were viewed as collaborators rather than researchers, gave support throughout the learning process. Through feedback from the other participating teachers and the researchers, the teachers modified their beliefs and through these open discussions built collegiality and trust among the participants. This research reinforces the findings by Scharer (1992) and Stephens, et al. (2000) that collegial support is necessary for change to occur in teacher's instructional methods.

As part of a larger study spanning five years, Estrada (2005) provided professional development for one first grade teacher with regard to small group reading instruction. Throughout the five years, 27 first and fourth grade classrooms were examined to describe teacher pedagogy and student outcomes. During year four of the study, professional development was planned for this one first grade teacher. Data were collected through observations of classroom activities, teacher interviews, student outcome data, and after school reflection meetings. During these meetings the researcher presented the participating teacher with videotaped segments of her lessons. The

researcher and teacher reflected on what they saw occurring and collaboratively decided which areas of the teacher's instruction needed support. Through dialogue, the researcher strove to assist the teacher rather than tell the teacher how to improve her instruction. The participating teacher was able to improve her teaching of reading in small groups and this research also added to the literature on teacher change. This case study illustrates that professional development needs to be ongoing and related to the activities occurring in the participating teachers' classrooms. Through watching videotapes of her lessons and participating in joint problem-solving discussions, she was able to reflect on her instructional methods (Stephens, et al., 2000). This study also found that building teacher expertise is also essential for change to occur (Scanlon, et al., 2005). Teachers must be explicitly taught ways in which to improve their instruction. If these instructional methods can not be visualized in the teachers' classrooms, limited change will occur.

Meirink, Meijer, Verloop, and Bergen (2009) surveyed 34 secondary teachers on their changes in teaching beliefs. All of the participants volunteered for the study, because they were dissatisfied with their current teaching methods. They were interested in instructional methods that promoted self-regulated student learning and more active student participation. Teacher beliefs were measured by survey at the beginning and the end of the school year. Teachers also were required to write about their learning experiences in a log at least six times throughout the study. The ways in which these teachers learned and changed were determined by factor analysis. The findings illustrated that 28 of the participating teachers changed their instructional beliefs to some extent. These researchers noted that the participating teachers changed their instruction and their underlying beliefs when they discussed how their colleagues were successful

implementing activities that fostered more active student participation. It was not enough for the teachers to hear about new instruction methods; they needed to hear that these methods were working in their colleagues classrooms. This supports previous research by Scanlon, et al. (2005), Scharer (1992), and Stephens, et al. (2000). The surveys and logs also showed that some of the participating teachers had no explicit intention to learn. This finding, is contrary to the finding by Scharer (1992) in which she observed that teachers who volunteered for an intervention had a desire to change. Some teachers that volunteer might have other motives, or if the intervention goes against their instructional beliefs they may not be able to make changes and learn. The findings from this study also convey that initial beliefs need to be understood before any learning can occur. If initial beliefs are incongruent with new knowledge, change is unlikely to occur.

The findings from a meta-analysis of 82 empirical investigations on reading teacher education by Risko, Roller, Cummins, Bean, Block, Anders, and Flood (2008) found that teachers are more likely to make pedagogical and belief changes when they are learning and doing. It is important to increase teacher content knowledge expertise, but also support their application of this knowledge with their students. The researchers also determined that explanations of practices must be explicit and varied for teacher change to occur. Explicitness includes several elements: "modeling, practice with the university classroom, and practice with pupils in field settings" (Risko, et al., 2008, p. 43). The researchers found that there was a strong correlation between explicitness of instruction and strength of teacher change. The studies examined also illustrated that not only explicitness of instruction, but intensity of instruction was important. "Prospective teachers learn well when teacher educators provide them with intense support that

includes explicit teaching and a lot of time and structure" (Risko, et al., 2008, p. 277). This finding notes an important key to teacher change is feedback over time.

The findings assert that for teacher change to occur participants need not only to volunteer to participate in an instructional intervention, but also be willing to change. Reflection based on classroom experiences of individual students related to the intervention is also an important facet of successful professional development. Also, support through discussion with colleagues and teacher expertise are important factors for teacher change to occur.

Summary of Chapter

The literature illustrates that many factors are influential in developing writing competence. These factors include explicit strategy instruction, writing objectives that suit each student, social interaction among peers, authentic and purposeful writing, and students' transfer of knowledge through teacher responsiveness. Writing is a social endeavor in which the written text produced is influenced by the social dynamics occurring around the writer at a particular time. These social dynamics include scaffolding of support from teachers and peers, imitation by students in response to teacher modeling, and classroom conversation that explores students' prior experiences. All of these environmental factors support students' ability to eventually produce independent texts.

Through these factors and meaningful dialogue students begin to internalize the knowledge of writing skills and strategies. The research reviewed in this section suggested that for inner knowledge to develop, literacy lessons should be explicitly

introduced, be meaningful to the writer, and practiced through dialogic conversation. Many classrooms are arranged for student talk, but unless the talk is meaningful and within a child's zone of proximal development, learning may not occur (Wolf, Crosson, & Resnick, 2006). Learning outcomes may be measured by examining the internal and external speech of students. Students who have learned new skills will also be able to use their inner speech as a scaffold to transfer their learning to new tasks and solve problems that occur during independent writing. As children develop the content of their writing will become more complex and cohesive.

Any long-term writing intervention should lead to changes in teachers' underlying beliefs about how and what children can learn in relation to writing. The research literature on teacher change based on professional development and the implementation of literacy interventions determined that support by colleagues during the change process is paramount to changes in teachers' beliefs. It is not only important for teachers to be supported, but they need the opportunity to apply what they are learning to their individual students. Through acquisition of new knowledge and acting on this new knowledge, lasting pedagogical belief changes are more likely to occur.

Despite significant beginning writing research, there are no studies of how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. This study will fill that gap in the literature. In chapter three, I will describe the rationale for the research methodology, the role of the researcher, the population and setting, the data collection procedures, the data analysis procedures, and

the methods of verification. In chapter four, I will present the findings of the study. In chapter five, I will offer implications for teachers and professional developers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Chapter Introduction

This study examined how teachers revise their instructional talk in response to student outcomes and how students learned strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. My research questions derived from my interest in the influence of classroom discourse on children's understanding of the forms and functions of writing within the classroom routine of first grade interactive writing. The nature of my research questions, in turn, determined the methodology of this study. I conducted a formative experiment in which I was an active participant observer who supported and guided the focal teachers' understandings of interactive writing and the discourse to enable children's writing development. The purpose of this study, which is deeply contextualized within particular classrooms of students and with particular teachers, was realized by implementing a case study methodology that allowed detailed description and comparison of teachers' discourse within and across classrooms over time. This methodology was chosen because the topic of classroom discourse works well with qualitative methods in a naturalistic setting. In natural settings, objects of study "take their meaning as much from their contexts as they do from themselves" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 189). Because the meaning of a word comes from its use in social interactions it is important to study dialogue in respect to its relationship to other aspects of the environment. It is also important to study how teachers modify instructional strategies in a naturalistic setting, given that these modifications are context specific. In

this chapter I present an outline and description of the rationale for the methodology, role of the researcher, population and setting, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, and methods of verification.

Methodology

The purpose of this multiple case study design was to examine how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learned strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. The research questions addressed in this study were:

1. In what ways do teachers reflect on student responses, both oral and written, to revise their instructional methods in the context of interactive writing?
2. In what ways do students evidence appropriation of teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing?

    Subquestion: Do students with different ability levels take up this knowledge in different ways?

Case Study

For this project, a case study approach with an emphasis on formative experiment was the best choice of methodology to explore the stated purpose and answer the research questions. Yin (2003) defines case study as an appropriate method of inquiry when "investigators either desire or are forced by circumstances (a) to define research topics broadly and not narrowly, (b) to cover contextual or complex multivariate conditions and not just isolated variables, and (c) to rely on multiple and not singular sources of evidence" (p. xi). Case studies are also a good choice when researchers are examining "a

contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control" (Yin, 2003, p. 9). Research in classroom settings falls into these categories.

Although there are many different types of case studies, when studying teacher responsiveness and classroom conversation in the context of interactive writing, an explanatory case study is an ideal methodology. Since there is no research regarding this topic, this study explored a new area of research. This study addressed that gap by employing a multiple case study design in order to examine dialogue between teachers and students during interactive writing lessons. Researchers such as Yin have determined "the evidence from multiple cases is often considered more compelling, and the overall study is therefore regarded as being more robust" than examining only one case study. (1994, p. 45).

Formative Experiment

Formative experiments go beyond traditional qualitative and quantitative research methods, such as case study, to connect the work of researchers and teachers. These experiments are defined as "a research methodology that addresses specifically how promising instructional interventions might be implemented in classrooms to achieve valued pedagogical goals" (Reinking & Bradley, 2004, p. 151). In the current climate of high-stakes testing and implementation of research-based interventions, McGill-Franzen (2005) argues “instead of large, field-based, longitudinal, multisite research projects, smaller and more limited studies may now be needed to identify critical teacher variables in curriculum adaptation” (p. 368). Studying how instructional methods are used in practice is more advantageous than just studying the method itself when the goal is

improving student outcomes rather than scaling up research practices. (Dillon, O'Brian, & Heilman, 2000)

In this type of research, the findings from implemented instructional methods guide classroom instruction with an emphasis on educational outcomes (Ball & Forzani, 2007; Cobb et al., 2003). Formative experiments inform the researcher as well as the classroom teacher. "Formative experiments, because they address questions clearly relevant to practitioners, and because they employ forms of experimentation similar to practitioners, are more directly related to practice than other forms of research and are more likely to appeal to practitioners" (Reinking & Bradley, 2004, p. 154). Since this type of methodology is typically associated with teachers, they are more likely to continue using the research-based findings from the interventions in their classrooms.

According to Reinking and Bradley (2004), there are six characteristics that should be used to judge the rigor and validity of formative experiments. First, studies should be theoretical. Theory guides the importance of the study, the rationale for the intervention, and should inform findings and conclusions. Second, studies should be interventionist and goal oriented. "Formative experiments investigate how to improve education and learning toward well-specified goals that are explicitly justified in relation to theory and practice" (p. 159). Third, these studies should be iterative. The initial intervention is modified over time in response to factors that inhibit or enhance the effectiveness of the intervention. Because of this, the researcher must spend a reasonable amount of time in the field reworking the intervention until progress occurs. Fourth, formative experiments should be transformational. Through instructional intervention, the classroom context will change in some way. These changes may be intended or

unintended, but both will inform theory building. Fifth, these studies should be methodologically inclusive and flexible. Formative experiment compliments all methodologies, including case study, and even mixed-method research. Finally, these studies are pragmatic. The research findings should be practical for researchers and teachers alike.

While developing this case study, I considered Reinking and Bradley's (2004) six characteristics used to judge rigor and validity. The pedagogical goals that guided this study were teachers' ability to revise their instructional methods in response to classroom dialogue and students' ability to take up and transform the available discourses in the classroom into their own writing and internal speech. The pedagogical theory that established the goal's value was the socio-cultural view of classroom conversation. Interactive writing, with its emphasis on scaffolding new knowledge through conversation, was the instructional intervention that had the potential to achieve the above goals. Data collected to determine if the intervention was advancing the pedagogical goals included student and teacher interviews, observations of classroom talk, artifacts, and teachers' reflective journals.

Throughout the study, I reevaluated the intervention and made modifications when needed to meet the above goals. Consideration of how the instructional environment had changed as a result of the intervention and what unintended positive or negative effects the intervention produced also occurred. I examined "the ways in which children not only take from, but simultaneously transform, the environment" (Englert et al., 2001, p. 169). The factors that enhanced or detracted from the effectiveness of achieving these goals during implementation will be discussed in chapter four.

Through the implementation of formative experiment in conjunction with case study methodology, the findings from the study were not only valid and robust, but also meaningful and informative to classroom teachers. This type of research is more likely to influence change in classrooms rather than large scale quantitative studies that do not seem relevant to the daily decision-making processes of teachers.

Role of the Researcher

My role as the researcher influenced the study in various ways. I was familiar with the teachers at this school because I had taught there for the previous four years. I was not familiar with any of the first grade students, but rapport had already been developed with one of the teachers, Andie. The other participating teacher, Caroline, was new to the school and we had never met before. I needed to gain the students' confidence and trust at the beginning of the study and I tried to view writing through their worldview. It was important that as a researcher I "be able to take the role of the respondents and attempt to see the situation from their viewpoint, rather than superimpose his or her world of academia and preconceptions upon them" (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 655). Because I had previously taught writing in first grade, the potential for researcher bias was introduced into the study. Although I had no influence over these teachers, there was a potential for bias due to my prior knowledge of the focus of this study.

Through working with the teachers and students, I inevitably influenced what occurred in the classroom during subsequent lessons and thus was an active participant observer in this study. According to Lincoln and Guba, "Investigator and respondent

together *create* the data of research. Each influences the other, and the direction that the data gathering will take in the next moment is acutely dependent upon what data have already been collected, and in what manner" (1985, p. 100). The role of the researcher can be considered as falling along a continuum. I shifted from full-observer to participant-observer when I intervened with questions while children were working independently. Also, I moved to full-participant when I was modeling interactive writing lessons and giving lesson suggestions at the weekly planning meetings.

Population and Setting

Two first grade classrooms served as the bounded units of analysis for this case study and the cases were purposefully selected to obtain similar results and to broaden the data collected for analysis. The chosen cases came from a school that falls within an above average income bracket in a mid-size Southeastern city that was accessible to the researcher. The school and teachers were not chosen to be representative of all first grades, but rather were chosen to better understand the complexities of first grade classrooms and to study what is common and uncommon about these classrooms in particular.

Before data collection began, I obtained Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval from the Office of Research at the University of Tennessee and approval from Knox County's District Research Evaluation Specialist. Also, informed consent was obtained from the participating principal, teachers, students' parents, and students themselves (see Appendix C). All students and teachers were given pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality.

The chosen school served kindergarten through fifth grade with a total school enrollment of 683 and a first grade enrollment of 123. 44.8% of the total student population was female and 55.2% were male. 14.8% received free or reduced lunch. The ethnic makeup of this school was predominately White (89.6%) followed by African American (6.0%), Asian/Pacific Islander (1.9%), Hispanic (1.8%), and Native American/Alaskan (0.7%).

The classroom teachers were selected based on the following criteria. They were recommended by the administration, they did not already teach interactive writing, and they were willing to participate. Andie Cooper held a bachelor's degree in elementary education. After college graduation she entered the business field for seven years before starting her teaching career. She spent her first year as a supply teacher in Kindergarten, first grade and third grade classrooms. Then she was hired in her current position as a first grade teacher seven years ago. This was her eighth year teaching first grade at Willow Creek Elementary. She described her style of teaching writing at the beginning of the study as "outside the box". She believed that writing "covers all the skills you need to know and it is easy to incorporate. It takes risk because it isn't a daily plan, it's not a worksheet, and it takes a lot of energy to teach writing. It's a lot of higher order thinking which you don't get with a lot of stuff. But I don't think writing has to be formal. It can be graphic organizers". She mentioned several times that all literacy skills could be taught through writing and that the emphasis should not be on handwriting. "I learned that writing is not handwriting. You can get so hung up in the handwriting part of it and they hate it and they shut off. Their mind can work faster than their hand and I don't want them to be discouraged from writing because of their handwriting." At the

beginning of the study, she had her students write in journals every morning with a prompt. She did not grade these journals, but expected students to use the word wall or picture dictionaries to aid in spelling. She told me that she also taught writing whole group approximately two or three times a week. She introduced the lesson and modeled it for the entire class and then she had her students verbally tell a friend what they were going to write. Next, the students would write individually. Usually these written products were in the form of graphic organizers or lists. She did not edit these products or grade them for skills she had taught. She had not incorporated science or social studies into writing in the past, but sometimes she had them write math word problems or respond to something they had read as a group.

Caroline Albert held a bachelor's degree in elementary education and early childhood education. After college graduation she taught preschool for two years, first grade for a year, language arts to third, fourth, and fifth graders for a year, and then special education at the elementary level for a year. This was her first year at Willow Creek Elementary. In her last first grade class she had her students write in a journal everyday. She would write sentences on the board that they needed to copy to mainly practice their handwriting. As the year went on she gave them writing prompts to finish. By the last two months of school she would have her students write a few sentences about a field trip or something special they had done together. When students struggled with spelling she would direct them to the word wall, write the words on the board, or encouraging them to sound out at least the beginning sound. She did not grade their writing for spelling, punctuation, or grammar. She integrated writing with her science lessons once or twice a month. When the study began she was having her students write

in their journals every morning with prompts and was not explicitly teaching writing skills.

The six focus students (see Figure 3.1) were selected based on the following criteria. They were recommended by their classroom teacher, they were willing to discuss their writing with me, and they were representative of the range of writing development in the classroom as assessed through writing samples and classroom observation. From each classroom a male and female struggling writer, a male and female average writer, and a male and female above average writer were chosen to as focal students. I received parent consent and student assent from all six participants.

Joanna was a struggling writer in Caroline's class. At the beginning of the study she was six years four months old. She lived with both parents and was absent ten days in kindergarten. Joanna did not attend preschool before entering kindergarten. She was receiving free and reduced lunch services at the time of this study. By the end of the study Joanna had been absent two days in first grade.

Ryan was a struggling writer in Caroline's class. At the beginning of the study he was six years four months old. He lived with father and was absent 11 days in kindergarten. He had tubes inserted in his ears at age two and failed his hearing test in February of his kindergarten school year. He had not attended preschool before entering kindergarten. By the end of the study Ryan had not missed any days of school in first grade.

Holly was an average writer in Caroline's class. At the beginning of the study she was six years four months old and lived with both of her parents. She attended preschool

before entering kindergarten and was absent three days during her kindergarten school year. By the end of the study Holly had missed one day of school in first grade.

Paul was an average writer in Caroline's class. At the beginning of the study he was six years nine months old and lived with both of his parents. He was diagnosed with Autism and sensory integration disorder and received CDC services before entering kindergarten. He was absent three days in kindergarten and did not receive services during the school day for Autism. By the end of the study Paul had missed two days of school in first grade.

Kate was an above average writer in Caroline's class. At the beginning of the study she was six years and six months old and lived with her mother. She attended preschool before entering kindergarten and was absent three days during her kindergarten school year. By the end of the study Kate had not missed any days of school in first grade.

Jake was an above average writer in Caroline's class. At the beginning of the study he was six years ten months old and lived with both of his parents. He attended preschool before entering kindergarten. He was absent six days in kindergarten and had a slight hearing problem due to wax build-up. By the end of the study Jake had missed five days of school in first grade.

Suzy was a struggling writer in Andie's class. At the beginning of the study she was six years and three months old. She lived with both parents and attended preschool before entering kindergarten. During her kindergarten year, she missed five days of school and failed her hearing screening in February of her kindergarten school year. By the end of the study she had missed one day of first grade.

Nathan was a struggling writer in Andie's class. At the beginning of the study he was six years and 11 months old. He lived with both of his parents and attended preschool before entering kindergarten. He was absent ten days during his kindergarten school year. By the end of the study Nathan had missed two days of school in first grade.

Lindsey was an average writer in Andie's class. At the beginning of the study she was six years and seven months old. She lived with both parents and had missed eight days of kindergarten the previous school year. She had attended preschool before entering kindergarten. By the end of the study Lindsey had missed three days of school in first grade.

Garrett was an average writer in Andie's class. At the beginning of the study he was six years and seven months old and he lived with both of his parents. He attended preschool before entering kindergarten and had not been absent during his kindergarten school year. By the end of the study Garrett had missed one day of school in first grade.

Elizabeth was an above average writer in Andie's class. At the beginning of the study she was six years and three months old. She lived with both parents and had attended preschool before entering kindergarten. She was absent one day in kindergarten. By the end of the study Elizabeth had not missed any days of school in first grade.

Max was an above average writer in Andie's class. At the beginning of the study he was six years and 11 months old. He lived with both of his parents and attended preschool before entering kindergarten. He missed seven days of school during his kindergarten year. By the end of the study Max had missed one day of school in first grade.

Data Collection Procedures

The purpose of this investigation was to examine how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learned strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. I visited both classrooms three to four times a week for the duration of the writing lessons for twelve consecutive weeks. In the first week, I focused on observing how the teachers taught writing and allowed the students and teachers to become acclimated to me. The second week, I conducted initial assessments on the students to gather baseline data (see Appendix F). I individually tested them on a reading passage for fluency and the reading of leveled text for decoding skills. In a whole group setting, I gave them a spelling assessment and took a writing sample. I also interviewed each student individually on how they write (see Appendix D).

At the end of the second week I provided professional development training on interactive writing after school for one hour (see Appendix E). I invited the kindergarten through second grade staff to attend the professional development session through email. Andie, Caroline, and seven other teachers attended. I discussed the findings from the review of the literature on beginning writing and how those concepts could be taught through the context of interactive writing. Next, I showed two videos of teachers conducting interactive lessons and asked the professional development participants to write down which aspects of interactive writing and the research on beginning writing that they observed on the videos. After watching the videos we discussed what we thought the teachers had done well and where they could improve their teaching. The participants were engaged and had numerous suggestions on how the instruction could be

modified. I later discussed with Andie and Caroline that we should try some of the suggestions in their classrooms over the next few weeks. I concluded the session with a discussion of the importance of language in the classroom and encouraged the teachers to incorporate more student uptake in their lessons.

I followed up the one hour professional development training by modeling the interactive writing strategies during each teacher's classroom writing block the following week. By the fourth week, I observed Caroline and Andie teaching the interactive writing lessons and we began meeting after school once a week to plan and reflect on the writing lessons. These observations of writing lessons and assistance in lesson planning continued for eight weeks while we will continually reworked the intervention. Once the intervention was complete and data collection became redundant, I gradually removed myself from the classroom. Lincoln and Guba recommend to obtain informational redundancy, "Repeat until redundancy—and then just one more time for safety" (1985, p. 219). I reassessed the students using the same materials and also re-interviewed the teachers using a different interview protocol (see Appendix D) at the end of the study.

My research also focused on six students in each classroom to study more thoroughly. These students were chosen, with the input of their teachers and my observations, to represent above average writers, average writers, and below average writers in each classroom. Throughout the writing process, I asked these students to explain their decision-making process based on content and writing mechanics through verbal protocols. These verbal protocols supported or challenged the assumptions I was making from the observations of their progress.

Observations

I observed writing lessons in Andie's and Caroline's classroom three to four times a week for a total of 12 weeks (see Table 3.1, Figure 3.2). These observations spanned from August to November of 2008. From week one until week six I observed in Caroline's room from approximately 8:15 until 8:45 each morning and I observed in Andie's room from approximately 8:45 until 9:15 each morning. At our planning meeting on week six we discussed how they were having trouble fitting in all the other literacy lessons each morning and suggested that we move the writing block to the afternoon. They had reservations about moving the writing block because they felt that the students might exhibit more off-task behavior during the afternoon. Although there were concerns, we decided to move the writing block time. From week seven until the end of the study I observed Caroline's class from approximately 11:00 until 11:30 and Andie's class from approximately 11:30 until 12:00. These times were directly after the students' lunch period. Throughout the entire study I observed in Andie's classroom a total of 25 times for 518 minutes. I observed Caroline's class a total of 31 times for a total of 586 minutes.

During my observations I looked for how Andie and Caroline integrated the tenets of early writing and interactive writing in their lessons. I also focused on the language that the teachers and students used during the lessons. During the purpose setting and interactive writing lessons I was a participant observer. I only spoke if the teacher asked me a question or if I felt they were missing a key teaching opportunity. I was able to take field notes on these days and I later typed them into my Microsoft Word document along side the transcripts. On the paired writing and individual writing days, I was an active

participant and was unable to keep field notes during the lessons. I wrote down my field notes as soon as I left the school on those days. I assisted the students on how to use scaffolds in the room such as the word wall and trade books for spelling assistance. I also encouraged them to reread their writing to look for mistakes and decide what to write next. As I circulated, the teachers overheard what I was saying to the students and began to mimic my language. In that way, I was modeling conferencing for the teachers throughout the study. I audio taped the language and later transcribed the language verbatim.

All observations were written in the form of field notes and the language of the teacher and students were audio taped and then transcribed. All of the data was typed and filed by date. Observations were broad at first and then more focused as insights occurred based on new information. In the field notes, I recorded what was occurring in the classroom as well as noted my developing insights and questions. I presented the teachers with these insights and questions during our weekly planning meetings. "Interviews are of an open-ended nature, in which you can ask key respondents for the facts of a matter as well as for the respondents' opinions about events" (Yin, 1994, p. 84).

Interviews

Interviews were conducted during this study with the two participating teachers and the students in each of their classrooms. Weekly planning and reflecting meetings also took place each week with Andie, Caroline, and me.

Teacher Interviews

I interviewed Andie and Caroline on August 14th formally before the study began to gain an understanding of their beliefs about writing in first grade (see Appendix D).

These interviews were audio taped and later transcribed. I followed up with an interview at the end of the study during week 12 to see if their beliefs and perceptions had changed. I asked different questions during both interviews and these interviews occurred at a time when no children were present. The initial interviews lasted 15 minutes for Andie and 10 minutes for Caroline. I asked both teachers to describe their educational background, describe their teaching background, describe any reading/writing professional development they had attended over the last two years and whether any of them were influential in their writing instruction, and to describe how they currently teach writing.

The final interviews lasted 25 minutes for Andie and 14 minutes for Caroline. I asked both teachers what they felt they had gained from this study, what were the challenges of this study, what were the successes of this study, what did they think they and their students had learned from this study, what parts of interactive writing did they think they would continue using in their classroom after I left, and if I was to conduct this study again what changes would they recommend.

Student Interviews

I interviewed the students at the beginning of the study during week two and at the end of the study during week 12. These interviews were audio taped and later transcribed. These interviews took place while I was giving the other individual assessments in the hallway. I wanted to better understand what they thought about the writing process and what their experiences had been. I asked them the same questions at the end of the study from the interview protocol that was used at the beginning of the study. Each student sat in the hallway with me individually to answer the questions. I wrote down their answers verbatim and later typed their answers into my field notes. I

asked each student what they did before they started writing, what they did while they were writing, and what they did after they wrote.

Planning/Reflecting Meetings

Caroline, Andie, and I started meeting weekly to reflect and plan on week four. These meetings usually occurred Thursdays after school in either Andie's or Caroline's classroom. These meetings always occurred when students were not present. During week five we met in Caroline's room during their scheduled special area time (1:45-2:15) because they had a conflict after school. On week nine, we met on the playground during their recess time with the four other first grade teachers listening, because of an after school conflict. During weeks 10 and 11, I asked to meet with them individually after school. All of these planning/reflecting meetings lasted from between 14 and 54 minutes.

During these meetings I was an active participant and we discussed how things were unfolding and what changes they would like to make to the intervention. We built a strong rapport and everyone seemed comfortable discussing the process. We also planned lessons together until week six. I took a leadership role in these meetings by suggesting how interactive lessons should unfold. Although they had attended the interactive writing in-service and watched the videos of the other teachers teaching through interactive writing, they were not yet comfortable with the format and how to plan a lesson. I consulted the basal reading series to plan the first lesson because I thought that would make it easier for Andie and Caroline to integrate writing into the reading lessons they already had planned.

After week six, we discussed in general what they would be teaching the following week, but I allowed them more flexibility in planning. Andie, Caroline, and I

began planning different lessons together until week 11. They did not want to discuss their plans in detail with me by week six. They said they wanted to get away from relying on the basal and teaching the skill of the week. Throughout the rest of the study they still did not want to use the basal, but sometimes did want to integrate the skill of the week.

I audio taped these sessions and later transcribed the dialogue. Usually I would bring a transcript from either whole group interactive writing, partner writing, or individual writing to get the conversation started. Andie and Caroline mentioned that they enjoyed reading the transcripts and found the partner writing humorous at times. They discussed what they were doing in their own classrooms and later I would see the other teacher using those ideas in her own lesson. We also discussed obstacles they were encountering and how we could change the instructional environment to overcome them.

Informal interviews with the teachers were spontaneous and nondirective and allowed me to corroborate facts and include participant insight into the data. Through these interviews, I gained insight into their thoughts and perceptions of how the lessons seemed to be going. "Interviews are not neutral tools of data gathering but active interactions between two (or more) people leading to negotiated, contextually based results" (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 646).

Student Assessments

Student assessments were administered at the beginning and the end of the study. Assessment occurred at the beginning of the study over the first week in September and assessment occurred at the end of the study during week 12 for three days in late November and two days during the first week in December. Assessments included the

student interviews previously described, a writing sample, a spelling assessment, a fluency assessment, and a reading assessment.

The spelling assessment administered was the primary spelling inventory from *Words Their Way: Word Study for Phonics, Vocabulary, and Spelling Instruction* (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2008). During the initial assessment all the students were tested on words 1 through 5 in a whole group setting. Those students that correctly identified at least 17 out of 20 phonemes were then tested in a small group on words six through ten. For the final assessment all the students were tested on words 1 through 20 in a large group setting. After the assessments were scored, I used the spelling inventory feature guide (Bear et al., 2008) to place each student into their stage of spelling development. The stages progress from emergent, to letter name—alphabetic, to within word pattern, and finally to the syllables and affixes stage.

The fluency assessment was also administered at the beginning and the end of the study. The county already was conducting fluency measures with AIMSweb**,** so that was the instrument I used as well. I typed the first grade passage into Microsoft Word and determined that the Flesch-Kincaid Readability level was 0.8. I tested each child individually in the hallway. I recorded the number of words read correctly and the number of errors made while reading a passage for one minute. The same passage was used for both the initial assessment and the final assessment.

I assessed the reading level of each student by taking running records while each child read aloud to me individually in the hallway. I recorded the mistakes each child made and calculated the reading instructional level that suited each child. After reading the texts, I also asked each child to summarize what they had just read.

A writing sample was taken at the beginning of the study as well as at the end of the study. The samples taken during week 3 and during week 11 were the countywide writing assessments. For the initial writing assessment, the students were given the following prompt to write about: "Think of something you like to eat. When do you eat it?" For the final writing assessment, the students were given the following prompt to write about: "Think of a story of a funny animal. It could be a dog, cat, or even a dragon. What would the animal look like? What could the animal do? What problem could the animal have? How could he solve it? Now write a story about a problem that an animal could have and tell how the animal solved the problem." Students were given as much time as they needed to complete the writing assessment. All students finished within 30 minutes. I assessed the writing based on a 24 point rubric. (Appendix D) Since the second writing prompt asked for more information than the first, it did not seem appropriate to use these writing assessments as the only measure of writing growth. Therefore, I also scored all of the partner writing, independent writing, and a sample of the journal writing on measures of fluency and complexity to gauge achievement gains (see Tables 4.17-4.27, 4.36-4.46).

Artifacts

Artifacts collected during this study included weekly teacher reflection logs, all student writing, all class constructed interactive writing texts, and photographs.

Teacher Reflection Logs

I asked Andie and Caroline to reflect on their lessons each day and write down what they were thinking. They typed their thoughts into a Microsoft Word document and emailed me their weekly reflections each Thursday (see Appendix G). Usually I printed

off these reflections as a starting point of our discussions during the weekly planning and reflecting meetings. Caroline sent her reflections eight out of eight weeks. Andie sent me her reflections five out of eight weeks. She missed weeks four, eight, and nine. She was sick all of week eight and she told me that she had forgotten to do them the other two weeks. Generally, in these logs the teachers discussed what they thought had gone well during the lessons and what areas needed improvement. The teachers also posed questions for me and I attempted to answer these questions during our planning and reflecting meetings.

Student Writing Samples

All student writing that occurred while I was in the classroom was photocopied and filed by date. I copied the text with conventional spelling under the student text. I photocopied 70 samples of partner writing, 120 samples of individual writing, and 72 copies of journal writing from Caroline's class. I photocopied 54 samples of partner writing, 90 samples of individual writing, and 68 samples of journal writing from Andie's class. I also collected a representative sample of each student's journal writing that occurred during the intervention.

Interactive Writing

I collected all of the interactive writing texts constructed during the study. The teachers would leave the texts on display while the students were partner writing and writing individually as a scaffold. At the end of each week I would take the interactive writing texts and file them by date. I collected seven interactive writing texts from Caroline's classroom and six interactive writing texts from Andie's classroom.

Photographs

Photographs were taken of classroom scaffolds and interactive writing texts that could not be copied or taken from the classroom. On week seven each class wrote about how bats and birds were different and how they were the same. Caroline used a large pocket chart in the shape of a Venn diagram. The students placed their writing in the appropriate place on the pocket chart. That same week, Andie drew a chart on her dry erase board and had the students write facts about bats and birds on post-it notes. On week 11 for the interactive writing lesson, Andie had her students write Indian names for their headdresses on the dry erase board and I took a photograph. Photographs were also taken of classroom scaffolds such as the word wall and CARE wall to illustrate the types of scaffolds the students were employing in their writing.

Summary of Data Collection

Data collected included observations and transcripts of all the purpose setting lessons, interactive writing lessons, partner writing lessons, and individual writing lessons. Another source of data came from teacher interviews, student interviews, and planning/reflecting meetings. Student assessments were collected as another form of data and artifacts in the form of teacher reflection logs, student writing samples, interactive writing texts, and photographs were collected.

I also kept a research notebook for myself, in order to record changes in methods and techniques as well as my thoughts on initial themes that seemed to be forming. By employing multiple sources of data collection, triangulation occurred and added to the validity of my study. Each of my research questions was supported by multiple data sources.

Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis began before the data collection phase had ended. "If data collection and processing go on more or less simultaneously, later data collection efforts can be directed more specifically at fleshing out categories, filling in gaps in the larger taxonomy or category set, clearing up anomalies or conflicts, and extending the range of information that can be accommodated" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 343). Yin's concept of literal replication, in which cases are selected for their similarity, was employed to guarantee that each case's conclusions were "considered to be the information needing replication by other individual cases" (Yin, 1994, p. 49).

Data analysis was based on Wells' (1999) progressive discourse analysis. Progressive discourse refers to the process of building knowledge through conversation. Dialogue is a tool used to gain new knowledge and modify existing knowledge. During progressive discourse, the speaker and the listener are active participants in the process of uptake (Cazden, 1998). According to Wells (1999):

> In order to contribute in a 'progressive' manner to the ongoing dialogue, one has to interpret the preceding contribution in terms of the information it introduces as well as of the speaker's stance to that information, compare that with one's current understanding of the issue under discussion, and then formulate a contribution that will, in some relevant way, add to the common understanding achieved in the discourse so far, by extending, questioning, or qualifying what has already been said. (pp. 107-108)

Therefore, the listener, or learner, is formulating a response to what the speaker is saying. This response can be in the form of a question or a comment. Through this process of

give and take, both the speaker and the listener progress toward knowledge building. "It is through participation in the activity of knowledge building, as they work together to produce and respond to verbal (and other semiotic) utterances—constructing 'what is known' in 'what is said'—that students appropriate the genres of discourse and the modes of knowing that they mediate, and simultaneously transform their individual and collective understanding" (Wells, 1999, p. 111). Conversation is a form of thinking that expands one's understanding of the learning environment. Through discourse, knowledge building occurs for the participants.

For progressive discourse to occur Bereiter (1994) proposes four commitments that participants must hold. The mutual understanding commitment states that that all the participants are willing to come to a mutually constructed understanding through discourse. This does not presuppose compromise, but rather the willingness and openness of progressive knowledge building. The next commitment is the empirical testability commitment. This commitment states that questions will be posed through discourse in a manner in which evidence can be collected to answer the questions. Questions that cannot be answered will not advance the participant's knowledge. The third commitment is the expansion commitment. This refers to the participant's willingness to advance the current understandings in the field. The final commitment is the openness commitment. This refers to the participant's willingness to allow their beliefs to be open to criticism. The participants in this study were committed to the four tenants of progressive discourse as defined by Bereiter (1994), although they did find the process arduous at times.

Data in the form of interviews, observations, and artifacts were analyzed and coded. Throughout data collection, I transcribed all of the interviews, observations, audio taped dialogue, and written text. Once data collection was completed, I read through the transcripts several times and noted emerging categories and themes. Then, I began coding the transcripts. Each turn of the conversation was coded as a separate bounded unit and some turns were coded multiple ways. If the teacher or student participated in more than one type of discourse move during one spoken turn then it was coded multiple times.

First, I coded the transcripts according to the skills and strategies being discussed or employed by the teachers, the students, or myself. The designation of these codes was based on the first grade curriculum already being followed by the participating teachers (see Figure 3.3). I assigned the categories according to the learning goals listed in the first grade curriculum.

Next, I coded the transcripts for the type of discourse being used. These codes were constructed based on Wells' *Dialogic Inquiry*(1999). I used some of his codes directly and adapted others for the type of talk that was occurring in these classrooms (see Figure 3.4). I used the coding for request information, request opinion, give information, give suggestion, give opinion, give justification, give confirmation, extend previous contribution, accept previous contribution, reject previous contribution, evaluate previous contribution, and reformulate previous contribution directly. I adapted repeat own previous contribution to also include repeat others' previous contributions. I also coded requesting information as authentic or to gauge understanding of another participant.

Finally, I coded the transcripts based on teacher learning. I read through the transcripts and noted all the incidences of teacher learning that occurred. I organized these interactions by the type of learning that occurred and the way the teachers reflected on this learning. The types of learning that occurred were the use of partner writing, the use of questioning during interactive writing lessons, the use of content lists and other scaffolds to support spelling, the use of dry erase boards to have every engaged and participating, and the use of student responses to plan. The ways of reflecting were reflecting on their own instructional methods in their logs, reflecting on their instructional methods by discussing the other participating teacher's instructional methods, and through analysis of transcripts and student writing samples. The codes for teacher learning were developed by me based on the ways in which teacher learning was occurring.

Data analysis was guided by Yin's description of explanation-building. The explanation-building process was iterative, continually revising the propositions and comparing the findings to new themes. Throughout the process rival explanations and negative cases were explored as well. The analysis was comprised of forming and reforming categories that were descriptive or explanatory. Throughout the analysis phase, I analyzed the categories when problems arose and reformulated the categories. Some categories were merged while others were disaggregated. As new data was added, existing categories were refined or new categories were added. Through inductive analysis themes were constructed. "Data are, so to speak, the *constructions* offered by or in the sources; data analysis leads to a *reconstruction* of those constructions" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 332).

Methods for Verification

The following criteria for interpreting the findings were considered in order ensure accurate conclusions. Construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability were utilized.

Construct validity was addressed through participant review of the case study report, triangulation of data, and my ability to establish a convincing chain of evidence to support the findings. In early February I met with Andie and Caroline individually to discuss my research findings and make sure there was not any disparity between my perceptions of what occurred while I was observing the classrooms and their perceptions. Both Andie and Caroline agreed with my findings. Triangulation of the data occurred through collecting several types of evidence, including teacher logs, which each supported my findings. My researcher notebook served as a chronicle of the data analysis process and documents how I arrived at my findings (see Appendix E).

Internal validity was supported by prolonged engagement to understand the context in which the phenomenon was being studied, persistent observation to increase the depth of understanding, triangulation, and peer debriefing. (Lincoln & Guba, p. 328) According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) there are three purposes of peer debriefing. "The inquirer's biases are probed, meanings explored, the basis for interpretations clarified. The debriefing provides an initial and searching opportunity to test working hypotheses that may be emerging in the inquirer's mind. The debriefing provides the opportunity to develop and initially test next steps in the emerging methodological design" (p. 308). External validity was developed by conducting multiple case studies and developing a thick description of what was taking place in each classroom.

Reliability was ensured by keeping a researchers notebook (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to develop a chain of evidence. Therefore, by considering these criteria the findings of this study can be considered robust.

Summary of Chapter

The purpose of this multiple case study was to examine how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learned strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. The data sources collected included artifacts, observations, transcripts, interviews, and researcher field notes. I analyzed the data based on Yin's (1994) description of explanation-building and Wells' (1999) progressive discourse analysis.

In chapter three, I described the rationale for the research methodology, the role of the researcher, the population and setting, the data collection procedures, the data analysis procedures, and the methods of verification. In chapter four, I will discuss the findings from the data analysis. In chapter five, I will report on the implications of those findings for professional developers and teachers. Findings, implications for future research, and significance will be examined in each individual case as well as across cases. The results generated from this study will provide additional insight into how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. The quality of this case study will be strengthened by integrating my own prior knowledge about these issues into the case study, showing that the analysis

included all the relevant evidence, and that rival interpretations were addressed (Yin, 1994).

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Chapter Introduction

The purpose of this design study was to examine how two teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learned strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. The research questions addressed in this study were:

1. In what ways do teachers reflect on student responses, both oral and written, to revise their instructional methods in the context of interactive writing?
2. In what ways do students evidence appropriation of teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing?

    Subquestion: Do students with different ability levels take up this knowledge in different ways?

In this study, discourse was viewed a vehicle for change. Both the teachers and the students changed and learned through this interactive writing intervention based on the dialogue that occurred within each classroom.

Recall that according to McCarrier et al. (2000) there are eight steps to the interactive writing process:

1. Provide a base of active learning experiences.
2. Talk to establish purpose.
3. Compose the text.
4. Construct the text.

5. Reread, revise, and proofread the text.
6. Revisit the text to support word solving.
7. Summarize the learning.
8. Extend the learning. (p.73)

These steps usually occur in a recursive manner, rather than a lockstep format. Depending on the particular needs of the students, interactive writing will appear differently in diverse settings. Discussion is an important vehicle for learning during interactive writing lessons. Through discussion of purpose setting, composition, and other writing conventions, students take up new knowledge in different ways and may internalize the language of their teacher. Students may also apply this new knowledge to their own written texts.

The talk that occurred in both classrooms can be characterized into discourse moves described by Wells (1999). Obviously many different types of discourse moves were employed by the teachers and the students, but I will focus on describing how both the teachers and the students used the four most common moves. These moves, in order of most frequently used to less frequently used by both the teachers and the students, were requesting information, giving information, repetition, and reformulation and expansion (see Table 4.1).

Requesting information refers to the act of asking authentic questions or questions that gauge the learning of another participant. Authentic questions are questions in which the speaker does not already know the answer to such as the teacher asking, how did you feel when the main character got lost? Questions used to gauge the learning of another participant refer to inquiries that the asker already knows the answer such as the teacher

asking how do you spell potatoes? Giving information refers to answering questions, offering information, or offering suggestions. Requesting information and giving information are the discourse moves typically found in most classrooms. These moves put the teacher into a position of lecturer and the student into the role of listener.

During interactive writing lessons, the typical roles of teacher and students, and therefore their use of dialogic moves, should change. The interactive nature of this intervention calls for more authentic conversation. Some dialogic moves that are conducive to this type of conversation are repetition, reformulation, and expansion. Repetition refers to repeating what was previously stated by either the speaker or someone else. Reformulation and expansion are connected and were considered together. Reformulation refers to the act of changing the text and reworking the syntax of the sentence throughout the writing process. Expansion refers to adding more information, and therefore words, to the written text. The presence of these discourse moves during interactive writing lessons was not a surprise seeing as these moves relate to the tenants and objectives of interactive writing.

Through these patterns of discourse, teachers also modeled different writing strategies to illustrate to the students how written language works. These strategies included composition, spelling, and grammar. Composition refers to the process of deciding what to write about. Through conversation, ideas were given, reformulated and expanded and decided upon. Spelling refers to the discussion of explicit spelling skills, strategies, and scaffolds to support the students during the writing process. Grammar refers to the explicit discussion of punctuation, capitalization, and parts of speech to help the audience read and understand the text. The students in this study took up the

discussion of these strategies that the teachers had modeled in their own talk in different ways. In that way, student learning was mediated through social interactions and conversations surrounding written texts.

Formative Experiment

Throughout the study, I reevaluated the intervention and made modifications when needed to meet the pedagogical goals of the study. I considered how the instructional environment had changed as a result of the intervention and what unintended positive or negative effects had occurred. Many modifications to instruction and changes in the instructional environment occurred, but I will only report on those that directly affected the pedagogical goals of this study (Reinking and Bradley, 2004).

The interactive writing intervention led to physical changes in both of the classroom environments. This factor seemed to enhance the effectiveness of achieving the goals of the study in Caroline's classroom, but detracted from the effectiveness of achieving these goals in Andie's classroom. The arrangement of having students gather around the interactive writing chart paper was novel in both classrooms. Having students come up and write words one at a time during the interactive writing lesson was new to both the teachers and the students. Caroline embraced this format and strived to find ways to engage all of her students. She was genuinely excited about the format and her excitement was motivational for her students. In contrast, Andie felt that this format was ineffectual and that it could not fit into her existing instructional methods. She struggled with how to keep her students engaged while they were sitting on the carpet. She resisted this physical format and her distain for it was noticed by her students. Her lack of

enthusiasm rubbed off onto her students and motivation to write was lacking on their part.

Another factor that influenced the effectiveness of achieving the goals of this study was the amount of time spent teaching writing in each of the classrooms (see Table 3.1). Andie spent a total of 518 minutes teaching writing and Caroline spent a total of 586 minutes teaching writing throughout the study. Since I observed writing most days, the teachers and students began to expect writing instruction as part of their daily routine. Both Caroline and Andie mentioned to me that they definitely would not have taught writing as often if I had not been present, although both teachers also reported spending time on interactive writing activities during the study while I was not there. Caroline, for example, integrated interactive writing into a social studies lesson by having her students write pen pal letters to first graders in another state. She was able to transfer what she had learned from me into another subject area besides literacy. Andie also used interactive writing with her students while I was not present. She used the same interactive writing lesson she taught on math word problems while I was present to her class during math instruction while I was not present. Her ability to transfer what she was learning was not as robust as Caroline's ability. Andie just re-taught the same lesson she had instructed with my support. On the other hand, Caroline was able to integrate her knowledge of interactive writing into an entirely new pedagogical goal.

Another unintended effect of the intervention was the creation of a risk-free and positive learning environment for Caroline's students. At the beginning of the study, Caroline graded her students' writing journals. She would make corrections in their journals with a pen. She reflected later in the study that she was going to discontinue the

practice of grading the journals because it seemed to make her students uncomfortable and unwilling to take risks. Her students were receiving the message that they should not be making spelling and grammar mistakes in their daily journals. As the study progressed, the students in Caroline's classroom learned that it was acceptable to make mistakes and they became more willing to take risks. This was not an issue in Andie's classroom, since she did not put an emphasis on spelling and grammar during writing. Her students were encouraged from the beginning to take risks.

In both Caroline's and Andie's classroom, the more reserved students also began taking writing risks. These students generally kept to themselves and were unwilling to offer information or suggestions during reading or writing lessons. These reserved students first took risks by volunteering to write during partner writing and then they volunteered to write on the chart paper during whole group interactive writing. They experienced success with their partners and then were willing to risk success in a whole group setting where the stakes were higher. Because of the safe and supportive environment, they were willing to act in ways they had not previously behaved.

Another unintended consequence of this study was related to self efficacy and motivation. During the partner writing lessons the teachers attempted to pair up students with similar writing achievement levels. Obviously, all children are different and two students whom are labeled as average writers will vary somewhat in their abilities. In each partner group there was generally a stronger writer and a weaker writer. In some instances the stronger writer had never been placed in that role before. For example, in the below average groups, the stronger writer took on the role of modeling writing strategies and dialogue that had been introduced during the whole group interactive

writing lessons by their teacher. The stronger writer became the teacher to the struggling partner. The assessment data illustrates that these group leaders tended to make more academic progress than their partners. Therefore, it is important that all children be given the opportunity to take on the teacher role in group settings. By having the stronger writer teach a partner through repetition of the dialogue presented by the classroom teacher, the strategies were practiced again by the speaker and the listener. One student repeated the dialogue the teacher used and the other student was given the opportunity to hear the learning strategy again. In that way, both students were given another chance to internalize the strategies presented by the classroom teacher.

A final unintended consequence of this study was although I assumed that interactive writing would be most beneficial for the struggling writers, the average and above average students in both Andie's and Caroline's classrooms were also engaged and made academic progress. Due to the safe learning environment, students at all achievement levels were willing to take risks and therefore made progress in regard to writing.

Teacher Learning

The participating teachers in this study learned how to integrate interactive writing into their teaching repertoires to varying degrees. This learning was evidenced through the development of dialogic moves used by each teacher throughout the study. As the study progressed, both Caroline and Andie took up the dialogic moves that seemed consistent with interactive writing instruction. The moves each teacher

participated in included requesting information, giving information, repeating information, and reformulation and expansion of information.

This study also examined in what ways teachers reflected on student responses, both oral and written, to revise their instructional methods in the context of interactive writing. Analysis of the data showed that the teachers reflected through three distinct vehicles. These vehicles for reflecting included reflecting on instructional methods on their own in their logs, reflecting on their instructional methods through discussion of the other participating teacher's instructional methods, and reflecting on transcripts and student written text. Caroline and Andie reflected in different ways and talked about different topics during our planning and reflecting meetings which led to different learning outcomes for the teachers, and therefore, their students.

The instructional methods that the teachers reflected on and planned included the teaching of explicit skills and strategies, ways to increase student engagement, and teacher engagement (see Tables 4.6, 4.8). The explicit skills and strategies discussed included composition, spelling, and grammar. Ways to increase student engagement included the use of partner writing, the use of questioning during interactive writing lessons, the use of dry erase boards to have every student participating, the importance of purpose setting, and other ways to adjust instruction. Discussions of teacher engagement focused on comfort with the format, the need to plan for a goal for each lesson, the length of the instruction, and the desire to teach reading instead of writing. I will present the findings concerning teacher learning for each teacher separately and then I will discuss trends among the teachers.

Intervention Adaptations

Based on formative experiment, during our planning/reflecting meetings I was an active participant. As the study progressed the amount of support I offered for Caroline's and Andie's learning shifted based on their individual needs and struggles. This support was provided in the form of offering topics for discussion and my use of transcripts and student writing samples to ground the teachers' understandings of student learning. During our meetings, I would bring student written texts or transcripts from either whole group interactive writing, partner writing, or individual writing to get the conversation started. We would reflect on what the students were saying and writing. I would also point out areas where the students were struggling and further instruction was needed. We also discussed obstacles the teachers were encountering and how we could change the instructional environment to overcome them. Finally, during these meetings, we would use the information gathered from reflecting on transcripts, student writing, and my observations to plan instruction for the following week.

Throughout the intervention Andie struggled with revising her instructional methods. Because of this, during our discussions at our planning/reflecting meetings I changed my approach with Andie to try to facilitate change in her instructional methods. I was an active listener to her concerns and struggles with the interactive writing intervention. When I realized that she was struggling, I regrouped and reflected on what I could do to better support her learning. I introduced reflection based on transcripts of student dialogue and student written texts. I also realized that both Andie and Caroline needed more explicit instruction on how to make instructional decisions based on

individual student needs. Because of this, I spent a considerable amount of time showing both teachers how to base instructional decisions on student errors and confusions.

Unfortunately, I believe I did too much modeling of the instructional decision making process and did not allow enough opportunities for Caroline and Andie to reflect on this process on their own. Perhaps if given more opportunity and autonomy they could have internalized the process. During the last two weeks I also began meeting with each teacher individually to plan and reflect. Since Caroline and Andie were at such differing places in their learning, I felt that our time would be better served meeting individually and focusing on the particular needs of each teacher. I continued to explain to Andie the goals of interactive writing and how reading and writing bear a reciprocal relationship. For Caroline, I elaborated the process, moving beyond the basics, and demonstrated how to integrate vocabulary instruction for her above average writers.

Teacher Learning for Caroline

By describing an interactive lesson taught by Caroline at the beginning of the study and describing a lesson taught at the end of the study, I will illustrate how Caroline embraced the underlying tenants of interactive writing, as well as how she learned to reflect on students responses, both oral and written, to revise her instructional methods during interactive writing lessons. Through discussion at our weekly planning/reflecting meetings and through journaling in her reflection log, Caroline was able to reflect on the instructional and engagement needs of her students and act on these by making changes in her instructional methods. These changes were not only seen in her instructional methods, but also through an increase in talk related to the explicit skills and strategies and modes of discourse moves most closely associated with interactive writing. Through

our discussions, Caroline was able to reconceptualize her current understandings and build new knowledge.

Teacher Knowledge Illustrated by a Beginning Lesson

On the week of September 22nd, Caroline, along with Andie, decided to integrate math into the interactive writing lesson of the week. Caroline spent Monday setting the purpose for writing that week by reading aloud *Froggy Bakes a Cake* and discussing the literacy elements of character, setting, plot, and main idea. On Tuesday, she had her students gather around her on the carpet while she led an interactive writing lesson. First, she led a discussion about the story she had read aloud the previous day. After she finished reviewing *Froggy Bakes a Cake*, the book she had read aloud to set a purpose for writing that week, Caroline explained to her students that they would be writing something about frogs. She had in mind that they would write an addition or subtraction word problem about frogs jumping off of a log, but she wanted the students to help her compose the number of frogs in the story, as well as, what happened to the frogs when they jumped off the log. In this way, she was ensuring that she would include the math skill her students were working on which was addition and subtraction, as well as, the reading skill they were working on that week which was short O.

Composition.

The dialogue during this lesson in Caroline's class could be described generally as the teacher requesting information followed by the students giving information. She requested information from her students 58% of the time and gave her students information 12% of the time (see Table 4.3). The information that Caroline requested from her students was generally to gauge their learning because she already knew the

answer to the questions she was asking, although through these requests for information she was modeling dialogue for her students to take up during partner writing.

This sequence of requesting information and giving information was not surprising since many researchers have described teachers' dialogue as IRE (Cazden, 1988; Nystrand, 1997). Caroline did not evaluate her students, but did ask them numerous questions, followed by her students answering the questions that they had been asked. Her questions mainly revolved around composition, but she also requested information about spelling, punctuation, and grammar. On 9/23, Caroline requested information from her students and her students gave information back to her (see Figure 4.1 for coding):

Caroline: Who can spell the number word three?

Student: T H R E E

Caroline: We are starting a new sentence so what do we have to do?

Student: Make it an uppercase letter.

Caroline: What's the next word going to be?

Student: Got.

Caroline: Three what?

Student: Frogs.

(Student writes frog)

Caroline: What's next?

Student: Got.

In this example, Caroline requests information in regard to spelling, capitalization, and composition. This example illustrates that Caroline gave information less frequently than

she requested information. Throughout the study during the whole group interactive writing lessons, Caroline requested information from her students between 48% and 82% of the time (see Table 4.3). On the other hand, she gave her students information between 9% and 31% of the time. Since interactive writing strives to move beginning writers to independent writers, it is important for teachers to spend time modeling the writing process through think-alouds. During this type of dialogue, the teacher is in total control of the conversation and although she may be modeling skills and strategies for her students, the students may not be as engaged since they have little to no control over the direction of the conversation. The teacher's patterns of discourse, including giving information, may be an important facet of students' strategy construction which leads to knowledge building. In addition, the teacher and her students may also gain new knowledge from conversation of authentic topics, which are based on authentic requests for information.

Caroline requested ideas from her students and they gave suggestions about what to write about. Students would either build off other student's suggestions or generate new ideas. Throughout the conversation, Caroline reformulated and expanded the students' ideas. During the whole group interactive writing lessons, reformulation and expansion always took place at the beginning of the lesson as the students and Caroline were trying to negotiate how the text would be constructed. Throughout the study, Caroline reformulated or expanded the ideas her students were generating between 3% and 9% of the time during an interactive writing lesson (see Table 4.3). During this particular lesson, she reformulated or expanded her students' ideas 7% of the time. Once the text was decided upon, there was no more reformulation or expansion moves by the

teacher or the students during whole group. The dialogic moves of reformulation and expansion used by Caroline were consistent with the goals of interactive writing. Many ideas were generated within a conversational context. Caroline acknowledged each student's idea and reformulated it or expanded it to develop a text that included every student's ideas, but was more complete than each student could have produced on their own. This type of conversation tends to be more engaging for the students, because their voices are heard and their ideas are validated.

During this lesson, Caroline allowed nine of her students to give ideas and then asked her students to vote whether they would like to write an addition or subtraction word problem. 15 students voted to write a subtraction word problem and 3 voted to write an addition word problem. Next, Caroline led the discussion of what would happen to the frogs. She repeated the ideas that the students had mentioned most frequently in the previous suggestions and again let her students vote. The students voted on whether the frog would swim away, hop away, or be eaten by a shark and the class decided that the frog would be eaten by a shark.

This composition phase of the interactive writing session took up one third of the length of the lesson. Throughout this composition stage of writing, Caroline led her students to create a sentence that was superior to what each child could have created on their own. She also modeled how the students could work together to combine their ideas into a more cohesive and detailed sentence. As Caroline led this discussion, her students sat patiently on the carpet. Except for when the students were responding to Caroline's questions, they were not actively engaged in the composition process.

Next, Caroline supported her students' construction of the written text. She requested information from her students such as what the next word would be, how to spell unknown words, and what type of punctuation should be used. Caroline repeated most of the comments given by the students during the composition and construction of the text. Besides requesting and giving information, the next most frequently used dialogic move by both Caroline and all of her students was the use of repetition (see Table 4.3). Repetition refers to a student repeating what was previously stated by themselves or someone else. Caroline used repetition quite frequently in her whole group lessons. During this lesson Caroline repeated the conversation 23% of the time which means that repetition moves were utilized only less frequently than requesting information in her dialogue. The following example illustrates Caroline's use of repetition on 9/23 (see Figure 4.2):

Caroline: Let's write there were ten frogs on a lily pad. Who can write there?

Student: T H E R

Caroline: What letter comes at the end sometimes?

Student: E

Caroline: There were ten frogs on a lily pad. Who can write were?

Student: W E R E

Caroline: There were ten. What did I say yesterday about numbers?

Student: We have to write the number word.

Caroline: Who can write ten?

Student: T E N

(Caroline covers up T E that went off the line)

Caroline: There were ten

Student: frogs

Caroline: The next two words are easy. What are they?

Student: On the

Caroline: Who wants to try lily pad?

Caroline: What comes at the end like Emily?

(Caroline helps Student sound out word)

(Student writes lily pad)

Caroline: There were ten frogs on a lily pad. Is that a sentence?

The dialogue in Caroline's classroom could be described as IRR (Initiate, respond, repeat) instead of IRE. During interactive writing lessons, she would typically ask questions and the students would respond with an answer. She rarely evaluated the response, but rather repeated the response and then requested more information. This repetition of student responses validated the ideas students were putting forth, a basic tenant of interactive writing. Almost every instance of repetition was in reference to the composition process. By repeating student responses she was recognizing the contribution of each student to the socially generated interactive writing text. Her use of repetition increased throughout the study and the length of text written increased as well. Perhaps this repetition played a role in supporting the construction of longer texts.

Explicit teaching of spelling skills and strategies.

As the text was constructed (see Figure 4.3) Caroline requested information on how to spell words 28% of the time (see Table 4.3). To some extent, she supported her students' ability to spell unknown words by providing scaffolds. She helped her students

sound out words once and also mentioned words that rhymed one time when she said, "Who wants to try lily pad? What comes at the end like Emily?" At this point in the study, although she mentioned spelling frequently, besides teaching her students to sound out words she did not have many strategies to offer them when they encountered unknown words. There was no discussion of parts of speech during this lesson, but Caroline did request information related to punctuation and capitalization four times.

Teacher Learning and Adaptations to the Interactive Writing Process

Throughout this study, Caroline and Andie met with me weekly after school to reflect on the writing lessons that week and plan for the following week (see Table 4.7). The participating teachers also sent me weekly reflection logs via email. Through our discussion during these meetings and her reflection log, Caroline demonstrated her ability to reflect on her own teaching. Not only would she reflect on her teaching, but she would also develop solutions to difficulties she saw her students encountering. Caroline reflected on how to teach explicit skills and strategies. She also reflected on ways to increase student engagement which included the use of partner writing, the use of questioning during interactive writing lessons, the use of dry erase boards to have every student participating, the importance of purpose setting, and other ways to adjust planning. Student engagement was defined as successful student participation during the writing lessons. Through our discussions, Caroline learned new instructional methods that were better suited to instruct and engage her students.

Reflection on student engagement.

During our planning sessions, both Caroline and Andie expressed concerns about how to keep all of their students engaged during the interactive writing lessons. They

were concerned that the students sitting on the floor observing one student write were exhibiting off-task behaviors. During our planning meeting on 10/2 I recalled how both Andie and Caroline began asking the students sitting on the floor questions about the interactive writing text being composed while the one student was writing:

> *Jennifer: One thing that I saw both of you doing this week that I thought was a great idea was that we had talked about with the large group, with a lot of them not being engaged, you both did a good job of asking the other kids questions while they were waiting. I thought that was a really good idea, just to kind of keep them on track. I mean it was still connected, but—*
>
> *Caroline: I think I kind of did that subconsciously.*
>
> *Andie: I don't think I remembered that either.*
>
> *Jennifer: I think you just realized, oh what can I do with these kids? I can ask them some questions.*
>
> *Andie: Um-hmm*
>
> *Jennifer: I don't even remember what you asked, but maybe just "how do you spell this", or—*

Although both Andie and Caroline stated that they added discussion of the text subconsciously and did not even realize they were doing it, they were reflecting on their teaching and developing solutions to the problem of engagement that they had encountered. It was not suggested by me. Therefore, both Caroline and Andie were making instructional decisions on their own based on the needs of their students. The questions that Caroline asked of her students were about what word was to be written next and how it would be spelled. As she requested this information her students gave

her information back. This gave her another opportunity to individualize instruction for the varying needs of her students and also a chance to reflect on each student's knowledge of spelling skills and sentence cohesion. She could then use this information later to direct her instruction during partner and individual writing.

Caroline was also concerned that the writing was becoming monotonous. As the students wrote in pairs and individually, she felt that the assignments she was giving them related too closely to the interactive writing lesson and therefore might become boring or laborious for her students. She commented on this concern in her teacher reflection log on 10/2:

> *They were finished writing really quickly today. They really just wrote the same things, except they substituted the word pig for frog. Maybe I should have been a little more creative with that assignment. They still loved it though!*

She wrote about this concern again in her teacher reflection log on 10/9:

> *They seemed to enjoy the writing today, but it was a little repetitive because they were writing the same thing they have been writing all week.*

After I read her reflection logs on those two dates, I was interested to see how she would plan her writing lessons for the following week. During our planning meeting on 10/9 she demonstrated that she was able to modify her instruction to engage her students. She wanted to read aloud the book *Knuffle Bunny* to set a purpose at the beginning of the week. She planned on having her students write about the main idea during the interactive writing lesson and then have them write about the setting, the problem, or the solution during partner writing. She was perplexed with what to have them write about for individual writing and didn't want them to write about the same topic. Through our

discussion, she suggested that they write about something that was special to them since Knuffle Bunny was special to the main character Trixie. I agreed that that would be a good idea and that it would also be something different from what they were expected to write earlier:

> *Caroline: Yeah, so that would be cute and it's a cute book, but then I don't know… they could write about their favorite stuffed animal?*
>
> *Jennifer: Yeah, something that is really important to them. I think a problem we had this week was we kind of had the same activity over and over and this would be different.*

Caroline's concern about student engagement led her to reflect individually and then bring suggestions to our planning and reflecting meetings. After discussing as a group that the use of dry erase boards might be helpful in keeping the students engaged, Caroline implemented the use of the dry erase boards the next week. She reflected in her teacher reflection log on 10/14 at the end of that week:

> *Much better! The dry erase boards kept them interested but also a little chatty. I guess that's better than not paying attention at all. I don't know if it's something I want to do every week, but I will definitely try it again. Also, everyone was occupied and no one seemed too upset about not getting to come up and write a word.*

Caroline continued to use the dry erase boards throughout the study and continued to discuss their merit as a tool of engagement during our meetings and in her reflection log.

Caroline also evaluated students' level of engagement by reflecting on transcripts and student written texts. Starting on week seven, I presented the teachers with

transcripts of interactive writing lessons, partner writing sessions, or individual writing sessions during our planning/reflecting meetings as a way to initiate the conversation each week. I also brought samples of student partner writing or independent writing to analyze with the teachers. Previously we had been discussing students' writing and talk in general, and I thought that it would be more beneficial for Caroline and Andie to reflect on actual written texts and transcripts of student talk. During our discussions, Caroline would comment on the transcripts or student generated texts and subsequently I would observe changes in her instructional methods the following week. For example, after examining the students' written text she was concerned that her students were not working well as partners. She wrote in her reflection log on 9/17:

> *I enjoy the partner writing because I get to stand back and watch! It will be interesting to pair up different students and see how they work together. The biggest problem today was with pairs of students who just didn't know how to collaborate. One would write one sentence and one would write a completely different sentence and then they wouldn't know what to draw. But I suppose that is part of the learning process.*

The following week we discussed ways in which to help each student participate in the writing process. We decided as a group that encouraging the students to take turns writing each word would help the students work together better. After I observed Caroline instructing her students to write in that manner, I noted that it seemed to go well during our planning meeting on 10/16 and she agreed:

Jennifer: Let's see…. They did a better job of writing together because we talked about taking turns, with one kid writing one word and the other one writes the next. I think that helped.

Caroline: A lot of them did that.

Figure 4.4 illustrates that her students were indeed taking turns writing. Every other word was written slightly darker than the other which indicated that the two students were indeed taking turns writing. It was also evident in the transcripts of their discussion that they were taking turns writing.

The amount of talk related to student engagement by Caroline during our planning and reflecting meetings decreased over the course of the study (see Table 4.7). At the beginning of the intervention she discussed student engagement between 29% and 57% of the time. By the end of the intervention she was only discussing student engagement between 17% and 28% of the time. This decrease in conversation related to student engagement may be evidence that Caroline's initial concerns on this topic had been resolved. Through our conversations and her reflection she was able to revise her instructional methods during interactive writing lessons to address student engagement.

Reflection on teaching skills and strategies.

Caroline also reflected on her own in her log on her instructional methods when it came to supporting her students with composition, spelling, and grammar. Throughout the study her concern related to the teaching of explicit skills and instructional methods to address the needs of her students increased. For example, although we had not discussed it previously, she began making content lists on week nine to support her students with their spelling (see Figure 4.5). After she would read aloud a book to set the purpose for

writing each week, she would have the students brainstorm words that they might need for their writing throughout the week. Caroline would write these words on a dry erase board, above the chart paper she used for interactive writing, and the list would be available for the students as a reference for the entire week. As she wrote the words she would ask the students to help her spell the words out loud.

Caroline also reflected on her planning throughout the study. During the first few weeks of the study, I planned extensively with both Caroline and Andie. I supported them through the planning process and demonstrated how to plan interactive writing lessons based on the individual needs of their students. By week 7, I allowed both teachers to take over the planning role. I felt that they were capable and had an understanding of how to plan interactive writing lessons. I was mistaken. That week Caroline planned a writing lesson based on the book *Stellaluna*, which turned out to be a reading lesson on comparing and contrasting. Each student wrote a fact about a bat or a bird independently, without any teacher modeling or support, and then they placed their sentences on a large Venn diagram. This regression turned out to be beneficial to Caroline's learning. She arrived at our planning meeting later that week and said,

> *I don't know if it was still following the idea of writing together, because they pretty much were writing independently and then we put it all together*.

This comment illustrated that she was internalizing the difference between teaching the writing process as compared to practicing writing during a reading lesson. Andie struggled with this determination throughout the entire study.

Caroline also reflected on student written texts when it came to spelling scaffolds. As we looked at the student writing samples on 10/16 from the week I noted that the

words “are”, “went”, and “because” were misspelled on several students’ writings (see Figure 4.6):

> *Jennifer: I would add the words “are” and “went” and “because” to your word wall. You [Andie] still have a couple that are doing “r” and you had two that did w-i-n-t for “went” so you might need to put it up there. And today you [Caroline] told them to write “because”, that that would be a good thing to write in their sentences, but then they didn’t know how to spell “because”. And a couple of yours wrote it as two words, “be” and “cus”. And some of them were pretty close to “because”, so that might be another word you’d want to put up there.*

As I entered her classroom the following Monday, I noticed that she had added the words “are”, “went”, and “because” to the word wall. She continued to add words to the word wall, but generally only after I suggested that the words should be added. Although I continued to bring student written texts to our planning meetings and discuss them after week 7, Caroline was unable to determine what the focus of her instruction should be the following week based on the mistakes in her students’ writing. Perhaps this was because I led these discussions and did not give Caroline enough opportunity to learn how to make these instructional decisions on her own.

Caroline’s conversation related to teaching explicit skills and strategies during our planning and reflecting meetings increased over the course of the intervention (see Table 4.7). She started the study discussing this topic between 29% and 71% of the time. By the end of the intervention she was discussing teaching explicit skills and strategies between 72% and 83% of the time. Perhaps this increase in conversation illustrates her growing knowledge of how to successfully integrate these topics into her instruction. Her

conversations consisted of anecdotes of her previous lessons and questions about how to continue to successfully teach these skills and strategies to her students.

Teacher Knowledge Illustrated by a Concluding Lesson

As the study progressed, Caroline became more adept at teaching writing—her dialogue during interactive writing increasingly emphasized the composing, spelling and grammatical conventions her students needed to learn and she became more skilled at sustaining the engagement of all her students during these interactions. As she reflected on the needs of her students, during our planning meetings and in her logs, she appeared to internalize the topics that were necessary for her students to become more proficient writers. Evidence of this internalization and understanding of the goals of interactive writing could be seen in the increased amount of time she spent talking about writing skills and ways to engage her students throughout the study (see Table 4.7). Although she did not employ all of the strategies she had previously discussed during our meetings and in her logs to engage her students during the lesson that follows, it is representative of the growth in her instructional methods.

Composition.

On November 10th, Caroline read aloud *A Friend for Little Bear* to set the purpose for writing that week. She wanted to focus on her students' understanding of verbs and picked this particular book to read aloud because of its use of interesting and unique verbs. On the following day, she had her students gather on the carpet and passed out a small dry erase board to each student. She had been using dry erase boards over the previous few weeks, but on this day she decided to use them in a different way. First she led a discussion of the main idea of the story read aloud the previous day. As her

students recalled the events of the story she encouraged her students to build off each others remarks. She reformulated and requested information of the students to expand previous contributions. She then asked the students what they would do if they lived on a deserted island, the setting of the read aloud, and again reformulated and encouraged expansion of those students' answers (see Figure 4.7).

The number of statements, questions, repetitions of students' responses, and expansions of what students said that focused on the composing process increased from 14 to 29 turns throughout the study (see Table 4.2). The percentage of talk related to composition increased from 48% and 65% throughout the study (see Table 4.3). This increase in the amount of Caroline's talk was probably partly due to the fact that the students were becoming more proficient, the written texts were longer, and more discussion needed to occur to support the composing process. This last interactive writing session reflects the greater attention to composing in Caroline's dialogue with the students.

Student engagement.

Caroline also employed her new knowledge of how to engage her students during the writing process during this lesson. As she asked the students to give suggestions on what topics to write about, she also asked her students to write these suggestions on their dry erase boards. As they completed their answers the students spontaneously began holding up their boards in the air so that Caroline could see them and the students began asking if they had spelled their suggestions correctly. Caroline questioned me during our planning/reflecting meeting later that week on 11/13 if that was appropriate:

Caroline: Was it too much that I had to like that's right, that's wrong?

Jennifer: No, I thought that was great because that way you are really individualizing the lesson. You would say, "Oh your D is backwards or you forgot the S", that kind of thing. I also liked how when you saw that someone had it right you had them come up and encouraged them to bring their board with them so they actually write it correctly on the board. And then you moved onto the next word. So it was keeping them all busy. They weren't all just sitting there staring at the person writing, so it was really engaging.

I praised her ability to reflect on her students' individual needs and modify her instructional methods based on the individual nature of each student's writing abilities. Her spontaneous ability to reflect upon and modify her teaching methods no doubt supported her students' progress throughout the study.

Explicit teaching of spelling skills and strategies.

Discussion of spelling strategies occurred only less frequently than discussion of composition. Caroline spent a great deal of time having the students come up and write each word in the class constructed texts. Throughout the study, both teachers were concerned about what to do with all the other students to keep them engaged while one student was at the chart writing. Caroline began using that time to explicitly teach skills and strategies related to spelling patterns. Explicitly teaching skills in this way was consistent with the underlying themes of interactive writing. She also became an expert at finding teachable moments to help her students notice scaffolds in the room that could aid in their spelling development. During her interactive writing lesson on 11/11 Caroline directed her students to spelling scaffolds around the room to aid in their spelling seven times:

Caroline: What is the next word?

Student: Would

Caroline: Do you know how to spell would? Write it on your board. It rhymes with could one of our words this week. We wrote could so how are we going to write would?

(Student writes would on the chart)

Caroline: Good job. I would W O U L D. I would build. Everyone write build on their boards.

Caroline: Build has the same vowels as fruit on the CARE board

(Student writes build on the chart paper)

Throughout the study she increased her explicit teaching of spelling as well as her ability to offer spelling strategies besides sounding out words to her students. During this particular lesson she used rhyming words, word families, and the Children Achieving Reading Excellence (CARE) wall as scaffolds (see Figure 4.8). CARE is a code based approach to teaching reading, writing, and spelling that is used in all the first and second grade schools in the county. The CARE bulletin board in Caroline's classroom had common vowel patterns and a key word for each. The board was organized from easier to more difficult vowel patterns.

On 9/16 she explicitly mentioned spelling 30% of the time and on 11/18 she explicitly mentioned spelling 41% of the time (see Table 4.3). Some of the scaffolds she discussed throughout the study included using the word wall, the CARE wall, class constructed word banks specific to the writing goal, trade books used to set the writing purpose, words students had already written in the class composed text that were being

repeated, and during partner writing and individual writing she directed students to the class composed interactive writing text completed earlier in the week. Later in the week when the students were writing with their partners and individually, they used many of these scaffolding spelling strategies in their own writing. Over the course of the study, of the 17 accounts of discussion about using spelling scaffolds, 11 were initiated by the students in Caroline's class and six were initiated by Caroline or me. Caroline's students had a strong understanding of when and where to look for assistance while spelling unknown words.

Explicit teaching of grammar skills.

Caroline also explicitly taught her students the rules of punctuation and capitalization throughout this lesson and other whole group interactive writing lessons (see Table 4.3). Discussions about capitalization focused on when it was appropriate and inappropriate to use capital letters in their writing. Discussions about punctuation focused on the correct type of punctuation to use. Throughout the study her discussion about capitalization and punctuation increased from 0% to 14% of her discourse moves.

Her discussion of grammatical parts of speech also increased throughout the study see Table 4.3). Caroline explicitly discussed the use of verbs during 22% of her dialogic moves during this lesson. She became expert at integrating skills, such as grammar, into her teaching. She said during her final interview on 11/20 that it was easier to teach that way:

Caroline: It was helpful in teaching the skills we were working on anyway. Like last week was verbs and so I just made that into the writing lesson. Which they

probably would have learned it anyway, but this was a better way to teach it I think. More fun, more effective way to teach it.

Jennifer: And probably just reinforced what you were already doing.

Caroline: And so I didn't have to hit on it so hard in the whole group language instruction so we could work on other things. Also adjectives and that's the thing you did first right?

Jennifer: Yeah.

Caroline: That was great because all these kids know what adjectives are.

At the end of this particular interactive writing lesson, Caroline encouraged her students to point out different aspects of grammar, such as verbs:

Caroline: I want you to circle the two verbs on your board. What is one of the verbs? What are we doing? Let's read the sentence again.

Caroline: I would build a house and eat crab and coconut.

Caroline: What is something we are doing?

Student: Eating a crab

Caroline: What one word is what we are doing?

Student: Eating a crab.

Caroline: Are we eating or crabbing?

Student: Eating

(Student circles eat)

Caroline: What is the other verb?

Student: Building

(Student circles build)

Throughout the study, the incidence of discussion about grammar increased from 0% to 22% of her dialogic moves.

Lesson summary.

This lesson illustrates Caroline's ability to carry over what she learned from reflecting on student responses, both oral and written, to revise her instructional methods in the context of interactive writing. She increased the number of dialogic moves related to teaching skills and strategies during interactive writing lessons as well as modified her instructional methods to engage all of her students during these lessons. These changes in her instructional methods originated with her discussions between her colleague, Andie, and me at our planning meetings, as well as her ability to reflect on student written texts and the conversations she had with her students during writing lessons. In summary, Caroline developed increasingly more nuanced understandings about her teaching and students' learning through interactions with her colleague and me and through her own reflections on and analysis of students' talk, including their questions of each other, and their independent and partner writing.

Summary of Caroline's Learning

Over the course of the study Caroline increasingly noticed the responses of students to her instruction and appropriately planned teaching strategies to accommodate the students' needs. During the interactive writing sessions that followed, Caroline explicitly taught the composing process, provided spelling scaffolds, and taught capitalization and punctuation conventions by questioning the students, and by repeating and elaborating their responses (see Table 4.3). This increasing attention to student responses may have been part of the reason most of her students made achievement gains

related to the explicit skills she taught. By reflecting on student responses and planning how to motivate and engage her students in the writing process, she provided an authentic and purposeful writing environment in which most of her students flourished.

Teacher Learning for Andie

Throughout this study, Andie also changed her instructional methods in reaction to student responses, both oral and written, during interactive writing lessons. The changes in Andie's instructional methods were not as extensive as Caroline's. The focus of her talk during our planning sessions and in her reflection logs was quite different than Caroline's. Recall that Caroline talked extensively about how to teach skills and strategies and how to engage her students and that this talk carried over to her interactive writing lessons. Andie also talked about how to engage her students but, on the other hand, she talked more frequently about how she was having difficulty engaging in the interactive writing process herself. Due to this focus on herself, she did not spend as much time reflecting on student responses as Caroline did. This focus on her own needs also carried over into her interactive writing lessons in which she did not address the writing needs of her students as adeptly as Caroline had.

Teacher Knowledge Illustrated by a Beginning Lesson

During the week of September 29th, Andie taught an interactive writing lesson based on the book *Tuesday*. On Monday, she "read" the book aloud to her students. *Tuesday* is a mostly wordless book, so she showed the pictures and allowed her students to comment on the illustrations. After reading the book aloud, she led a discussion with her students about the main idea of the book. The class discussed that even though there

were few words in the book, the audience was able to understand the ideas presented in the book through the illustrations.

Composition.

On Tuesday, Andie revisited the book and had her students again retell the story. Then she instructed her students to write the text for the first page of the story based on the illustration (see Figure 4.9). She asked what the page was about and allowed ten of her students to give suggestions. She never repeated, reformulated, or expanded on these suggestions, but rather picked two suggestions and had her students vote on which one they should write.

At this point during the lesson, I mentioned that it might be more interesting if we added an adjective to the sentence. Andie asked her students what an adjective was and they replied that it is the color of something so they should write green frog. Andie then had her students vote on whether to write "The green frogs are flying" or "The green frogs fly at 8:00 PM". The students voted 14 to 5 to write "The green frogs fly at 8:00 PM".

As in Caroline's classroom, Andie spent a considerable amount of time on composing the text with her students. In fact, the majority of her conversation dealt with the composition of the text (see Table 4.5). This process involved Andie leading her students by requesting information followed by her students giving ideas. As in Caroline's classroom, the students would build off each other's ideas or give new ideas. Unlike Caroline's classroom, Andie did not repeat, reformulate, or expand on her students' suggestions.

Recall that Caroline's dialogue could be described as initiate, respond, and repeat. Andie's dialogue could be described as initiate, respond, initiate, and respond. Andie did not often repeat student's dialogue or her own dialogue during the whole group interactive writing lessons. During this lesson she only employed the dialogic move of repetition one time (see Table 4.4). Instead, she requested information, her students gave information, and then she requested more information.

This type of dialogue was not consistent with the tenants of interactive writing. She did not honor student responses by repeating their contributions, and therefore, showing that they were part of the composing process. Instead, by totally controlling the conversation, she sent a message to her students that she was in charge and was making all the decisions related to composition and writing mechanics. Her students were not given the opportunity to give their ideas as freely as in Caroline's classroom. Although Andie did request ideas from her students she did not validate their contributions by repeating their words. This type of didactic conversation, to the exclusion of more dialogic conversation, may hinder the acquisition of new knowledge for the students compared to a more democratic, participatory discourse.

Explicit teaching of spelling skills and strategies.

As the students began the construction phase of the interactive writing lesson, Andie generally requested information regarding spelling and sentence cohesion (see Figure 4.10):

Andie: How do you spell green? There are places in the room.

(Student writes green)

Andie: The next word will be frog. It has a blend in it. What is it?

Student: R, FR

Andie: What vowel says –O?

Student: O

Andie: Who wants to try frog?

(Student writes forog)

(Student writes is)

Andie: How would you spell fly? It has a suffix. What makes the ING?

(Student writes flying)

Andie: What is the rest of the sentence?

Student: At 8:00 pm

Andie: What do we do at the end of the line?

Student: Go back to the next line.

In whole group interactive writing lessons, Andie would generally request information followed by the students giving information. During this lesson, Andie requested information 50% of the time and gave information 44% of the time (see Table 4.5). Andie usually gave information much less often than she requested information and her students never requested information. The information that Andie requested and gave mainly related to spelling. She would ask her students how to spell a word and also help them sound out unknown words. Very rarely did she call attention to spelling scaffolds within the room, such as the word wall, for her students to use. Although at one point during the construction of this text she did remind her students that green was on the wall as a support. Andie also requested information and gave information related to sentence cohesion. She would ask her students what the next word in the sentence would be or

what the entire sentence was that they were writing. Little discussion was initiated by Andie about punctuation or grammar. Although Andie discussed the use of adjectives five times during this lesson, I do not believe this would not have occurred if I had not suggested it.

Teacher Learning and Adaptations to the Interactive Writing Process

Andie reflected on her teaching during our planning sessions and to a lesser extent, "in-the-moment" of her actual interactive writing lessons, usually in response to students' behavior. She focused on different topics than Caroline, and she was not as "proactive" as Caroline in addressing the instructional needs of students during planning sessions. Andie listened carefully to Caroline's reflections in regard to encouraging every student to participate and the use of scaffolds to support student writing, and later took up these concerns herself. Andie also used transcripts of students' talk and students' written texts constructed during partner writing as sources for her reflection and changes in practices. The topics she reflected on were the following: her own engagement in the interactive writing process, her students' engagement, and to a lesser extent, the skills and strategies that could be taught through the interactive writing lessons.

Reflection on student engagement.

Andie rarely reflected on her own about her teaching of interactive writing. She seemed dependent on Caroline or me for analysis and new directions. Andie told me during her final interview on 11/20:

> *I sure wasn't reflective. I never looked at the data. I never looked to see what they did. Thank God for you.*

The only occurrence I observed of her reflecting on her own teaching and following through with a solution to the needs of her students was on 10/2 when she and Caroline began questioning the students during the interactive writing lessons (p. 105). Again, Andie claimed that she did not remember questioning her students during the interactive writing lessons, but she did remember solving the problem of off-task behavior during her lessons.

Most of Andie's learning dealt with managing student engagement and occurred through discussion of the instructional methods that Caroline was successfully implementing in her classroom (see Table 4.8). Many of these instructional methods had been brought up by me and discussed with them previously during our planning/reflecting meetings. During these discussions, Andie seemed eager to implement the methods that we discussed, but would not use them in her classroom until she discovered that they were working in Caroline's room. Andie never committed to the instructional plans she herself made. During our planning/reflecting meetings both Caroline and Andie would discuss what they were planning to teach the following week. Generally the teachers' ideas were quite different, which I encouraged, so that they each would take more ownership of their lessons. As I would arrive in Andie's classroom each week, she would usually surprise me by teaching a lesson that was different from the one she had discussed at our planning/reflecting meeting. She generally taught the lesson that Caroline had planned instead! Because I was observing the teachers directly after their lunch period, they told me that they would discuss their writing plans for the day while they were eating lunch with the other first grade teachers. Andie would ask Caroline what she was planning on teaching and would decide that Caroline's lesson

sounded like a good idea and she would try it. During our planning meeting on 10/9 Caroline began discussing the lessons they had taught that week:

Caroline: We did two completely different things.

Jennifer: You both did exactly the same thing.

Andie: I asked her what she was doing 30 minutes before class every day!

Caroline: I know, at lunch time—"What are you doing today?"

Andie: "I can do that."

Even Caroline was surprised that Andie taught the same lesson as she did, since she had been present the previous planning meeting in which Andie discussed using completely different instructional methods. Caroline did not realize that Andie was using her ideas each week during the interactive writing lessons.

Andie learned how to engage students by listening to what Caroline had done previously. During our planning meeting on 11/13, I explained to Andie how Caroline was successfully using the dry erase boards in her classroom to keep her students engaged and also to individualize instruction for each student:

Jennifer: Caroline did the dry erase boards last time too and what she would do is she would say, "Ok, I live on a, the next word is island. Everyone write island on your board and hold it up when you have it".

Andie: That's cute.

Jennifer: So they would hold it up and whoever had it correct would be the person to come up and write it.

Andie: That's a cute idea.

Jennifer: And for the other kids she would say, "Oh no, you forgot your S, put an S in there. You did this, your D is backwards". Just for a few seconds while this kid is still writing on the board "island" and she would say, "While so-and-so is finishing island let's figure out what the next word would be. I live on an island and. Ok, write the word 'and'".

Andie: That's a great idea.

Jennifer: So they're all engaged and they aren't all just staring at that person writing.

The following week Andie used dry erase boards with her students for the very first time. She commented afterwards that the students did seem more engaged and on-task throughout the writing process. By listening to the concerns raised by Caroline during our planning meetings, and her descriptions of the instructional adaptations she made to address these concerns Andie was able to modify her instructional methods to engage her students more fully in the interactive writing process.

Andie's concern with regard to student engagement during our planning/reflecting meetings remained fairly consistent over the course of the intervention (see Table 4.9). She discussed student engagement between 0% and 25% of the time at the beginning of the intervention and discussed it between 0% and 19% by the end of the intervention. Recall how Caroline's discussion of student engagement decreased over the course of the study as she developed instructional methods to engage her students during her interactive writing lessons. Andie, on the other hand, continued to struggle with her students' engagement throughout the study. Her consistent conversation about how to

engage her students illustrates that she was not able to revise her instructional methods related to student engagement to a satisfactory degree.

Reflection on teaching skills and strategies.

Andie rarely discussed how she tried to explicitly teach writing skills and strategies (see Table 4.7). During our planning meeting on 10/30 we discussed the use of spelling scaffolds to assist the students with their writing. I recalled how difficult it was for the students to spell the words they needed that week in Andie's classroom, but how Caroline had supported her students with the use of content lists:

> *Jennifer: And I thought they did a really good job of using the list you [Caroline] made on Monday. You put up all the adjectives and all the nouns and all week they used that for their writing. Even today when they were writing about anything they wanted to write about they still went back and used that list to work off of. That was something I noticed today with your [Andie's] kids. We gave them a choice and the ones that wrote about who swallowed a bat, they didn't need any help. But the ones that picked to write about random Halloween things, they didn't know how to spell the words because we didn't have them anywhere. In your [Caroline's] class we had a list there.*
>
> *Andie: It made them nervous.*
>
> *Jennifer: Yeah, like costume, I kept looking for it up there, but realized, no that's in Caroline's room.*
>
> *Andie: It would be good to do a Halloween board.*
>
> *Jennifer: So they didn't have that support there.*
>
> *Andie: The security.*

Andie only discussed spelling four times and spelling scaffolds seven times during our planning meetings and in her reflection log (see Table 4.8). She did not increase her discussion of spelling over the course of the study. Even when she did discuss spelling skills and scaffolds she was slow to make any changes in her instructional methods. She tended to need to hear how Caroline was implementing the instruction in her room successfully before she would even consider using them in her room. Perhaps Andie was only willing to try new procedures that she was sure would actually work in a classroom, rather than my ideas which she considered "research" that had not been tried out on actual children before. On 10/2 during our planning and reflecting meeting she asked me:

Is this the most effective way of teaching [writing]?

I responded that there was research to support students' ability to learn explicit skills and strategies through interactive writing lessons. My discussion of the research supporting the use of interactive writing did not change her outlook though. Evidence of this lack of focus on explicit skills can be seen in the dialogue during her interactive writing lessons also (see Table 4.5). Her teaching of explicit skills such as spelling, punctuation, and grammar during her interactive writing lessons actually decreased over the course of the study.

When it came to reflecting on transcripts and student written texts, Andie continually asked for data to demonstrate that her students were making gains in writing. She asked me at each planning/reflecting meeting what the students were learning, if anything. Because of Andie's concern, beginning on week seven I began presenting her with the transcripts of student dialogue and the examples of student writing to illustrate to

her how her students were making progress. I also discussed with both her and Caroline how to use this data to make instructional decisions in the future. On 10/9 I explained:

> *The thing that I don't see them doing very much is when they come to a word that they don't know; they don't know what to do about it. They only thing they know to do is to try to sound it out, which is a great idea, but of course that doesn't always work, especially if it is a strange word like "towel". So I think what would be the next step for us is to teach them some different strategies, because you've said before you were wondering what in the world to teach the kids. I think more what we need to do is teach them strategies. A couple of strategies that you have taught them are to have them use the tools around the room. When she did the number day, it must have been when they were doing the word problems; you made it very clear that they had the numbers written down on a paper in their helper folder. And they used that as a strategy and got it out when they needed it. You have used the CARE wall, and said well this word sounds like, whatever.*

I led most of the conversations regarding transcripts of student dialogue and written texts and neither teacher took much ownership in analyzing them. Perhaps both teachers would have been more successful at this process if I had given them more opportunity to talk about how to use this information to make instructional decisions. By my offering instructional suggestions based on this data, they did not have to acknowledge the discrepancy between what they were teaching and what skills and strategies their students were actually able to transfer to their own writing.

Not only was Andie unable, or unwilling, to reflect on her students' dialogue and written text to make instructional decisions, but she did not implement the instructional changes that I had recommended based on the student data. The only instructional change she made in her classroom based on transcripts and writing samples was to have her students take turns while writing. She never made changes based on our discussions about skills and strategies as Caroline had. When I mentioned words that the students were having difficultly spelling, Caroline would put those words on her word wall or explicitly teach the spelling of the words the following week during her interactive writing lesson. On the other hand, Andie would agree with my analysis of student writing during our meeting, but then never follow through with changes to her instructional methods. When we looked at the student writing samples on 10/16 from the week I noted that the word "went" was misspelled on several students' writings (see Figure 4.11). I mentioned to both Andie and Caroline that this word should either go up on the word wall or be explicitly taught during interactive writing lessons over the following weeks (p. 111). Andie agreed with me, but did not follow through on modifications to her instructional methods.

Possibly this was because the changes I was recommending went against her beliefs about teaching children at this age. She felt that first grade teachers should focus on encouraging students' creative writing ability and not be concerned with writing mechanics. We discussed this belief during our planning/reflecting meeting on 11/13:

> *Jennifer: I think it is trying to find that balance between the two. Because my understanding of what you think in the box is, is giving them those supports. It's almost like you want them to be worrying about spelling, you don't want them to*

be worrying about grammar, and capital letters. You want them to be more creative and thinking which I think it is important to have that side, but then how are they ever going to learn those other things if you don't expect those as well? Does that make sense?

Andie: Yeah, that's interesting. I definitely want them to do more of the learning.

Jennifer: The thinking.

Andie: The thinking.

Jennifer: Yeah, I think you put more value on that than on say the mechanics of it at this stage.

Andie: I agree.

Although Andie was not able to convey her beliefs about writing to me verbally, she did agree with my perception of her beliefs. Since she felt that the content of a text was more important than the mechanics of it, she could not accept interactive writing, with its emphasis on explicit teaching of skills and strategies, as viable writing instruction for her students.

Throughout the intervention, the percentage of Andie's conversation related to teaching explicit skills and strategies during the interactive writing process at our planning/reflecting meetings remained fairly consistent ranging from 4% to 13% at the beginning of the intervention to between 0% and 39% at the end of the intervention (see Table 4.9). Her conversation generally revolved around questioning me about the role of explicitly teaching spelling and grammar at this age, rather than how she was successfully integrating this instruction into her own lessons.

Reflection on teacher engagement.

Andie discussed her own motivation most frequently during our planning meetings and in her reflection logs (see Table 4.9). The most common topic of reflection for Andie was on the physical format of interactive writing. She constantly complained that the format was boring and she felt like she was teaching "in a box". During our meetings, I asked her repeatedly what she meant by that and how we could change her perception of the intervention. She stated that this approach focused on the mechanics of writing rather than the creative aspect of writing which she valued more at this age. She also asked me 20 times throughout the study while we were planning what the goal of the lesson was for the week (see Table 4.8). I tried to explain to her that the goals were different for her individual students and that we could look at the students' writing to see what she should focus her planning on for the following week. I would point out areas of weakness in her students' writing based on their writing samples and explain what she should focus her instruction on the following week.

Andie and Caroline were never able to gather this type of instructional data on their own without my guidance. Although Caroline would use this data for her subsequent instruction, Andie would not. Perhaps this was because my suggestions were focused on skills and strategies that she did not believe in teaching at this age. It could have also been because she was used to following the basal reading series each week to teach reading and writing. This teacher's manual lays out the discrete skills and strategies that should be focused on each week regardless of the individual strengths and weaknesses of her students. I felt that Andie wanted me to pick an explicit skill out of thin air each week to focus her interactive writing lessons on. She asked what the goal

was each week, and she did so over the course of the study, which illustrates that she was not able to internalize the concept of reflective teaching based on errors in each child's writing sample.

Andie also spent much of the time during our planning meetings and in her reflection logs discussing the fact that she would rather teach reading rather than writing if given the choice (see Table 4.9). She felt that teaching reading was more important than teaching writing at this age. During our planning/reflecting meeting on 10/9 I explained how spelling skills and strategies could be explicitly taught through interactive writing:

> *Andie: We are still not focusing on writing. We're focusing on strategies on teaching them how to spell.*
>
> *Jennifer: Well, what do you think the difference is between those two things?*
>
> *Andie: I don't value spelling and writing as much of an emphasis yet.*
>
> *Jennifer: So when you say I want teach writing you'd say—*
>
> *Andie: I'd rather teach reading if I'm going to do it. I'd rather teach reading than spelling. I mean you said this week was more of a reading thing than it was writing. Then I'd rather teach that than worry about the spelling. If given a choice, I want my children to have good reading skills.*

Andie's beliefs that her focus of instruction should be on reading trumped my attempt to explain to her how to teach explicit skills during interactive writing. She believed that her instructional time was better spent focusing on reading skills rather than writing skills. Andie continued to mention this belief during our planning/reflecting meetings throughout the study suggesting that she had not changed her perception. I was not able

to convince Andie that writing development, including spelling, was related to reading development. I believe that the questions I raised during our meetings or the responses I gave to her concerns were not persuasive in that she did not substantially revise either her teaching or her pedagogical beliefs about the incongruity of creativity with the explicit teaching of spelling and writing conventions.

The amount of conversation by Andie during our planning/reflecting meetings related to teacher engagement remained consistent throughout the study (see Table 4.9). At the beginning of the intervention she discussed teacher engagement between 62% and 90% of the time and by the end of the intervention she discussed it between 50% and 81% of the time. This slight decrease in conversation illustrates that she still viewed her own engagement as a concern at the end of the intervention. Due to her beliefs about the writing process at this age, she was unable to resolve her concerns related to interactive writing and revise her instructional techniques.

Teacher Knowledge Illustrated by a Concluding Lesson

On Tuesday November 11th, Andie taught her students how to write a riddle through the interactive writing format. At this point in the study, she was combining her purpose setting lesson and interactive writing lessons on the same day. Usually her purpose setting included a read aloud, but on this particular day she had her students gather on the carpet and discuss characteristics of food containers. The class had been collecting nonperishable foods to donate to less fortunate families at Thanksgiving. Andie started her lesson by reminding her students why they were collecting the items and then she held up a can of corn for her students to describe. She led the discussion by asking the shape of the object and what food group it belonged in. She continued by

holding up four other objects and modeling how to describe the object. Next, she read the dictionary definition of a riddle and let the students guess the answer to her riddles. For example she said, "I come in a cylinder. I am part of the fruit group. I am yellow. I am sweet and I am soft. What am I?" Her students looked at the food containers on the floor and realized that she was describing a can of pineapples. She continued to give two more examples and then she had the students vote on what food they would like to write about as a class. They chose Frosted Flakes and Andie described the purpose of the writing by saying that they would present this riddle to another first grade classroom to see if they knew the answer. Her students were very excited to try to stump the other classroom.

Next, Andie had her students gather in small groups and discuss how they would describe the Frosted Flakes. When they came back together as a group a few minutes later she asked them what shape it was. A student responded that it was in the shape of a rectangular prism (see Figure 4.12). Most of Andie's dialogue during this lesson related to requesting information and giving information. Over the course of the study, the number of dialogic moves on Andie's part in regard to requesting information ranged from 50% to 72% of the time (see Table 4.5). She gave information between 28% and 45% of the time. Andie mostly requested and gave information in regard to composition during this lesson.

When it came to the dialogic moves of repeating, reformulation, and expansion, Andie employed these moves much less frequently than Caroline did. Throughout the study, she repeated student responses between 0% and 6% of the time during her interactive writing lessons (see Table 4.5). During whole group interactive writing

lessons, reformulation and expansion generally occurred at the beginning of the lesson while the students and teacher were discussing what they would write. Reformulation and expansion moves were made by Andie and never by her students. This is similar to what occurred in Caroline's classroom, although Andie reformulated and expanded her students' ideas less frequently than Caroline did. Andie reformulated or expanded her students' ideas between 0% and 3% of the time during her interactive writing lessons (see Table 4.5). As with repetition, she did not validate her students' responses and was unable to reformulate those responses into a more complex text. This lack of modeling may have led to her students producing less complex texts than Caroline's students. Andie's students were not given similar opportunities to have authentic conversations and build new knowledge through discussion.

Explicit teaching of spelling skills and strategies.

When it came to giving information, Andie did a great job of pointing out spelling scaffolds in the room during this lesson. She assisted her students with spelling scaffolds during two different segments of the lesson:

Andie: Where in the world would I find rectangular prism?

Student: Over here (Student points to geometric shapes poster)

Andie: How do you write sweet?

Student: S W E E T

Andie writes sweet

Andie: Compliment. I saw you look up there (at the food pyramid poster).

Unfortunately, after her students pointed out the scaffolds, Andie usually wrote the words herself on the interactive writing chart instead of sharing the pen with her students.

Andie dealt with her concern about how to keep the other students engaged while one student was writing in a very different manner than Caroline. Instead of asking her students questions about spelling, Andie began spelling and writing all the words for her students. During this particular lesson Andie wrote 22 of the words and her students wrote 4 of the words in the interactive writing text. As Andie did this, some of her students began to spell the words out loud as she wrote them, although Andie did not encourage them to do so. The frequency of her dialogic moves in regard to spelling ranged from 3% to 44% of the time during the study. The amount of explicit spelling conversation did not increase over the course of the study as it did in Caroline's classroom (see Table 4.5). This illustrates that Andie was not able to adopt the instructional method of teaching explicit skills and strategies through interactive writing. Perhaps this was due to her strongly held belief that children should not worry about writing mechanics at this age. The planning and reflection activities that she participated in were not influential enough to change her beliefs in regard to first grade writers.

Andie occasionally did mention the use of spelling strategy scaffolds such as the word wall, math and science posters, and trade books used for purpose setting. Perhaps because she tended to do purpose setting and composition of the class text on the same day, whereas Caroline spread this instruction over two days, Andie did not have the time to regularly point out these scaffolds around the room and have her students engage in using these scaffolds. She missed teachable moments such as when she copied *grains* from the food pyramid poster on the wall, but did not explicitly explain to the students

what she was doing or why she was doing it. She also previously taught a lesson on writing with rhyming words, but did not explicitly point out how rhyming words frequently have the same spelling patterns and can serve as a scaffold to spell new unknown words.

Andie may not have focused on these teachable moments because she was rushed for time, she did not feel comfortable with her students' perceived lack of engagement, or because she had previously told me that she did not feel that spelling was as important as composition for her students. On 10/9 during our planning/reflecting meeting I talked to Andie about her instructional methods in regard to spelling:

> *Jennifer: You said something really interesting, Andie. It was yesterday, when they did the post-it notes, and you had given them directions. You said "And don't worry about spelling." Which I think is very different from saying "Spell it the best you can." Because they really didn't worry about spelling, which was reflected by the fact that when they came up, they couldn't even read what they had written. They were like, "I don't know what this says".*

When giving instructions for partner writing Andie said, "Don't worry about spelling." This sent a message to her students that spelling was not an important part of writing. This was reinforced when Andie asked her students to read what they had written and they could not understand what they had written. Of the 20 times there was discussion about spelling scaffolds during partner writing, Andie's students initiated the discussion only seven times. All of the other incidences were initiated by me. Her students' lack of discussion of spelling strategies illustrated that they did not have a complete mastery of when to use spelling scaffolds and perhaps what spelling scaffolds were available to

them. This may have been part of the reason why her students made little to no gains in spelling.

There was little discussion of grammar in Andie's classroom compared to Caroline's classroom. Andie modeled the use of capitalization and punctuation in her whole group interactive writing lessons between 0% and 19% of the time during a lesson (see Table 4.5). The amount of talk about punctuation and capitalization did not increase throughout the study. Andie discussed the use of parts of speech during her lessons between 0% and 16% of the time (see Table 4.5). In this case though, these conversations were initiated by me and may not have occurred without my presence.

Summary of Andie's Learning

Andie was able to revise her instructional methods related to student engagement during the interactive writing intervention, but not her ability to explicitly teach writing skills and strategies. By reflecting on the instructional methods that Caroline was employing in her classroom, Andie was able to make slight modifications in how she engaged her students. When it came to modifying her instruction of writing skills and strategies, I believe her prior beliefs about writing instruction at this age interfered with her ability to revise her instruction. Due to her prior beliefs, she spent much of the time during our planning/reflecting meetings discussing her own lack of engagement with the interactive writing process.

Andie and her students engaged in less talk than Caroline's in general during writing, and the types of interactions also did not change over the course of the study. This lack of conversation and lack of change in the kinds of student conversation

illustrates Andie's inability to revise her instructional methods to integrate a more interactive process of writing into her classroom.

Summary of Teacher Learning

Although the same instructional intervention, interactive writing, was presented to both teachers, and I attempted to support both the teachers equally with their learning, the type and amount of learning varied for the two participating teachers. Caroline learned mostly through individual reflection of her instructional methods. She learned also through discussion of transcripts and student written texts. Throughout the study Caroline's dialogue during our planning/reflecting meetings and during her interactive writing lessons changed. Through progressively more reflective discourse with Andie and me, she was able to revise her instructional methods with regard to teaching skills and strategies and ways in which to engage all her students in writing.

Andie, on the other hand, seemed to learn mostly from reflecting on the discussion of the instructional methods Caroline was using in her classroom. Perhaps this was because she never really accepted the interactive writing process and therefore she was just going through the motions without truly thinking about what she was doing. It was easier for her to just ask Caroline what she was teaching in her room, and follow her instructional methods, rather than coming up with her own ideas or reflecting on her own student needs. Through our planning and discussion Andie did make revisions to her instructional methods in regard to engaging all of her students in writing. Her ability to revise her instruction related to teaching explicit skills and strategies was not as apparent. Perhaps because of her underlying beliefs about how and what children at this age should be learning, she was unable to modify her instructional methods to a great degree. She

did not appear to understand the relationship between reading and writing and how each process can influence the learning of the other. She spent a great deal of time during our planning/reflecting meetings discussing her struggles with the format and the focus of the interactive writing intervention, rather than participating in discussion of ways to enhance her instruction.

Both teachers were more comfortable reflecting on instructional methods in their logs than analyzing transcripts and student written texts for next steps in the planning process. Although these teachers were very familiar with giving their students assessments, I do not think they had a full understanding of what to do with the assessment results. When I presented the teachers with student work and showed them how to base instructional decisions on the mistakes and progress their students were making they agreed with me, but were never able to make these determinations on their own. Perhaps they felt they did not have enough time in the day to examine student work in this way, or perhaps, if given more opportunity to analyze student texts and transcripts they would have felt more comfortable with this type of reflection. Or perhaps they did not know enough about spelling and writing development to analyze students' work in a way that might inform their instruction. Certainly in other areas of instruction they tended to just follow the basal and curriculum map to decide what to teach next rather than examining students instructional needs individually.

Student Learning Outcomes

The students in both Caroline's and Andie's classrooms appropriated teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing. Due to the

differences in teacher talk and instruction, the students in each class took up teacher discourse and writing strategies in different ways and the students of different ability levels also took up this knowledge in different ways.

Student Learning Outcomes in Caroline's Class

Caroline's students appropriated teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing. Uptake of teacher talk could be identified in students' dialogue as well as their written texts and assessments. Caroline's below average, average, and above average students took up teacher discourse and writing strategies in somewhat different ways.

Student Dialogue

Students in this study appropriated teacher discourse by requesting information, giving information, repeating previous information, reformulating information, and expanding information. Students internalized their teacher's talk by employing the same discourse moves that she used during whole group interactive writing lessons. The appropriation of teacher discourse was taken up in different ways depending on the level of writers in Caroline's class. Requesting and giving information were the most frequently used moves by both Caroline and all her students, followed by repetition, reformulation, and expansion.

Requesting and giving information.

During partner writing and independent writing there were frequent requests for information. Interestingly, the majority of the requests for information were either by Caroline or by me. During the entire study, the below average writers requested information 58 times (see Table 4.10). The percentage of requesting information moves

made by the below average writers decreased from 36% to 14% over the course of the intervention (see Table 4.11). The average writers requested information 38 times (see Table 4.12) and the percentage of moves decreased slightly from 17% to 11% (see Table 4.13). The above average writers requested information 51 times (see Table 4.14) and the percentage of moves was variable throughout the intervention between 6% and 28% (see Table 4.15).

Very rarely did students ask each other questions about the writing that was occurring. Generally the teacher or I would ask a question to gauge understanding and a student would give information back to us. This would be followed by another question by us or an evaluation of their answer. On the other hand, the questions that students asked of each other, their teacher, or me were authentic. The students were asking these questions because they needed the information for the text they were composing. Although these authentic questions occurred infrequently, more authentic questions were asked by the below average group than any other group. Across all the levels of writers, these requests tended to relate to spelling and less frequently to composition. In this example, Caroline's above average writers discussed how to spell words on 10/1 (see Figure 4.13):

Kate: On Tuesday night there, how do you spell there?

Jake: T H E R E, E R E.

Kate: There were.

Jake: Not T H , W H.

Jake: Aren't you writing there are?

Kate: On Tuesday night there are green frogs, this is hard, frogs floating on lily pads. Floating on. Is that how you spell lily? No. I put too many Ls.

Jake: Yeah.

Kate: I'll erase this one. How do you spell lily? I put lili. How do you spell lily pad?

Jake: Lily. You do the writing I do the drawing. That says sow not saw.

Kate: The man saw the frogs floating while he was eating his snack.

Jake: That's not how you spell night. Erase the E.

When students asked authentic questions, they were usually followed by someone giving suggestions, repeating information, expanding information, and/or reformulating information. This is similar to what occurred in Caroline's whole group writing lessons when she asked questions. During partner writing, her students were internalizing the dialogue they had participated in during whole group writing.

Unlike the teacher led whole group interactive writing lessons, most of the conversation between partners or by individuals while composing texts was related to giving information rather than requesting information. Caroline's below average students gave information 130 times (see Table 4.10). The incidence of requesting information was between 38% and 74% of the times and decreased slightly over the course of the study (see Table 4.11). Her average students gave information 161 times (see Table 4.12). This was between 37% and 62% of the discourse moves and stayed consistent throughout the intervention (see Table 4.13). Her above average students gave information 145 times (see Table 4.14) which was between 36% and 61% of the time (see Table 4.15). As with the average writers, the percentage of discourse moves related to

giving information stayed consistent for the above average writers. Although the frequency of giving information increased for students at all levels in Caroline's classroom throughout the study, only the below average writers decreased the percentage of time they spent giving information.

By employing the discourse move of giving information, students gave each other support throughout the writing process by giving each other information about composition, spelling, and grammar to help their partners with their writing. The type of information given was very different in the two classrooms examined. In Caroline's classroom, most of the information given by students across all levels was related to spelling skills and strategies and the frequency of these moves increased throughout the study. This increase in moves was probably related to the fact that students were spending more time engaged in the writing process and were writing longer and more complex texts as the study progressed. Also, as the study progressed, Caroline modeled more spelling strategies and scaffolds during her whole group interactive writing lessons for her students to use during their own writing. Her students were discussing what their teacher had modeled and this dialogue among her students may have led to most of her students making gains in spelling.

Repetition.

For the students in Caroline's classroom, repetition was used quite frequently. As with Caroline, her students' use of repetition usually followed the giving of information during composition of the text. Therefore, it is not very surprising what was repeated by the students at different levels. In Caroline's classroom the focus was on composition,

but spelling was integrated into the repetitions. The following is a segment of the transcript from Caroline's below average writers on 10/1 (see Figure 4.14):

Ryan: The frogs are watch in T. I already did the T. TV, the T is part of TV.

Ryan: In the house. T.

Joanna: House. They are watching TV in the house.

Ryan: The frogs are watch in the TV. T E –V E. TV in the house. In the

Joanna: –H –OU –S.

Ryan: The frogs are watch in the TV in the –H –A –S. We are done!

Joanna: Read me your sentence.

Ryan: The frogs are watch in TV in the house.

In the average group, both composition and spelling were discussed in the same dialogic turn. The below average and above average groups seemed to alternate between repeating composition and spelling based on their needs at that moment in time. Repetition was utilized most often in the above average group (77 times) and their percentage of moves increased from 22% to 30% over the course of the intervention (see Tables 4.14, 4.15). The average writers used repetition 68 times and the percentage of time spent on repetition generally remained consistent (see Tables 4.12, 4.13). The below average group utilized repetition 52 times and the percentage of time spent using these moves remained relatively stable (see Tables 4.10, 4.11). Perhaps repetition increased among the below average writers as a memory aid when they were overwhelmed by concentrating on discrete writing skills such as spelling, comprehension, and grammar. This increase in repetition may have enabled them to produce more complex texts as the study progressed.

Reformulation and expansion.

As with the whole group interactive writing lessons, during student writing in Caroline's classroom reformulation and expansion occurred at the beginning of the writing session for all the students. This reformulation and expansion occurred as the writers' were composing their thoughts just as Caroline had modeled in whole group. Usually the classroom teacher or I would interrupt this process and ask about the students' ideas. We would give suggestions, without the students requesting it, about ways to expand and reformulate their texts. I am not sure how, or if, the different groups would have picked up these discourse moves in another way if we had not interrupted their conversations.

In Caroline's classroom, reformulation and expansion occurred in different ways for the below average writers, average writers, and above average writers. The discussions for the below average writers were led by the teacher or me in situations where the writers were having difficulty composing their ideas. The writers were confused and were having a challenging time organizing their thoughts. The students would state their ideas and either the teacher or myself would give them suggestions of ways to reformulate or expand their ideas. On 9/24 I assisted Caroline's below average writers compose their text (see Figure 4.15):

Joanna: He needs to spell like.

Jennifer: Tell me what you are writing first.

Joanna and Ryan: A guinea pig.

Jennifer: Well you don't want to say "I like", you want to say "there are how many guinea pigs?"

Ryan: Twenty.

Jennifer: And what happened?

Ryan: Two runned away.

Jennifer: Then you will say "there are" and you'll have to figure out what 20 minus 2 is.

Ryan: 20 minus 2?

Joanna: We could just write about a fox.

Jennifer: You need to agree and maybe you need to do a smaller number.

Ryan: There are three guinea pigs and two run away.

The below average group never reformulated or expanded their text without the support of an adult. They discussed reformulation and expansion between 0% and 10% of the time during partner writing (see Table 4.11). The below average writers spent a larger percentage of the time discussing reformulation or expansion toward the end of the study when their texts were longer, and therefore, they were having more difficulty organizing their thoughts (see Table 4.11).

The average writers in Caroline's classroom did reformulate and expand their texts on their own, but this was infrequent. The occurrence of reformulation and expansion varied from 0% to 8% of the incidences (see Table 4.13). The frequency and percentage of time spent using these moves did increase as the study progressed.

The above average writers in Caroline's class were skillful at reformulating and expanding their texts on their own. They reformulated or expanded their texts between 5% and 24% of the time during partner writing sessions (see Table 4.15). Perhaps this was because their attention was not consumed by discrete spelling and grammar skills, so

they had more attention to reformulate and expand their sentences throughout the writing process. This led to the most complex texts written by the above average writers, followed by the average writers, and the below average writers.

Skills and strategies

Through the discourse moves of requesting information, giving information, repetition, and reformulation and expansion, Caroline discussed strategies of writing during the interactive writing lessons. Discussion of how to compose text, how to spell words, and how to use correct grammar occurred during these lessons. She also modified her instruction to support her students' acquisition of new skills and to engage them in the writing process. Her ability to plan writing lessons more effectively and to use dry erase boards, content lists, and spelling scaffolds aided in her students' capacity to write increasingly advanced texts throughout the study. When it came time for her students to write in partners or independently, her students took up the same strategies in their conversations that were modeled in the whole group interactive writing lessons.

Composition.

This modeling of how to compose a sentence was appropriated by Caroline's students when they were engaging in partner writing. As with Caroline in whole group interactive writing lessons, her students also spent up to one third of the each session discussing the composition of their text. The below average writers discussed composition 121 times which was between 24% and 62% of the time (see Tables 4.10, 4.11). The amount of time spent discussing composition did not change significantly for any of the writers over the course of the study. The average writers discussed composition 172 times which was between 53% and 76% of the time (see Tables 4.12,

4.13). The above average writers discussed composition 166 times which was between 42% and 82% of the time (see Tables 4.14, 4.15). Although the percentage of talk related to composition did not increase over the course of the intervention, the frequency of discussion of composition increased for all writers. This was perhaps due to Caroline's students spending more time writing longer and more complex texts. Also, the focus of this talk changed throughout the study. In the beginning of the study, the students would discuss what each would write and then they would write two separate sentences that were not cohesive. After Caroline reflected on this problem in her log and during our meetings, she addressed her students on this matter on 10/15. From that point forward, her students at all levels began to discuss how they could merge their two ideas together into one coherent text. They also began taking turns writing each word in the written text. This discussion required negotiation and the reformulation of each student's ideas. As the study progressed, the students viewed writing as a social activity and respected the input and ideas their partners had to offer.

Spelling.

Caroline's students also spent an extensive amount of time discussing spelling strategies. The type of discussion varied among her below average, average, and above average writers. The below average writers in Caroline's class talked authentically more often about how to spell words than the average and above average groups. They discussed spelling skills and strategies 115 times, or 48% of the time, over the course of the study (see Tables 4.10, 4.11). The incidence of dialogic moves related to spelling skills and strategies did increase over the duration of this study for all achievement levels, although the percentage of talk related to spelling was variable and did not generally

increase over the course of the study. The increase in moves was probably related to increased time spent writing as well as longer and more complex texts being written.

It may have also been due to the fact that Caroline increased her talk about spelling during the interactive writing lessons. She introduced spelling scaffolds around the room, including the word banks she began developing on week nine. Due to Caroline's increased talk related to spelling skills and strategies, her students began discussing the use of a variety of scaffolds around the room. These included using the word wall, the CARE wall, class constructed word banks, and words from the class composed text. Perhaps because of teacher modeling and student practice with spelling skills and strategies, Ryan made considerable progress in spelling. Joanna did not make as much progress, but this may have been because Ryan did most of the composing, discussing, and writing in this group.

The average writers also talked about spelling strategies and skills available to them (69 times or 24% of the time), but not as often as the below average writers (see Tables 4.12, 4.13). In the above average group, there was a great deal of discussion about spelling strategies (124 times or 39% of the time), but the discussion that did occur in regard to spelling words would not be characterized as authentic or meaningful (see Tables 4.14, 4.15). In this group, Kate tended to do most of the writing and talking. Jake would tell Kate how to spell words, but Kate would not respond to him. Jake did this so that he could be engaged in the writing process since he had no control over actually writing text. In this group, Kate made no spelling gains and Jake made some gains. Perhaps Kate made no progress in spelling, because she was actually listening to Jake and copying how to spell unknown words. Therefore, she was not thinking about how to

spell words and use spelling patterns on her own. Kate's learning in regard to spelling was not mediated through social interactions and conversation. These two writers tended to work in parallel rather than collaboratively. Another possibility why they made little progress in spelling may have been because there were no scaffolds of strategies in the classroom that could be used on their advanced level. For instance, they already knew how to spell the words on the word wall and had a mastery of the CARE patterns. These classroom scaffolds were designed at a primary level and these above average writers were spelling on an intermediate level.

Writers at all achievement levels increased the number of dialogic moves related to spelling over the course of the study, but the percentage of this talk did not generally increase. The focus of this talk moved from solely trying to sound out unknown words to other strategies and spelling scaffolds. The below average and average writers increased their talk of differing scaffolds such as the word wall, CARE wall, content lists, and previously constructed interactive writing texts throughout the study. This shift in dialogue illustrates their ability to take up the various strategies that Caroline herself was developing knowledge of, and therefore, discussing during the whole group interactive writing lessons.

Grammar.

Caroline's discussion of grammar carried over to her students dialogue and writing. Throughout the study, her below average writers discussed grammar 15 times (5% of the time), her average writers discussed it 14 times (6% of the time) and her above average writers discussed it 12 times (4% of the time) (see Tables 4.10-4.15). All of the writers in Caroline's classroom increased the incidence of grammar discussions

throughout the study. This was in response to Caroline's increased emphasis on teaching grammar during her interactive writing lessons. Two weeks after her lesson on verbs on 11/20, her above average writers decided to spontaneously circle all the verbs in their partner writing text about how to make mashed potatoes (see Figure 4.16):

Jake: Usually for about 5 minutes, because they don't really need to cook for a long time.

Jake: Hey, let's see if there is a verb and circle it .

Kate: Get.

Jake: Get? You can get something.

Jake: Put.

Jake: Wash, pour. Man we have a lot of verbs.

Jake: Hey look there are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 verbs, look.

Kate: Ok, let me read the whole thing. First wash your hands. Get a bowl. Get a pack of mashed potatoes. Pour the bag of mashed potatoes. Get some butter.

Jake: Get some butter.

Kate: It doesn't make sense.

Jake: And I circled the verbs.

Caroline: And you circled the verbs?

Jake: Uh huh.

Caroline: Good.

Jake: You can get things and wash your hands and you can pour something into something and you can put things into something.

Caroline's above average writers took up her discussion of grammar and integrated it into their own conversation and writing. Not only did the amount of dialogic moves related to grammar increase for Caroline's students at all achievement levels, but the overall percentage of time spent discussing grammar also increased for all of Caroline's students. This increased emphasis on grammar, as displayed in the students' dialogue and written texts, was probably due to Caroline's increased emphasis on grammar during our planning/reflecting meetings and during her interactive writing lessons.

Student Writing and Assessments

The students in Caroline's classroom also appropriated teacher discourse and writing strategies in their own writing. This could be observed in students' partner writing, individual writing, journal writing, and assessments. Her students' writing fluency and writing stamina also increased throughout the intervention. Writing fluency refers to the number of written words and writing stamina refers to an increase in the amount of time spent writing. The complexity of texts written by her students also increased. All partner writing, individual writing, and journal writing was analyzed. Each written sentence was coded as simple, compound, or complex. Simple sentences were defined as an independent clause. Compound sentences were defined as two independent clauses that could stand on their own joined by a coordinating conjunction. Complex sentences were defined as an independent and dependent clause joined by a subordinating conjunction.

It was no surprise that Caroline's students wrote longer and more complex texts as the study progressed, since that is what she modeled during her whole group interactive writing lessons (see Table 4.16). Caroline's interactive writing texts took

more time to compose than Andie's and were longer and more complex. Caroline and her students began writing 6 words during interactive writing and finished writing 43 words. The number of sentences written increased from one to six. During the second half of the intervention she wrote five compound sentences with her students. Caroline's students were able to transfer this knowledge of writing fluency and complexity to their partner, independent, and journal writing activities.

Partner writing.

The students in Caroline's classroom wrote the longest texts during partner writing and these texts became longer as the study progressed. The texts constructed by these students also became more complex as the study progressed. As the study proceeded, Caroline modeled longer and more complex texts during her interactive writing lessons as well. Her writers took up the knowledge of how to write longer and more complex texts during partner writing.

The below average and average writers increased their writing fluency at approximately the same rate (see Table 4.17). The below average writers began the study writing seven words during their partner writing sessions. By the end of the study they were writing 26 words during a partner writing session for a gain in writing fluency of 19 words (see Table 4.18). They were able to spell 74% of the words they wrote correctly (see Table 4.19). They increased the number of sentences they wrote from one to three sentences, and they wrote some compound sentences.

The average writers began the study writing five words during a partner writing session. By the end of the study they were writing 23 words for a gain in writing fluency of 18 words (see Table 4.17). They spelled 85% of the words they wrote correctly (see

Table 4.19). These students increased the number of sentences they wrote from one to five and slightly increased the complexity of the sentences they wrote (see Table 4.20).

The above average writers made the largest gain in writing fluency of all the groups. The above average group began the study writing 17 words during a group writing session and by the end of the study they were writing 48 words (see Table 4.17). This was a gain in writing fluency of 34 words. They spelled 86% of the words they wrote correctly (see Table 4.19). These writers increased the number of sentences they wrote from two to nine sentences. Although these writers were writing more complex texts than the other writers at the beginning of the study, they also slightly increased the complexity of the texts they wrote throughout the intervention. The above average writers wrote the longest and most complex texts while also spelling the largest percentage of words correctly (see Table 4.21).

During partner writing, Caroline and I both significantly assisted the writers at all levels. We encouraged the writers to add more interesting language to their texts, as well as reminded them to use spelling scaffolds around the room. Writers at all levels wrote multiple sentences with varied syntax. The complexity and length of the texts produced during partner writing was due in part to the assistance and encouragement of Caroline and me, as well as the fact that Caroline modeled how to write increasingly longer and more complex texts during her interactive writing lessons.

Individual writing.

As the study progressed, the individual student texts did get longer and more complex, but the students' individual writing was always shorter and less complex than the texts composed during partner writing and whole group interactive writing. The

stronger writer from each partner group made more gains in writing fluency than the weaker partner when it came to individual writing. On the other hand, the percentage of words each student individually spelled correctly was similar to the percentage of words spelled correctly while writing with a partner.

The above average writers in Caroline's class made the most progress in writing fluency, followed by the average writers, and then by the below average writers. Joanna (see Table 4.22), a below average writer, began writing five words during independent writing and finished writing 12 words for a gain in writing fluency of seven words. She spelled 75% of the words she wrote correctly. The number of sentences she wrote increased, but the complexity of these sentences did not. Ryan (see Table 4.23) began writing three words during independent writing and finished writing 11 words for a gain in writing fluency of eight words. He spelled 74% of the words he wrote correctly. The number of sentences he wrote increased slightly, but the complexity of the sentences did not.

Holly (see Table 4.24), an average writer, began writing 12 words during independent writing and finished writing 26 words for a gain in writing fluency of 14 words. She spelled 84% of the words she wrote correctly. The number of sentences she wrote increased, but the complexity of those sentences did not. Paul (see Table 4.25) began writing eight words during independent writing and finished writing 14 words for a gain in writing fluency of six words. He spelled 88% of the words he wrote correctly. The number of sentences he wrote increased slightly, and the complexity of the sentences increased.

Kate (see Table 4.26), an above average writer, began writing 14 words during independent writing and finished writing 26 words for a gain in writing fluency of 14 words. She spelled 81% of the words she wrote correctly. The number and complexity of the sentences she wrote increased. Jake (see Table 4.27) began writing six words during independent writing and finished writing 26 words for a gain in writing fluency of 20 words. He spelled 92% of the words he wrote correctly. The number and complexity of sentences he wrote increased.

The writing that Caroline's students produced individually was shorter and less complex than their partner writing. The texts produced were between one and five sentences in length compared to the one to nine sentences written during partner writing. Perhaps without the discussion and support of a partner, each student was not able to produce as complex a text. It is also possible that writing alone was not as motivating. Each group seemed more engaged on partner writing days as compared to individual writing days.

For Paul, Kate, and Jake, their writing became more complex as the study unfolded. The texts that the class was writing with Caroline during whole group interactive writing were also becoming more complex. These students were able to notice increased sentence complexity and incorporate complexity in their own writing. Complexity was taken up more readily by the above average writers and one of the average writers.

Journal writing.

Although I was not present to observe journal writing in Caroline's classroom, I wanted to analyze it as a measure of transfer of learning. I was curious to see whether the

students in Caroline's classroom were carrying over the skills they were learning from whole group interactive writing lessons, partner writing sessions, and individual writing sessions to their private journal writing. All of the writers in Caroline's classroom wrote less in their writing journals than during partner writing or individual writing. Very rarely did the students write more than one sentence and the written text was usually based on a writing prompt. Caroline would write a few words on the board for the students to copy and then the students would continue writing. None of Caroline's students transferred their knowledge of writing longer and more complex texts to their journal writing. All the journal entries I analyzed were coded as simple sentences. With the exception of Jake, who wrote two simple sentences toward the end of the study, all the students wrote only one sentence in their journals.

Joanna (see Table 4.22) began writing four words during journal writing and finished writing four words for a gain in writing fluency of no words. She spelled 74% of the words she wrote correctly which was similar to her independent writing. Ryan (see Table 4.23) began writing six words during journal writing and finished writing nine words for a gain in writing fluency of three words. He spelled 71% of the words he wrote correctly which was slightly less than his individual writing.

Holly (see Table 4.24) began writing six words during journal writing and finished writing five words for a loss in writing fluency of one word. She spelled 77% of the words she wrote correctly which was less than the 84% of words spelled correctly in her independent writing (see Figure 4.17). Paul (see Table 4.25) began writing five words during journal writing and finished writing four words for a loss in writing fluency

of one word. He spelled 87% of the words he wrote correctly which was similar to the percentage of words he wrote correctly during his independent writing.

Kate (see Table 4.26) began writing six words during journal writing and finished writing 13 words for a gain in writing fluency of seven words. She spelled 84% of the words she attempted correctly which was slightly higher than the percentage of words she wrote correctly during her independent writing. Jake (see Table 4.27) began writing eight words during journal writing and finished writing 15 words for a gain in writing fluency of seven words. He spelled 85% of the words he attempted correctly which was less than the 92% of words he spelled correctly during his independent writing.

Perhaps Caroline's students did not write as much in their journals, generally spelled fewer words correctly, and wrote less complex texts because they were not as interested in the topics they were given to write about. These topics varied each day and did not seem to be connected to what they were learning the rest of the day. Since no purpose setting activity occurred, the writers may have been less engaged with the writing assignment. This type of writing activity lacked purpose, social interaction, and explicit teaching of writing skills. Since Caroline did not respond to or grade their writing journals, students may not have been motivated to do their best work.

Assessment data.

Assessments were given at the beginning and the end of this study for all of Caroline's students. The results of these assessments (see Table 4.28) are described in detail for the six target students in the subsequent section.

At the beginning of the study, Joanna was reading on a level C and on her measure of fluency was able to read three words correctly out of seven in one minute.

She correctly identified 11 out of 20 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed her in the early letter name—alphabetic stage. She had a holistic score of 10 on her writing sample. When I interviewed her about what she does before, during, and after writing she said, "Wait for the teacher to write it on the board. Be quiet. Color, the teacher tells us to color."

By the end of the study, Joanna was reading on a level C and on her measure of fluency was able to read four words correctly out of nine in one minute. She correctly identified 25 out of 40 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed her in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. She had a holistic score of 12 on her writing sample. About writing she said, "You start writing your name and start writing. You do it so perfect, your handwriting. You put your period and you draw a picture."

At the beginning of the study, Ryan was reading on a level B and on his measure of fluency was able to read 6 words correctly out of 10 in one minute. He correctly identified 13 out of 20 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed him in the early letter name—alphabetic stage. He had a holistic score of 11 on his writing sample. When I interviewed him about writing he said, "Get ready. Try to do my best. Put my stuff away."

By the end of the study Ryan was reading on a level E and on his measure of fluency was able to read 23 words correctly out of 27 in one minute. He correctly identified 32 out of 40 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed him in the middle within word pattern stage. He had a holistic score of 18 on his writing sample. When asked about what he does when he writes he said, "I get ready. I get my pencil and

start to write. I try to do good handwriting. I write with my partner. I get cleaned up and put everything away."

At the beginning of the study, Holly was reading on a level E and on her measure of fluency was able to read 33 words correctly out of 35 in one minute. She correctly identified 20 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 17 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed her in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. She had a holistic score of 10 on her writing sample. When I interviewed her about writing she said, "You get a pencil. You put a period at the end. You put your pencil away."

By the end of the study Holly was reading on a level M and on her measure of fluency was able to read 63 words correctly out of 64 in one minute. She correctly identified 66 out of 80 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed her in the middle within word pattern stage. She had a holistic score of 22 on her writing sample. As for writing she said, "I write my name. I write letters. I sound it out or ask my partner. I show it to Mrs. Albert."

At the beginning of the study, Paul was reading on a level C and on his measure of fluency was able to read 20 words correctly out of 28 in one minute. He correctly identified 19 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 14 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed him in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. He had a holistic score of 12 on his writing sample. When asked about what he does when he writes he said, "I get my pencil and I start writing. I think of race cars. I put a period or an exclamation point."

By the end of the study he was reading on a level F and on his measure of fluency was able to read 42 words correctly out of 47 in one minute. He correctly identified 34 out of 40 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed him in the middle within word pattern stage. He had a holistic score of 17 on his writing sample. About writing he said, "We sit on the carpet. We read a book and we write together. We draw pictures. We write sentences. We write a lot and Holly teaches me stuff. I look at a book. I put an exclamation mark."

At the beginning of the study, Kate was reading on a level H and on her measure of fluency was able to read 66 words correctly out of 66 in one minute. She correctly identified 20 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 18 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed her in the middle within word pattern stage. She had a holistic score of 14 on her writing sample. When I interviewed her about writing she said, "Write my name. Write a word. I put my paper in my work folder."

By the end of the study Kate was reading on a level Q and on her measure of fluency was able to read 112 words correctly without error in one minute. She correctly identified 36 out of 40 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed her in the within word pattern stage. She had a holistic score of 22 on her writing sample. About her writing she said, "I get my partner and we write a sentence. We talk about what we are going to write. We think of a sentence we both like. We write our names and give it to Mrs. Albert."

At the beginning of the study, Jake was reading on a level L and on his measure of fluency was able to read 97 words correctly out of 101 in one minute. He correctly

identified 20 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 16 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed him in the middle within word pattern stage. He had a holistic score of 13 on his writing sample. When asked about what he does when he writes he said, "Get out a pencil. Fill in the blank. We come to the carpet."

By the end of the study Jake was reading on a level Q and on his measure of fluency was able to read 120 words correctly out of 121 in one minute. He correctly identified 76 out of 80 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed him in the early syllables and affixes stage. He had a holistic score of 23 on his writing sample. About his writing he said, "We write our name. Talk with each other to see what we are going to write about. We write words on the paper and look up at the chart or just sound it out. Show it to Mrs. Albert. Sometimes she hangs it up in the hall."

Most of the students in Caroline's classroom made progress in writing and reading skills over the course of this study, which reinforces the notion of reading and writing bearing a reciprocal relationship to one another. The exceptions are worth noting though. Joanna made no progress in her reading level and little progress with her reading fluency, spelling, and writing. Part of this lack of progress might have been due to the fact that her partner, Ryan, did most of the writing and talking during their partner writing sessions. At times, Joanna was completely off-task and did not even know what they were writing about. Since I have left the classroom, her teacher has referred her for intervention services. Kate did not make any spelling progress, although she did make progress in all other areas. This may have been because although she did most of the writing in her group, her partner did most of the spelling. Perhaps because Jake was

bored he began spelling out loud all the words Kate was writing. Because of this, Kate did not have to think about how to spell the words she was writing. Through dialogue, Jake and Ryan made more progress than their less conversational partners.

Student Learning Outcomes in Andie's Class

Andie's students appropriated teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing. This internalization of teacher talk could be identified in students' dialogue as well as in their written texts and assessments. Andie's below average, average, and above average took up teacher discourse and writing strategies in different ways.

Student Dialogue

Students in Andie's classroom appropriated teacher discourse related to requesting information, giving information, reformulation of information, and expansion of information. The appropriation of teacher discourse was taken up in different ways among the levels of writers in Andie's class. Requesting and giving information were the most frequently used moves by both Andie and her students. The next most frequently used moves for Andie were reformulation and then expansion. Andie's students used repetition, followed by reformulation, and then expansion.

Requesting and giving information.

In contrast to whole group dialogue, most of the conversation between partners or by individuals in Andie's classroom while composing texts was related to giving information rather than requesting information. Her below average writers requested information 38 times which was between 3% and 21% of the time (see Tables 4.29, 4.30). Her average writers requested information 22 times which was between 13% and

25% of the time (see Tables 4.31, 4.32). Her above average writers requested information 28 times which was between 8% and 22% of the time (see Tables 4.33, 4.34). The occurrence of requesting information increased over the duration of the study for all writers and was probably due to more conversation surrounding longer written texts. Only her above average writers increased the percentage of time they spent requesting information.

During partner writing, Andie's below average writers gave information 140 times which was between 37% and 57% of the time (see Tables 4.29, 4.30). Her average writers gave information 69 times which was between 33% and 83% of the time (see Tables 4.31, 4.32). Her above average writers gave information 128 times which was between 55% and 76% of the time (see Tables 4.33, 4.34). The occurrence of giving information increased over the duration of the study for all writers and was also probably due to more conversation surrounding longer written texts. The percentage of time spent giving information only increased for the average writers in Andie's class. The other groups' percentage of moves related to giving information remained fairly consistent.

This imbalance between requesting information and giving information is similar to what occurred in Caroline's classroom. Students gave each other support throughout the writing process by giving each other information about composition, spelling, and grammar to help them with their writing. The type of information given was very different in the two classrooms examined. In Andie's classroom most of the information given by her below average and average writers was concerned with composition. Recall that the conversation in Caroline's classroom was mostly related to spelling and composition. Again, this is logical since Andie tended to emphasize the idea of

composition over spelling. On 9/17, Andie's average writers composed their text by giving and requesting information (see Figure 4.18):

Garrett: There were 4 octopi and one got eaten by a shrimp.

Garrett: How could a shrimp eat an octopus?

Lindsey: It got eaten by a whale shark.

Garrett: How about there were four shrimp down at the North Pole and one got eaten by the blue whale? How many are left? Now there are three.

The usage and increase in requesting and giving information by students at all writing levels was not surprising. These students were used to lessons taught throughout the rest of the day in which the teacher followed an IRE format. These students had been explicitly taught and had ample time to practice the dialogic moves giving information, and to a lesser extent, requesting information.

Repetition.

Somewhat surprisingly, Andie's students did use repetition in their own talk. Although Andie rarely used repetition in her own talk, her students did use repetition in the conversations they participated in during partner writing. Repetition was used most often by her below average writers (97 times or 36% of the time) (see Tables 4.29, 4.30). There were fewer instances of repetition across all the writing levels in Andie's classroom compared to Caroline's writers and these instances of repetition usually were in regard to composition. Andie's students did not increase the frequency of repetition in their conversations over the course of the intervention.

Most of the interactions that led to repetition moves during partner or individual writing occurred when I was present and I modeled these types of dialogic moves. In the

following example on 9/24, I assisted Andie's below average writers through the use of repetition while they were writing about their favorite sport (see Figure 4.19):

Jennifer: We like golf because. What did you say? It is fun to hit the ball? What did you say Nathan?

Nathan: Because you get to hit the ball.

Suzy: It is fun to hit the ball.

Jennifer: Because it is fun.

Nathan: It is fun to hit the ball in the tube.

Jennifer: In the tube. Are you talking about miniature golf?

Nathan: Yeah, miniature golf.

Jennifer: We like to play golf because it is fun to hit the ball.

Suzy: Because.

In contrast, the students in Caroline's class made these moves regardless of whether Caroline or I were present. Therefore, Caroline's students may have gained a more in depth mastery of how and when using the dialogic move of repetition was advantageous for their learning.

Reformulation and expansion.

As in Caroline's classroom, generally reformulation and expansion occurred at the beginning of the writing session. These dialogic moves were used primarily while discussing composition. The below average writers reformulated or expanded their texts 11 times which was between 0% and 7% of the time (see Tables 4.29, 4.30). The average writers reformulated or expanded their texts 7 times which was between 0% and 27% of the time (see Tables 4.31, 4.32). The above average writers reformulated or expanded

their texts 11 times which was between 0% and 12% of the time (see Table 4.33, 4.34). None of the writers increased their use of reformulation or expansion moves throughout the study. The average and above average writers actually decreased the percentage of time they spent reformulating or expanding their texts throughout the study. When reformulation or expansion did occur, the below average students were aided by either Andie or me and the average students usually participated in these moves without an adult present.

Andie's above average writers reformulated and expanded their texts differently than the above average writers in Caroline's classroom or any of the below average or average writers in either classroom. They continually changed the meaning of their written text throughout the writing process. On 10/1 Andie's above average writers decided to change the message of their text toward the end of the writing session (see Figure 4.20):

Elizabeth: Yeah, let's write another one. The cat is.

Max: Going to eat the frogs?

Elizabeth: Go –ING to eat the –FR –OG. The cat is going to eat the frog.

Max: The cat is going to eat the frog. Guess what I am doing?

Elizabeth: What?

Max: I am writing the word not.

Elizabeth: Why?

Max: Because I don't want the cat to eat the frog.

Elizabeth: Then how come you wanted to write that?

Max: I didn't tell you to write that.

Elizabeth: Let's erase that and write it is actually going to watch TV.

Elizabeth: It. Is. –A –CH –CH Actually –SH –SH –A –L actually Actually go –ING to –WA –WA –CH Waf? That's Waf. I wrote waf. Ahh, backwards C. Watch TV. There, now we are done.

The above average writers were skillful at reformulating and expanding their texts on their own and engaged in this throughout the writing process. Perhaps this was because their attention was not overly consumed by spelling and grammar, so they had more attention to reformulate and expand their sentences throughout the writing process. The most complex texts were written by the above average writers, followed by the average writers, and then the below average writers.

Skills and Strategies

By requesting information of her students, giving information, reformulating, and expanding, Andie taught strategies of writing during her interactive writing lessons. Discussion of how to compose text, how to spell unknown words, and how to use correct grammar occurred during these lessons. When her students had the opportunity to write in partners or independently, they applied these same strategies.

Composition.

As with Caroline's students, Andie's students also composed for an extensive amount of time at the beginning of each writing session. Her below average and average writers would spend about a third of the writing session negotiating what to write. Again, as with Caroline's writers, at the beginning of the study Andie's writers would discuss what they were planning to write about, but then each student would write their own text. As the intervention progressed and Andie reflected on how well Caroline's writers

seemed to be working together, she encouraged her students to share the pen with each other as well. Andie's students were not as successful as Caroline's students with composing texts as a group, but they did make some progress. Andie's below average writers discussed composition 211 times (between 66% and 81% of the time), her average writers discussed it 95 times (between 67% and 100% of the time), and her above average writers discussed it 134 times (between 50% and 86% of the time) (see Tables 4.29-4.34). The amount of talk increased over the course of the study for all students although the percentage of time spent composing stayed relatively consistent for the below average and above average writers. The average writers decreased the amount of time they spent composing texts over the course of the study. The following is an example of how Andie's average writers composed their text about the book *Tuesday* on 10/1:

> *Lindsey: Alright. Let's write the green frog on the lily pad got hit by a blanket.*
>
> *Garrett: Yeah, the green frog at 8:00 pm was flying, found a clothespin, broke a bone and screamed.*
>
> *Lindsey: No that's too long.*
>
> *Garrett: Ok.*
>
> *Lindsey: Ok it's going to be the green frog, the green fat frog was on a clothesline and broke his hat.*
>
> *Jennifer: Do you guys have any ideas yet?*
>
> *Lindsey: We were going to do the frog, the fat frog got hit by a glove.*
>
> *Garrett: A blanket or a towel.*
>
> *Lindsey: Yeah a towel. The fat, ok. The –F fat frog.*

These students negotiated meaning with each other by compromising and combining each other's ideas. The above average students in Andie's classroom also composed text in the same way, except for the fact that they continually composed throughout the entire writing session. For the below average and average writers, once the text was composed it was set in stone and did not change. For her above average students this was not the case. They continued to reformulate and expand their ideas throughout the writing process. Perhaps this was because Andie did not encourage accurate spelling and grammar which will be discussed in the ensuing sections. Since her above average writers' attention was not taken up with decisions about spelling or grammar, they had the available attention to continually compose their written text.

Spelling.

The below average writers, the average writers, and the above average writers in Andie's class all discussed spelling much more than in Caroline's class. Her below average students discussed spelling 69 times (between 15% and 34% of the time), her average students 27 times (between 0% and 32% of the time), and her above average students 66 times (between 5% and 50% of the time) (see Tables 4.29-4.34). Over the course of the intervention, the percentage of time spent discussing spelling decreased for the below average writers, increased for the average writers, and did not change for the above average writers.

Unlike Caroline's class, the writers in the above average group discussed spelling for authentic reasons. They did not know how to spell certain words and tried to figure them out. This discussion of spelling did not necessarily lead to the acquisition of spelling knowledge for Andie's students though. Her students may have talked about

how to spell words more often because they were having difficulties and did not have the strategies and skills to spell the words they needed. Perhaps because of the lack of modeling of scaffolding spelling strategies by Andie, of the target students for this study, only Suzie made gains in spelling. Suzie was adept in using scaffolds around the room and continually left her partner to find how to spell words. Of the seven discussions about spelling scaffolds initiated by students during partner writing, Suzy initiated three of them.

Recall that the topics of conversation related to spelling by Caroline's students evolved over the course of the intervention. They moved from trying to figure out how to spell unknown words solely by sounding them out to engaging in spelling behaviors that drew on scaffolds and strategies available to them. Since Andie did not explicitly model spelling skills and strategies throughout the study, and rarely discussed them during our planning/reflecting meetings, her students were unable to make similar spelling gains as Caroline's students. Perhaps if Andie had introduced word banks or used the word wall as a scaffold as expertly as Caroline had, her students would have made more spelling progress. Her lack of emphasis on spelling instruction, as evidenced by her lack of dialogic moves related to spelling during our reflecting/planning meetings and during her interactive writing lessons, may have hindered her students' ability to make achievement gains in spelling.

Grammar.

The students in Andie's class appropriated her discourse related to capitalization and punctuation during their partner writing. Unlike Caroline's students, Andie's students did not discuss nouns, adjectives, or verbs during their partner writing which

was to be expected since she did not model those writing concepts. Her below average writers discussed grammar ten times, her average writers one time, and her above average writers ten times (see Tables 4.29-4.34). The frequency of conversation related to grammar and the percentage of time spent discussing grammar did not increase over the course of the intervention. Perhaps because Andie did not frequently discuss or model grammar skills and strategies during her whole group interactive writing lessons, her students did not have the opportunity to take up this knowledge and to discuss it or apply it to their writing.

Student Writing and Assessments

The students in Andie's classroom also evidenced appropriation of teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent writing. This could be observed in students' partner writing, individual writing, journal writing, and assessments. Andie's students' writing fluency and writing stamina also increased throughout the interactive writing intervention. The written texts produced by Andie's writers were longer, but not necessarily more complex.

Partner writing.

The students in Andie's classroom wrote the longest and most complex texts during partner writing. These texts became longer, but not more complex as the study progressed (see Tables 4.37, 4.39, 4.40). Throughout the intervention during whole group interactive writing, Andie modeled longer, but not particularly more complex texts (see Table 4.35). Throughout the study she increased the number of words written during interactive writing from 8 to 29 and the number of sentences from one to four. She wrote one complex sentence during the second week and included what she called her favorite

word which was “because”. During the interactive writing intervention, whether it be during partner writing, individual writing, or journal writing, her students duplicated the length and complexity of the texts written during whole group interactive lessons in their own writing. As in Caroline’s classroom, the below average and average writers increased their writing fluency at approximately the same rate. The above average writers increased their writing fluency at a more rapid rate.

The below average writers began the study writing 14 words during their partner writing sessions. By the end of the study they were writing 29 words for a gain in writing fluency of 15 words (see Table 4.37). The below average writers spelled 82% of the words they wrote correctly (see Table 4.38). Their ability to spell words correctly did not increase as their writing fluency increased. These writers increased the number of sentences written from one to eight, but the complexity of these sentences did not increase.

The average writers began the study writing four words during a partner writing session. By the end of the study they were writing 22 words for a gain in writing fluency of 18 words (see Table 4.39). They spelled 87% of the words they wrote correctly, but did not improve their spelling as their writing fluency improved (see Table 4.38). The average writers increased the number of sentences written from one to five, but the complexity of these sentences did not increase.

The above average writers made a larger gain in writing fluency than the other two groups. The above average group began the study writing nine words during a group writing session and by the end of the study they were writing 32 words. This was a gain in writing fluency of 23 words (see Table 4.40). Although the above average writers

made the most gains in writing fluency, they did not make spelling gains. They spelled 95% of the words they wrote correctly (see Table 4.38). The above average writers did increase the number of sentences they wrote from one to seven, but the complexity of these sentences did not increase.

During partner writing, I encouraged Andie's students to write longer and more varied texts. I attempted to remind them of spelling patterns or spelling scaffolds that would be helpful to them while they were writing, but it was usually difficult to locate concrete examples in Andie's classroom. Many times I would be looking around the room for a scaffold to point out and would end up spelling the word for them, because I couldn't come up with anything to connect their learning to.

During partner writing Andie would usually retreat to her desk to grade papers or leave the classroom entirely to run errands. As the study progressed, I encouraged Andie to circulate around the classroom and assist the partner writers. She began doing this towards the end of the study, but her comments for the students were generally evaluative rather than instructional. She would praise her students on how nice their handwriting was or on what a great idea they had decided to write about. Very rarely did she mention anything about spelling or grammar as she sat with the partners. Since Andie put such an emphasis on content over mechanics, it was not surprising that her students made gains in writing fluency, but not spelling, during partner writing. It is also not surprising that her students wrote longer texts, but not more complex texts, during partner writing. This is similar to what Andie modeled during her whole group interactive writing lessons. Her students were taking up the skills she modeled and discussed during her instruction.

Individual writing.

As the study progressed, some individual student texts got longer, but these texts did not get more complex (see Tables 4.41-4.46). In fact, in the case of Garrett, his writing became less complex over the course of the study. These findings are not surprising since the writing Andie modeled during the interactive writing lessons did get longer, but did not get more complex as the study progressed. As in Caroline's classroom, the stronger writer from each partner group made more gains in writing fluency than their partner. Unlike in Caroline's classroom where the percentage of words spelled correctly for each student was similar to the percentage of words written correctly with a partner, the percentage of words spelled correctly for each student was less than the percentage of words written correctly while writing with their partner.

The above average writers in Andie's class made the most progress in writing fluency, followed by the below average writers, and then by the average writers. Suzy (see Table 4.41) began writing six words during independent writing and finished writing 14 words for a gain in writing fluency of 12 words. She spelled 69% of her words correctly. She did not write more sentences or more complex sentences throughout the study. Nathan (see Table 4.42) began writing nine words during independent writing and finished writing 20 words for a gain in writing fluency of 11 words. He spelled 62% of his words correctly. The number of sentences he wrote and the complexity of those sentences did not increase.

Lindsey (see Table 4.43) began writing nine words during independent writing and finished writing 12 words for a gain in writing fluency of three words. She spelled 78% of her words correctly. She did not write more sentences or more complex

sentences by the end of the intervention. Garrett (see Table 4.44) began writing eight words during independent writing and finished writing 15 words for a gain in writing fluency of seven words. He spelled 85% of his words correctly. The number of sentences he wrote increased over the course of the study, but his sentences became less complex.

Elizabeth (see Table 4.45) began writing six words during independent writing and finished writing 24 words for a gain in writing fluency of 18 words. She spelled 90% of her words correctly. She did not increase the number of sentences or the complexity of her sentences. Max (see Table 4.46) began writing five words during independent writing and finished writing 22 words for a gain in writing fluency of 17 words. He spelled 86% of his words correctly. Max did increase the number of sentences he wrote, but did not increase the complexity of those sentences.

In Andie's classroom, the percentage of words spelled correctly for each student was less than the percentage of words written correctly while writing with their partner. Perhaps because each student had gaps in their understanding of spelling patterns, they relied heavily on their partners for support. Without their partners' assistance available, they were unable to spell as many words independently. Also, Andie's students tended to write simple texts. Perhaps if Andie had written more complex texts during the interactive writing lessons, this would have carried over to students' own writing.

Journal writing.

Although I was not present to observe journal writing in Andie's classroom, it was analyzed as a measure of transfer of learning. I was interested to see whether the students in Andie's classroom were carrying over the skills they were learning from

whole group interactive writing lessons, partner writing sessions, and individual writing sessions to their private journal writing. All of the writers in Andie's classroom wrote less in their writing journals than during partner writing or individual writing. Very rarely did the students write more than one sentence and the writing was usually based on a writing prompt. Andie would write a few words on the board for the students to copy and then the students would continue the sentence on their own. Many of these journal writing texts were actually coded as more complex than any of the other writing I examined from Andie's classroom. This was due to the fact she used the word "because" in her writing prompts which the students dutifully copied. "Because" is a subordinating conjunction that signals a complex sentence. These students were copying complex sentences rather than composing them themselves. None of Andie's students constructed compound or complex sentences on their own during journal writing.

Suzy (see Table 4.41) began writing four words during journal writing and finished writing 12 words for a gain in writing fluency of eight words. She spelled 65% of the words she wrote correctly which was somewhat less than the percentage of words she wrote correctly during her individual writing. The amount of text and the complexity of that text did not increase as the intervention progressed. Nathan (see Table 4.42) began writing nine words during journal writing and finished writing eight words for a negative gain in writing fluency of one word. He spelled 65% of the words he attempted correctly which was slightly higher than the percentage of words written correctly during independent writing.

Lindsey (see Table 4.43) began writing 11 words during journal writing and finished writing 31 words for a gain in writing fluency of 20 words. She wrote 86% of

the words she attempted correctly which was higher than the 78% of words she spelled correctly during independent writing. The texts she wrote did get longer, but not more complex, throughout the study. Garrett (see Table 4.44) began writing eight words during journal writing and finished writing 11 words for a gain in writing fluency of three words. He spelled 90% of the words he wrote correctly which was higher than the 85% of words he wrote correctly during independent writing. The sentences Garrett wrote did not increase in length or complexity over the course of the study.

Elizabeth (see Table 4.45) began writing ten words during journal writing and finished writing 29 words for a gain in writing fluency of 19 words. She spelled 90% of the words she attempted correctly which was similar to the percentage of words she wrote correctly during her independent writing. Her texts got longer, but not more complex, by the end of the intervention. Max (see Table 4.46) began writing eight words during journal writing and finished writing 15 words for a gain in writing fluency of seven words. He wrote 83% of the words he attempted correctly which was slightly lower than the amount of words he spelled correctly during his independent writing. As with Elizabeth and Lindsey, the sentences that Max wrote during journal writing increased in length, but not complexity (see Figure 4.21).

As in Caroline's classroom, perhaps Andie's students did not write as much in their journals because they might not have been as motivated by the topics they were given to write about. These topics varied each day and did not seem to be connected to what they were learning the rest of the day. Also, journal writing lacked the social dynamics that they experienced during partner writing, and to some extent, during interactive writing lessons. Some of Andie's students, particularly her above average

writers, did increase their word fluency and the number of sentences they wrote during journal writing. None of her students wrote more complex texts on their own. This is similar to what Andie had modeled during her interactive writing lessons. She wrote longer texts, but not necessarily more complex texts. Therefore, her students were transferring what they had observed into their own writing.

Assessment data.

Assessments were given at the beginning and the end of this study for all of Andie's students. The results of these assessments (see Table 4.47) are described in detail for the six target students in the subsequent section.

At the beginning of the study, Suzy was reading on a level C and on her measure of fluency was able to read four words correctly out of eight in one minute. She correctly identified 15 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment which placed her in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. She had a holistic score of 11 on her writing sample. When asked about what she did before, during, and after writing she said, "I write my name. I don't know. I put it in the basket."

By the end of the study she was reading on a level E and on her measure of fluency was able to read 24 words correctly out of 33 in one minute. She correctly identified 27 out of 40 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed her in the late letter name—alphabetic stage. She had a holistic score of 16 on her writing sample. About her writing she said, "I put my name on my paper. I do sentences. I am writing a sentence. I sound things out. I give it to you."

At the beginning of the study, Nathan was reading on a level B and on his measure of fluency was able to read 3 words correctly out of 12 in one minute. He

correctly identified 17 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 15 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed him in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. He had a holistic score of 12 on his writing sample. When asked what he does while writing he said, "You wait until the teacher tells you you can. Just write. Do good and at the end put a period. Stop and wait for the teacher to call you up to check your work."

By the end of the study Nathan was reading on a level D and on his measure of fluency was able to read 8 words correctly out of 13 in one minute. He correctly identified 32 out of 40 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed him in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. He had a holistic score of 20 on his writing sample. About his writing he said, "We write sentences. We think about them a lot. We keep making up different parts for the next. We draw the picture and then we turn it in."

At the beginning of the study, Lindsey was reading on a level H and on her measure of fluency was able to read 36 words correctly out of 42 in one minute. She correctly identified 20 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 15 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed her in the middle within word pattern stage. She had a holistic score of 12 on her writing sample. When asked what she does while writing she said, "Write my name. Think what I should write. Put it in the 'in' basket."

By the end of the study Lindsey was reading on a level N and on her measure of fluency was able to read 69 words correctly with no errors in one minute. She correctly identified 59 out of 80 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed her in the middle within word pattern stage. She had a holistic score of 22 on her writing sample.

About her writing she said, “Listen to what you say to do. Think what should I write with my partner. We decide things together. Draw the picture and give it to you.”

At the beginning of the study, Garrett was reading on a level F and on his measure of fluency was able to read 36 words correctly out of 39 in one minute. He correctly identified 18 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 13 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed him in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. He had a holistic score of 10 on his writing sample. When asked what he does while writing he said, “Name. Period. Raise your hand.”

By the end of the study Garrett was reading on a level M and on his measure of fluency was able to read 57 words correctly out of 74 in one minute. He correctly identified 33 out of 40 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed him in the middle letter name—alphabetic stage. He had a holistic score of 17 on his writing sample. About writing he said, “We think what we are going to write. Sound out the words. Put periods.”

At the beginning of the study, Elizabeth was reading on a level L and on her measure of fluency was able to read 66 words correctly out of 68 in one minute. She correctly identified 19 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 19 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed her in the middle within word pattern stage. She had a holistic score of 12 on her writing sample. When asked what she does while writing she said, “Write your name on your paper. Put an exclamation mark, question mark, or period at the end of your sentence. Raise your hand and tell the teacher that you are done.”

By the end of the study Elizabeth was reading on a level U and on her measure of fluency was able to read 101 words correctly with no errors in one minute. She correctly identified 70 out of 80 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed her in the middle within word pattern stage. She had a holistic score of 22 on her writing sample. About her writing she said, "Put a capital letter and write the rest in lowercase. Keep your pencil and your hand right. Write neatly on the lines. Don't write capital letters, write lowercase. You put an ending mark and if the word ends in -SH and you want to put an -S you put an -ES."

At the beginning of the study, Max was reading on a level M and on his measure of fluency was able to read 195 words correctly out of 197 in one minute. He correctly identified 20 out of 20 phonemes on the first spelling assessment and correctly identified 14 out of 20 phonemes on the second spelling assessment. This placed him in the middle within word pattern stage. He had a holistic score of eight on his writing sample. When asked what he does while writing he said, "I write my name. I just write. I put it in the 'in' basket."

By the end of the study Max was reading on a level U and on his measure of fluency was able to read 203 words correctly with no errors in one minute. He correctly identified 66 out of 80 phonemes on the spelling assessment which placed him in the middle within word pattern stage. He had a holistic score of 20 on his writing sample. About his writing he said, "We put our name and the date. Doing sentences, words, and letters and trying to spell things right. You check them. Put a period. Put it in the 'in' basket."

Andie's students made no progress in spelling except for Suzy. This finding is not surprising since Andie did not think highly of teaching spelling skills and did not explicitly teach spelling to her students during interactive writing lessons.

Summary of Student Learning Outcomes

The students in Andie's and Caroline's classrooms appropriated teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing. The students in these classrooms internalized their teacher's patterns of discourse. The writing strategies that Andie and Caroline discussed during whole group interactive writing lessons, could be heard in students' voices and seen in students' writing and assessments.

In both classrooms, the students at every achievement level rarely requested information from each other or the teacher. In large group writing lessons the students never requested any information. They only gave information, repeated previous text or answers, reformulated information, or expanded information. Perhaps because they did not have opportunities to request information of their peers in the whole group writing setting, they did not initiate this type of interaction in their own writing sessions.

The teachers and I made a conscious effort in our planning meetings to focus on helping the students with their composition, spelling, and capitalization and punctuation. Because of this, there was very little discussion of word choice and vocabulary development. Probably this would have been helpful for some of the above average writers who weren't as challenged with their writing. Towards the end of the study, the teachers and I discussed the need for vocabulary development as a next step in learning for all the students.

The writers in Andie's classroom did not make as large a gain in writing fluency or writing complexity as Caroline's writers during partner writing, individual writing, or journal writing. Not only did Andie's writers compose less complex text than Caroline's writers, but the percentage of words spelled correctly during partner writing, individual writing, and journal writing was lower for all Andie's students except for Suzy. As described in previous sections, Caroline modeled these skills for her students and her students took up this information in their dialogue and writing.

Andie's students may have written less text and made fewer gains in writing fluency and spelling because she often wrote the text for her students during interactive writing lessons, and therefore, her students were not given the opportunity to practice their writing and spelling skills. Also, because Andie did not usually model spelling, grammar, or complex syntax during the whole group interactive writing lessons, her students spent much of their time discussing what to write, how to spell unknown words, and when to correctly use capital letters and punctuation rather than writing actual text. They may not have had the skills and strategies to solve their writing difficulties because they were not explicitly modeled for them by their teacher.

Even though the same writing intervention, interactive writing, was carried out in the two participating classrooms, the learning outcomes were quite different in the two classrooms. This was probably due in large part to the fact that Caroline was more faithful to the underlying tenants of interactive writing compared to Andie. Caroline was responsive to her students' needs, practiced explicit strategy instruction that was socially situated, and planned authentic lessons with objectives that suited her individual students. Andie, on the other hand, was more concerned with her own engagement with

the interactive writing intervention. Her dialogue during our reflecting and planning meetings was more focused on her disapproval of the process of interactive writing rather than on revising her instruction in response to student needs.

Summary of Chapter

In this chapter, I discussed the findings concerning student and teacher learning based on an interactive writing intervention. The teachers in this study were able to reflect on student responses to varying degrees, both oral and written, to revise their instructional methods in the context of interactive writing. Reflection occurred in different ways for Caroline and Andie. They reflected on their instructional methods on their own in logs and through discussion with me and the other participating teacher regarding student transcripts and student written texts. Caroline successfully revised her instructional methods based on these reflections whereas Andie appeared to depend on Caroline's observations.

The students in both Andie's and Caroline's classrooms appropriated teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent talk and writing. In their independent talk students requested information, gave information, repeated, reformulated, and expanded their writing just as their teachers had done. The strategies that the students evidenced appropriation of in their independent talk, writing, and assessments were composition, spelling, and grammar.

In chapter five, I will offer conclusions based on this research and provide implications of these findings. I will also discuss further research that may be conducted on this topic.

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine how two teachers revised their instructional methods in response to student learning outcomes and how students learned strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. Through formative experiment, the participating teachers and I continually reworked the interactive writing intervention to suit the needs of the teachers and their students. Interactive writing is a dynamic literacy event in which teachers are responsive to each student's writing needs. By co-constructing texts with their teachers and peers, students may be able to compose texts that are more complex than those they could have written on their own. During interactive writing lessons, teachers respect each child's prior knowledge and teach them skills and strategies within their zone of proximal development. Interactive writing should be viewed as a transitional tool to move beginning writers toward independent writing.

In chapter one, I introduced the study and described the problem, purpose, research questions, significance, and limitations. In chapter two, I reviewed the literature related to beginning writing, interactive writing, classroom discourse, and teacher learning. In chapter three, I described the rationale for the research methodology, the role of the researcher, the population and setting, the data collection procedures, the data analysis procedures, and the methods of verification. In chapter four, I presented the findings of the study. In this chapter, I will summarize the findings, offer conclusions

based on this research, and provide implications of these findings for professional developers and teachers. I will also discuss further research that may be conducted on this topic.

Summary of Findings

This study examined how two teachers revised their instructional methods in response to student learning outcomes and how students learned strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing. The same intervention, interactive writing, was presented in both classrooms, but learning occurred in different ways for the participating teachers and students.

Caroline and Her Students

Caroline and her students seemed to learn more during this intervention than Andie and her students. Due to Caroline's ability to reflect on her teaching, she was able to make changes to her instructional methods. Avenues of reflection were viewed as ways of learning for both Caroline and Andie. Through reflection, these teachers learned effective ways to teach their students through interactive writing lessons. For Caroline, learning occurred in regard to finding ways to teach explicit skills and strategies and ways to engage her students during interactive writing lessons. By examining and discussing students' work samples and transcripts, discussing what was happening in her classroom during writing lessons, and reflecting on her own, Caroline was able to make significant changes in her instructional methods that may have led to her students making substantial achievement gains in reading and writing.

Teacher Reflection

Caroline reflected on ways to increase student engagement which included the use of partner writing, the use of questioning during interactive writing lessons, the use of dry erase boards to have every student participating, the importance of purpose setting, and other ways to adjust planning. As the study progressed, Caroline discussed these ways to increase student engagement less and less during our planning/reflecting meetings. The frequency of discussion around student engagement may have decreased because this issue was no longer such a concern for her. She had learned ways to engage all of her students and no longer needed to discuss this topic during our meetings.

The explicit skills and strategies she discussed and reflected on included composition, spelling, and grammar. Discussion of explicit teaching of these skills and strategies increased over the course of the study (see Table 4.7). Perhaps this increase was due to her growing knowledge of how to successfully integrate these topics into her instruction. Caroline typically related anecdotes of her previous lessons and asked questions about how to continue to successfully teach these skills and strategies to her students. On the other hand, Andie's discussion during the planning meetings was different. Andie's conversation often focused on why she thought it was not important to teach writing skills and strategies at this age.

Teacher Dialogue

Throughout the study Caroline also increased the explicit teaching of composition, spelling, and grammar during her whole group interactive writing lessons (see Tables 4.2, 4.3). Since Caroline and her students spent more time constructing longer and more complex texts over the course of the intervention this was not surprising.

What is interesting is that not only did Caroline increase the frequency of her discourse related to these skills and strategies, but she did so towards the end of the study. As the study progressed, Caroline also offered spelling strategies besides sounding out words to her students. By the end of the study, her students became skilled at employing spelling scaffolds available to them in the classroom. Some of these scaffolds included the word wall, the CARE wall, class-constructed word banks specific to the writing purpose, trade books used to set the writing purpose, words students had already written in the class-composed text that were being repeated, and during partner writing and individual writing she directed students to the class-composed interactive writing text completed earlier in the week. Her increase in conversation related to teaching explicit skills and strategies during our planning/reflecting meetings and during her interactive writing lessons may have been part of the reason why her students made more substantial gains in writing and reading than Andie's students.

As the study progressed, both Caroline and Andie took up the dialogic moves that seemed consistent with interactive writing instruction. The moves each teacher participated in included requesting information, giving information, repeating information, and reformulation and expansion of information. The frequency of these moves and the percentage of time spent on these moves did not change significantly over the course of the intervention (see Tables 4.2, 4.3). It is interesting to note that Caroline engaged in the discourse moves of repetition, reformulation, and expansion to a greater degree than Andie. Although both Caroline and Andie spent the majority of their conversations requesting information and giving information, Caroline also engaged in a higher percentage of discourse moves related to repetition, reformulation, and expansion.

Perhaps the use of these dialogic moves was also an important factor in her students' ability to make more achievement gains than Andie's students. Her increased attention to her students' responses and her reformulation, expansion, and repetition of these responses may have been critical to her students' achievement gains.

Student Dialogue

Caroline's students took up the talk that Caroline modeled in reference to composition, spelling, and grammar skills. The percentage of time they spent discussing composition did not change over the course of the intervention, but the frequency of these dialogic moves did (see Tables 4.10-4.15). This was probably due to the fact that her students were spending more time writing, writing longer and more complex texts, and she was modeling longer and more complex texts during the interactive writing lessons. What did change was the focus of these conversations. At the beginning of the study her students would each write their own sentence which did not always lead to a cohesive text. By the end of the study, her students were deciding on the text together and actually taking turns writing each word in the written text (see Figure 4.4).

Student talk related to spelling increased in frequency, but not in percentage of the total time (see Tables 4.10-4.15). Again this increase in frequency was probably due to an increase in amount of time spent writing longer and more complex texts. The focus of these conversations also changed over the course of the intervention. Caroline's students went from only trying to sound out unknown words to using various strategies and scaffolds provided and modeled by Caroline. Caroline's students also increased the frequency of dialogic moves related to grammar and the percentage of time they spent discussing grammar (see Tables 4.10-4.15). This is similar to the way Caroline's

dialogue changed during her interactive writing lessons (see Tables 4.2, 4.3), and as the study progressed she spent more time discussing grammar during her interactive writing lessons. Her students seemed to take up the topics of discussion she presented during interactive writing lessons and inserted them into their own conversations during partner writing.

Caroline's students also participated in the same dialogic moves as Caroline modeled during her interactive writing lessons. The frequency of these moves increased for all students by the end of the study. Perhaps this was due to the fact that writers at all achievement levels were spending more time writing longer and more complex texts, and therefore spending more time conversing. The percentage of time spent requesting information and giving information remained consistent or decreased slightly over the course of the intervention. Caroline's students spent much more time giving each other information rather than requesting information. This is the opposite of what Caroline modeled during her interactive writing lessons. Most of the information given by peers to each other was related to spelling and to a lesser degree to composition. This emphasis on spelling was probably related to the fact that Caroline spent an increasingly larger amount of time modeling different spelling strategies and scaffolds available to support her writers during the study (see Table 4.16).

The percentage of time spent repeating, reformulating, or expanding information stayed consistent or increased slightly over the course of the study. The topic of discussion during these moves was generally related to composition. Caroline's writers participated in these moves more often than Andie's writers. Perhaps the emphasis on

repeating, reformulating, and expanding information supported these students ability to make greater academic gains than Andie's students.

Student Written Texts and Assessments

The students in Caroline's classroom also appropriated teacher discourse and writing strategies in their own writing. This could be observed in students' partner writing, individual writing, journal writing, and assessments. Her students' writing fluency and writing stamina also increased throughout the intervention (see Table 4.17). As the study progressed, her students at all achievement levels wrote longer and more complex texts during partner writing sessions. The individual texts that her students composed were always shorter and less complex than the partner writing texts (see Tables 4.22-4.27). All students increased the length of their individual writing, but only Paul, Kate, and Jake increased the complexity of their individual texts. The texts written during journal writing were shorter and less complex than the texts written during partner writing or individual writing (see Tables 4.22-4.27). When it came to journal writing all of the students wrote longer texts as the study progressed, but did not transfer their knowledge of sentence complexity to these texts.

Assessment data revealed that most of the students in Caroline's class made gains in reading and writing by the end of the study (see Table 4.28). The more capable writer from each partner writing pair made more gains regardless of their achievement level. The opportunity to take on a teaching role may have contributed to these achievement gains.

Andie and Her Students

Andie also changed her instructional methods in reaction to student responses, both oral and written, during interactive writing lessons although the changes in Andie's instructional methods were not as extensive as Caroline's. The focus of her talk during our planning/reflecting meetings and in her reflection logs was quite different than Caroline's. Andie also talked about how to engage her students, but on the other hand, she talked more frequently about how she was having difficulty engaging in the interactive writing process herself. Due to this focus on herself, she did not spend as much time reflecting on student responses as Caroline did. When she did reflect on student responses it was usually through discussion of what Caroline was successfully doing in her own classroom.

Teacher Reflection

Andie reflected during our planning/reflecting meetings and in her reflection logs mostly on her own engagement in the interactive writing intervention (see Table 4.9). Most of her comments related to teacher engagement were about what the planning goal for the lesson was and the fact that she felt teaching the reading process was more important for students at this age than teaching the writing process. Andie was accustomed to following the reading basal provided by the county to plan her reading lessons. The teacher's manual that accompanied the reading series mapped out the discrete skills and strategies that should be taught each day regardless of the needs of particular students. Perhaps Andie's reliance on the reading teacher's manual to aid her in the instructional decision making process hindered her ability to base instructional decisions on her students' individual writing samples. Although I explained to her

several times how to base instructional decisions on the errors in students' writing, she continued to ask me numerous times at each planning/reflecting meeting what the "goal" was for writing the following week. Her concern related to determining a goal for writing did not decrease as the study progressed. Her continued focus on needing to know a single goal for writing each week may have interfered with her understanding of how to revise her instruction based on individual student needs.

Andie also spent a considerable amount of time during each planning/reflecting meeting discussing the fact that she would rather teach reading than writing to her students (see Table 4.9). She believed that teaching her students reading skills and the process of reading was more important at this age than teaching them writing skills or the process of writing. Throughout the study I attempted to explain to her how reading skills could be taught through the writing process, and vice versa, but her concern related to her desire to teach reading instead of writing did not decrease over the course of the intervention. It seems Andie did not fully appreciate the reciprocal relationship between reading and writing and how each supports the learning of the other.

Andie spent less time during our planning/reflecting meetings discussing student engagement than her own engagement (see Table 4.9). When she did discuss student engagement it was in reference to questioning her students during the interactive writing lessons and how to provide opportunities for every student to participate. Andie listened to what Caroline had done previously in her classroom and then was willing to try those same instructional methods in her own classroom. Andie, in contrast to Caroline, continued to struggle with her students' engagement throughout the study. The percentage of time she discussed how to engage her students did not decrease as the study

progressed. Her consistent conversation in regard to how to engage her students may have been because she was not able to revise her instructional methods related to student engagement to a considerable degree.

To a lesser extent, Andie also reflected on ways to explicitly teach skills and strategies through interactive writing during our planning/reflecting meetings and in her reflection logs. Her percentage of talk related to this topic was smaller than Caroline's and did not change from the beginning to the end of the intervention. Although she asked me throughout the study to show her data to illustrate that her students were learning, she rarely used this data to inform her instruction. I showed Andie and Caroline how to analyze student writing and transcripts as a basis for their subsequent instructional decisions, but Andie was slow to make any revisions to her instruction methods. Generally she would need to hear that these changes were working in Caroline's classroom before she would be willing to make any changes. Even if the instructional techniques were working in Caroline's classroom, Andie would not necessarily implement them in her own classroom. Her deeply rooted beliefs about children and writing at this age trumped my attempts to support her ability to revise her instructional methods to a significant degree. She believed that children at this age should be given the opportunity to write creatively and not worry about writing conventions and rules. These beliefs were incongruent with many underlying tenets of interactive writing, so Andie had difficulty viewing this intervention as a viable writing process for her students.

Teacher Dialogue

Andie's focus on her own needs, rather than the engagement or writing instructional needs of her students, also carried over into her interactive writing lessons in

which she did not address the writing needs of her students as adeptly as Caroline had. Her conversation during these lessons did not seem sufficient enough to model the writing process for her students.

Andie did not spend as much of her time as Caroline did during her interactive writing lessons teaching explicit skills and strategies (see Table 4.5). Her teaching of explicit skills such as spelling, punctuation, and grammar during her interactive writing lessons actually decreased over the course of the study. Due to her students' perceived lack of engagement, she began writing the interactive writing texts on her own as the study progressed. Because of this she did not give her students the opportunity to practice their writing skills, nor did she offer her students a model of dialogue that conveyed how to compose increasingly more complex texts. This lack of conversation led to her students' spontaneous spelling of words out loud while she wrote them so that they would be engaged in the writing process. Andie's lack of instruction providing skills, strategies, and scaffolds for her students may have hindered their ability to solve their problems with the writing process and grow in their ability to compose longer and more complex texts with their partners and on their own.

Andie, as Caroline, employed the dialogic moves of requesting information, giving information, repeating responses, reformulating responses, and expanding responses. Since Andie's lessons were shorter in duration (see Table 3.1) and the written texts were shorter in length (see Table 4.35), she participated in these move less often than Caroline did. Just as Caroline had, Andie spent the largest percentage of her time requesting information and giving information. Unlike Caroline, Andie spent very little time repeating, reformulating, or expanding her students' responses (see Table 4.5). Her

participation in more didactic talk may not have been as engaging for her students and may have decreased the students' learning occurring around the written texts.

Student Dialogue

The students in Andie's classroom appropriated teacher discourse related to composition and spelling. As the study progressed, her students talked more about composition, but the overall percentage of time did not increase (see Tables 4.29-4.34). This increase in frequency was probably due to an increased amount of time spent writing longer texts. As the study progressed, Andie's students went from writing sentences independently to writing one cohesive text in which they took turns writing the words.

Andie's students also took up the talk she modeled in reference to spelling. Perhaps since Andie did not participate in as many dialogic moves related to spelling or offered as many strategies to spell unknown words as Caroline had modeled, her students were unable to make as much progress with their spelling achievement. Over the course of the intervention, the percentage of time spent discussing spelling decreased for the below average writers, increased for the average writers, and did not change for the above average writers (see Table 4.30, 4.32, 4.34). Interestingly, the focus of this talk did not change as the intervention progressed. Towards the end of the study, writers at all achievement levels were still solely tying to sound out unknown words. Unlike in Caroline's classroom, Andie's students did not have other strategies or scaffolds to support their learning of new spelling patterns. Perhaps this was because Andie did not regularly model or discuss various spelling strategies and scaffolds during her interactive writing lessons.

The students in Andie's classroom also appropriated teacher discourse related to requesting information, giving information, reformulation of information, and expansion of information (see Tables 4.29-4.34). This is logical since these were the moves that Andie modeled during her interactive writing lessons. As with Caroline's students, Andie's students spent the majority of time giving information to their partners. The frequency of giving and requesting information increased over the course of the study probably due to the fact that the students were spending more time writing longer and more complex texts. Most of this discussion was related to composition which is what Andie emphasized during her interactive writing lessons.

Andie's students used repetition less often than Caroline's students and did not increase their use over the course of the study although the overall amount of conversation between partners did increase. When it came to the dialogic moves of reformulation and expansion, none of the writers increased their use of these moves throughout the study. The average and above average writers actually decreased the percentage of time they spent reformulating or expanding their texts throughout the study. During interactive writing lessons Andie did not emphasize the modeling of these dialogic moves either (see Table 4.5). Perhaps her students were not as able to participate in these moves as adeptly as Caroline's students because they had not seen or heard them modeled. Perhaps the absence of these dialogic moves in the students' conversations was part of the reason her students did not make as significant achievement gains during the intervention (see Table 4.47). Perhaps a more didactic conversation, even between students, is not as beneficial for learning the writing or the reading process.

Student Written Texts and Assessments

The students in Andie's classroom also evidenced appropriation of teacher discourse and writing strategies in their independent writing. This could be observed in students' partner writing, individual writing, journal writing, and assessments. Andie's students' writing fluency and writing stamina also increased throughout the interactive writing intervention. The written texts produced by Andie's writers were longer, but not necessarily more complex.

Andie's students wrote the longest and most complex texts during partner writing (see Tables 4.37, 4.39, 4.40). These texts became longer as the study progressed, but did not necessarily become more complex. This is similar to what Andie modeled during her whole group interactive writing lessons (see Table 4.35). Her students were also not able to spell an increasingly larger number of words correctly at the end of the intervention (see Table 4.38). This may have been because Andie did not specifically model the explicit spelling of unknown words during the interactive writing lessons. Recall that she tended to write most of the words herself and did not encourage her students' to help her with the spelling of the words.

During independent writing, Andie's students wrote shorter and less complex texts than during partner writing (see Tables 4.41-4.46). They also spelled fewer words correctly than while writing with a partner (see Table 4.38). Perhaps without the support of their peers, they were unable to spell unknown words based on their limited knowledge of spelling patterns and scaffolds. As the study progressed, only two of the six target students in Andie's class increased the number of sentences they wrote during

independent writing. None of the students increased the complexity of the sentences they wrote and Garrett actually wrote less complex sentences toward the end of the study.

When it came to journal writing, Andie's students wrote the shortest texts. Many of the sentences her students wrote in their writing journals were coded as complex, but this was because they were copying a writing prompt which contained the word "because". None of her students wrote compound or complex sentences on their own. Andie's students also did not increase the amount of text or the complexity of the texts they wrote by the end of the intervention (see Tables 4.41-4.46). Perhaps because Andie did not model the composition of longer and more complex texts, or how to spell unknown words, her students made little to no progress with writing longer and more complex sentences with the correct spelling of unknown words.

The assessment results indicate that Andie's students did make gains in reading and writing by the end of the intervention, but not as significantly as Caroline's students did (see Table 4.47). Also, only Suzy made any gains in spelling. As with Caroline's students, the more capable writer from each writing pair made greater achievement gains than their partner. Perhaps the opportunity to take on a teaching role led to the solidification of new knowledge.

Conclusions

In the section that follows I present conclusions based on the findings of this study. Conclusions related to teacher learning include barriers to teacher learning, avenues of reflection, support, and the importance of understanding the relationship

between reading and writing. Conclusions related to students' learning include the role of explicit instruction, engagement, and students taking a teacher role.

Teacher Learning

Barriers to Learning

The findings from this study suggest that barriers to teacher learning may be difficult to overcome. Barriers to Andie's learning included her prior beliefs about literacy instruction. She believed that children at this age should not learn writing mechanics, that her students would not be engaged in an interactive writing format, and that literacy lessons should have one pre-specified goal for all students. Since Andie was unwilling to change her deep rooted beliefs little change in her instructional methods occurred.

Some reasons why these barriers were difficult to overcome may have included the length of time that she had been teaching and her view of me as a researcher rather than mentor. Since Andie had previously taught first grade for seven years, she probably felt as though her instructional methods had evolved over time and she was content with her current instructional methods. The interactive writing format and my development of this approach may have placed her in a defensive stance. She had spent her entire teaching career developing her writing instruction and so she may have viewed this intervention as an attack on her current teaching methods and her overall ability to teach. Caroline, on the other hand, was new to teaching first grade and was willing to try new methods and change her growing understanding of how to teach the writing process because she may not have yet developed a strong belief system about how children at this age learn to write.

The relationship between Andie, Caroline, and me may have also impacted this study. Andie and I had taught first grade together previously, and I assumed that our relationship would be beneficial for building new knowledge together. Richardson (1994) and Risko, et al. (2008) noted that it is important that a professional development facilitator not be seen as the expert, but as a co-constructor of new knowledge. Unfortunately, it seemed as though Andie had changed her view of me since I had left the classroom. I was no longer a colleague, but rather a researcher. She questioned all of my ideas and was skeptical that I knew what I was talking about. This was in stark contrast to the conversations we had while teaching together. We would regularly share ideas and suggestions with one another. As the study began, I thought that the lack of a prior relationship with Caroline would hinder our ability to build new knowledge together, but that was not the case.

I believe that Andie's lack of modification of her instructional methods came down to the fact that I never really understood her pedagogical beliefs. Perhaps because Andie and I were once colleagues, I made assumptions about her pedagogical beliefs based on our prior conversations. These faulty assumptions were not supported by my observations of her instructional methods and discussions at our planning/reflecting meetings. Although we had many conversations during these meetings in which I asked her about her beliefs, either she was not adept at communicating these beliefs, she did not want to fully share these beliefs with me, or I was unable to fully understand what she was telling me because my understanding was clouded by my previous assumptions of her teaching. Progressive discourse refers to the process of jointly constructing knowledge through conversation. Without a basis to start our conversation, Andie and I

had difficulty building any mutual understanding or new knowledge together. Due to this lack of communication, Andie was not able to reflect and revise her instructional methods in response to her individual students' needs as effectively as Caroline did. My assumptions about her beliefs may have actually hindered our ability to build new knowledge together.

Avenues of Reflection

The findings from this study also suggest that teachers may prefer different avenues of reflection to aid in the learning process. The process of reflection seemed paramount to Caroline's learning throughout the intervention. She reflected on her own teaching in private as well as through discussion with Andie and me at our planning/reflecting meetings. Throughout the study, it seemed as though Caroline found it easier to reflect on her own or through discussion with us rather than through examining student writing samples and transcripts. As she reflected on the interactive writing lessons she was teaching in her classroom, she came up with solutions to problems she saw occurring. Her flexibility and learning during the intervention probably affected the achievement outcomes of her students.

Andie reflected very differently than Caroline. Although she did discuss her instruction, she was generally unable to solve the problems that she saw occurring. She continued to deal with some of the same issues throughout the entire intervention. Andie mostly reflected on the instructional methods that Caroline was successfully implementing in her classroom. This is similar to what Meirink, et al. (2009) observed during their study. She seemed to struggle with the ability to reflect on her own or by analyzing student written texts and transcripts. Her reflection may not have led to

significant learning because it may have been inauthentic: she did not believe in the interactive writing intervention and was only reflecting because I asked her to. Scanlon, et al. (2005) found this to be true of her research participants as well. Teachers must be committed to the intervention for authentic and lasting change to occur. In Andie's case, reflection did not lead to the internalization of change and revision of her instructional methods. Perhaps this hindered her students' ability to make as much academic progress as Caroline's students.

Support

This study also illustrates that it is important for teachers to be given time and support to implement this type of interactive instructional format. Teachers who are not familiar with teaching in this manner may require more time and support than other teachers. At the beginning of the study, Andie was particularly uncomfortable with the format, so I offered to model more lessons in her classroom so that she could see that her students were engaged and enjoying the lesson. When she observed my teaching she agreed that, even though her students were more active and noisy than she was use to, they were engaged and were learning. She still had difficulty throughout the intervention having confidence that her students were engaged while she was teaching. I therefore interjected during Andie's lessons more often than Caroline's lessons. I tried to support her emerging understanding of this interactive instructional format through my comments and suggestions during her lessons. I believe that given support and time, Andie would be able to implement interactive writing to a greater degree, but at her own pace and comfort level.

It may also important to schedule time for colleagues to meet and reflect together. This type of reflective community seems to lead to more teacher change (Meirink et al., 2009; Scanlon et al., 2005; Scharer, 1992). However, providing teachers with an opportunity to reflect with colleagues may not be enough for change in instructional practices to occur. It is also important for professional development facilitators, and the participating teachers themselves, to understand their underlying pedagogical beliefs. Only then might changes to instructional methods gradually occur over time with ongoing support and conversation.

Some teachers might also need a network of colleagues to reflect with after the intervention or professional development period has ended. Collegial discussion may allow change to be sustained over time. I assume that Caroline will continue to reflect on her learning with her colleagues, but I do not expect Andie to do so since she does not seem to possess the necessary desire, skills, and/or knowledge to change her instructional methods. Andie seemed so content and set in her ways and beliefs that I'm not sure how much time, how many student examples, or how many data sources it will have take to substantively change her instructional methods.

Reading and Writing Relationship

With any interactive writing intervention, it is important to assess teacher knowledge and beliefs from the start. Research illustrates that reading and writing bear reciprocal relationships with one another (McCarrier, Fountas & Pinnell, 2000; Shanahan and Lomax, 1986; Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, & McGinley, 1989). Unfortunately, not all teachers are aware of this relationship or have a full understanding of how each influences the other. For example, Andie never truly understood this relationship which

may have impacted her ability to implement the intervention effectively. She reported on 10/9 during our planning and reflecting meeting that she would rather teach reading than writing and that reading skills were more important for her students at this age. I tried to explain to her how she could teach reading skills through writing, and vice versa, but she was unable to recognize the connection. On the other hand, Caroline seemed to understand this reciprocal relationship as evidenced through her dialogue and revisions to her instructional methods. She was able to plan a writing lesson in which her students wrote about the setting, problem, and solution to the book *Knufflebunny*. Through this lesson, and others, her students reinforced their understandings of reading skills such as the structure of narratives, as well as their understanding of writing skills such as composition, spelling, and grammar.

When explaining the connection between writing and reading it may be important to use examples from participating teachers' individual students (Bauer & Garcia, 2002; Estrada, 2005). During our planning and reflecting meetings, I usually brought up the topics for discussion and at the beginning of the study discussed changes that should be made, but did not ground these suggestions with examples of particular students in Andie's and Caroline's classrooms. Andie began asking me for data to show that her students were making progress in writing so I decided to begin bringing student transcripts and examples of students' written texts. These artifacts seemed to lead to more meaningful dialogue. Caroline was able to make more substantial changes to her instructional methods based on these data sources. Although Andie agreed with my suggestions, she did not implement the suggested changes.

Student Learning

Explicit Literacy Instruction

Prior research (Englert, 1992; Graham & Harris, 2003) indicates the importance of explicitly teaching skills and strategies during writing lessons. The research suggests that teacher modeling may make these skills and strategies more visible to struggling readers and writers. Numerous studies have also examined the explicit teaching of skills and strategies through interactive writing lessons and how this instruction affected student outcomes (Brotherton and Williams, 2002; Button, Johnson, & Furgerson, 1996; Cicalese, 2003; Craig, 2006; Pinnell & McCarrier, 1994; Runge, 1997). All of these studies indicated that interactive writing instruction led to an increase in student achievement on measures such as composition, spelling, grammar, vocabulary, and letter formation.

Caroline's explicit teaching of writing skills, such as composition, spelling, and grammar, may have also led her students to make achievement gains in both spelling and writing. Caroline's students not only evidenced appropriation of these skills and strategies in their assessments, but also through their ability to efficiently work independently on increasingly more difficult texts. Andie, on the other hand, did not explicitly teaching writing skills through interactive writing lessons, nor reading skills through writing, as effectively. This may have been because of her beliefs about teaching writing at this age or her lack of understanding of the reciprocal relationship between reading and writing. The findings from this study support previous research that writing skills and strategies must be explicitly taught for most students to take up and use in their own independent talk and writing.

Engagement

As explicit literacy skills are modeled through dialogue, the engagement of students must also be considered. According to Turner and Paris (1995) there are six critical features of motivating tasks. They give choice, are challenging, allow control, have consequences, foster collaboration, and allow students to construct meaning. All of these features were present during this interactive writing intervention. During partner and individual writing students were often offered the choice of several topics to write about. These writing activities were also challenging because of their teachers' ability to respond to each student's individual needs (Vygotsky, 1978). This was accomplished in both of the participating teachers' classrooms through questioning students and having every student participating during interactive writing lessons. As students play an active role in their learning, they tend to build understanding and knowledge (Maloch, 2002; McIntyre, Kyle, and Moore, 2006).

Students were also allowed control over their strategy construction while writing. They made choices constantly in regard to how they would compose the text and spell unknown words. Through collaboration with their peers during partner writing they were able to challenge and support each other's understandings and constructions of new knowledge. By constructing meaning, these students may have been making sense of what they were learning. If something does not make sense it is hardly motivating. Open tasks, such as writing, may help students understand authentic purposes for reading and writing. The consequence of an open task is not a right or wrong answer. "Open tasks seldom have one correct answer, allowing students to focus on whether they achieved their purposes, whether they used good tactics, and whether they tried to do their best"

(Turner & Paris, 1995, p. 671). When errors do occur, these students may realize that their strategies are not working and try others. Through the complex and dynamic process of writing new knowledge may be formed in an engaging context.

A survey by Graham, Harris, Fink-Chorzemppa, and MacArthur (2003) found that although many teachers claim to be responsive to their students' needs they are not. Andie was generally not responsive to her students' individual needs and she seemed to be aware of this. She was comfortable with her instructional methods and was unwilling to change her lack of responsiveness. It may be important for participating teachers to be cognizant of their view of responsive teaching, but it may also be important that these teachers desire to make a change to their instructional methods.

Other research suggests that purpose and authenticity may also be engaging for students (Purcell-Gates, Duke, Martineau, 2007; Wharton-McDonald, 2001). By introducing writing lessons and connecting those to students' prior knowledge, students may be able to write more coherent and complex texts. Writing for a purpose rather than just to complete an assignment encourages students to think more critically about the construction of new knowledge (Guthrie and Humenick, 2004). According to Guthrie and Wigfield (2001), students "coordinate their strategies and knowledge (cognition) within a community of literacy (social) in order to fulfill their personal goals, desires, and intentions (motivation)" (p. 404). Perhaps this is why the students in this study wrote the longest and most complex texts during partner writing and individual writing which were connected to the interactive writing lesson each week. Journal writing, on the other hand, was not connected to other activities occurring in the classroom and therefore may not have been as engaging. By responding to each student's individual needs and connecting

writing lessons to their prior knowledge Caroline, and to some extent Andie, were able to engage their students in the writing process.

Dialogue

It seems that the dialogic moves that lead to more authentic conversation, such as repetition, reformulation, and expansion, may be necessary for learning to occur in writing. Modeling the moves of requesting information and giving information should not be eliminated from teachers' repertoires, but a more equitable balance should be found between the more didactic and the more dialogic moves described in this study. Andie, like most teachers (Cazden, 1988; Nystrand, 1997), almost exclusively requested and gave information to her students. This type of dialogue provided a model of talk that was more conducive to quizzing rather than conversing. When adults speak to each other, vary rarely do they participate in an IRE sequence. Therefore, it does not make sense to exclusively model this type of talk for students. Requesting information and giving information are important dialogic moves when modeling the writing process, but for authentic conversation to occur repetition, reformulation, and expansion may be necessary. Nystrand (1997) identifies this type of dialogue as reciprocity. Reciprocity occurs when mutual knowledge becomes shared knowledge through conversation and reflection. Perhaps only through modeling *and* authentic conversation, and the dialogic moves associated with them, can significant learning outcomes occur in an interactive writing format.

It may also be necessary to model different types of dialogue for instruction on discrete writing concepts, as well as for students at differing achievement levels. The results from this study show that requesting information and giving information are

important dialogic moves when teaching students the skills and strategies associated with composition, spelling, and grammar. Repetition, reformulation, and expansion were employed almost exclusively with the composition phase of writing. This may have occurred since a large portion of the interactive writing lesson focused on the composition of the written text.

Teacher Role

Partner writing seemed to provide a teacher role for one of the peers who made more progress than their partner across all levels of writers (see Tables 4.28, 4.47). For the below average writers, this may have been their first opportunity to take on this type of leadership role. Perhaps the opportunity to discuss the writing skills and strategies that were taught during the whole group interactive writing lessons aided in the learning of new knowledge. As these students explained their new understanding to their peers, they may have solidified this new knowledge. It is also possible that having the opportunity to take on the teaching role may lead to greater self-esteem and self-efficacy which may have influenced their learning as well. This may have been particularly true for the struggling writers in both Caroline's and Andie's classrooms.

This finding supports previous research on the sociocultural theory of learning. According to Englert, Mariage, and Dunsmore (2006), through social interactions among peers language serves as a mediator of understanding. New knowledge is constructed through these conversations. Bomer and Laman's (2004) study also examined how students position themselves in classroom situations as teacher, critic, or learner. In my study the roles of teacher and learner were modeled, but not the role of critic. Perhaps

students only position themselves in roles they have previously seen modeled by their teacher and peers.

Cazden (1988) described four benefits of conversational discourse between peers. These benefits included learning through defending one's own thinking, supporting each other to complete more difficult tasks that they would not have been able to complete on their own, and through exploratory talk students begin to understand new concepts more fully. Through partner writing and the opportunity for one student to take on the role of the teacher, both students benefited from the conversational discourse that occurred between them. This finding supports previous theory (Bakhtin, 1986; Vygotsky, 1986; Wells, 1999; Wertsch, 1991) that students learn through dialogue that supports their ability to modify or strengthen previous understandings. This type of conversational dialogue acts as a scaffold as new information is modeled by teachers or peers. These patterns of discourse may assist in students' internalization of strategy construction.

Implications

The findings from this research study present implications for professional development and practice. Implications for professional development include the need to further understand teacher beliefs about early writing instruction as well as effective pedagogy. Additional research may need to be conducted to further explore the contribution of writing to early reading achievement, explore how dialogue and different genres of writing are connected, and to design interactive professional development.

Implications for Practice

Recall that formative experiment is defined as "a research methodology that addresses specifically how promising instructional interventions might be implemented in classrooms to achieve valued pedagogical goals" (Reinking & Bradley, 2004, p. 151). This method of research focuses on determining how instruction can be modified to increase student achievement outcomes. This approach is appealing to many teachers, because the findings can inform their instructional methods and may lead to increased student achievement. This study ascertained that for increased student writing and reading achievement to occur teachers must revise their instructional methods to teach writing skills and strategies explicitly, model dialogic moves that lead to the construction of new knowledge, engage students in interactive writing lessons, and allow all students to take a teaching role in the classroom writing community.

Explicit Literacy Instruction

Explicit literacy instruction is important for student learning. This seems like common sense, but some teachers, including Andie, do not recognize the value of teaching writing skills explicitly to their students. Some teachers believe that their students are not quite ready to learn these skills, or that they will learn the skills implicitly through writing practice. This study, among others (Englert, 1992; Graham and Harris, 2003), illustrates that this is not the case. Teachers may need support in understanding how important it is to teach explicit literacy skills. Writing interventions should address this issue with teachers who are struggling with integrating this type of instruction into their teaching methods. Through extensive modeling and reflection with

professional development facilitators the importance of explicit literacy instruction may be embraced by participating teachers.

The explicit teaching of composition and spelling occurred most often during this intervention. Caroline's classroom also discussed grammar on a regular basis. These topics were not surprising since children at this age are developing their understandings of how to compose coherent text and how to spell unknown words (Clay, 1979). Punctuation, capitalization, and parts of speech are also developmentally appropriate topics for this age. Explicit literacy instruction during interactive writing lessons should not be limited to these topics though. Future professional development should include other appropriate topics for discussion which may include vocabulary development and text structure based on written genre.

Modeling Dialogue

It seems as if students internalize teacher's talk to the extent that it facilitates their own individual learning. Since every student is different and may learn more effectively through different dialogic moves, it may be important that teachers expand their dialogic moves they employ during literacy lessons. Many teachers are comfortable with requesting information and giving information, but should also try to integrate repetition, reformulation, and expansion as well. These moves seem to be beneficial for student learning at all achievement levels, because they validate student voices and may be more engaging and motivating for students. These moves produce more authentic conversation which may be essential for the co-construction of knowledge to occur. Other dialogic moves, which were not observed extensively in these classrooms, such as requesting and giving justification for a response, requesting or giving an opinion, or giving relevant

examples may also be supportive of student learning. Since not as much discussion occurred in regard to the explicit instruction of grammar, vocabulary development, or text structure, research may need to be conducted to determine which type of dialogic moves are best suited to instruction on these concepts.

Engaging Students

As explicit literacy skills are modeled through dialogue, the engagement of students must also be considered. To engage all students teachers may need to make changes to their instructional methods and even the layout of their classroom. Engaging students in an interactive writing format will require teachers to teach in an authentic manner which is responsive to the needs of all students.

Changes in the classroom environment may need to occur gradually over time if teachers are uncomfortable. By making small changes to the classroom environment and instructional format over time, teachers may be more comfortable with the change (Bauer and Garcia, 2002). Teaching in an interactive format does look very different from the traditional lecturing format of instruction. Teachers who are changing their instruction to a more interactive format may need to accept more noise and activity during instruction than they are accustomed to**.** Over the course of this study, Caroline, Andie, and I reflected on the format and the teachers' instructional techniques and developed changes incrementally. These changes could not have occurred exclusively at the beginning of the study, because they were based on observations and reflections of student growth. Through vehicles of reflection, at least Caroline was able to take ownership of the intervention and make it suitable for her needs.

Peer Interactions

The findings of this study also suggest that it is important for struggling writers to be given the opportunity to occupy a leadership role in group writing settings. Many struggling writers, or even average writers for that matter, have never been given the opportunity to take a leadership role during writing lessons. Whether this opportunity is during whole group instruction or small group writing sessions, these students are usually silenced by more capable peers who control the writing process. When given the chance to act as a teacher to a peer, not only does a struggling student's self-esteem probably increase, but they also have opportunity to solidify their new knowledge. By teaching someone else writing skills, they are given the chance to think about their new knowledge in different ways, and consolidate their understandings of these skills.

Implications for Professional Development

Just as with students, interventions for teachers need to be based on their individual needs. It is paramount that time is spent before an intervention begins by examining the content and pedagogical knowledge of participating teachers. Only then can an intervention be designed to supportively address the needs of teachers. Once baseline data had been gathered, it is also important to keep in mind a variety of methods to support teachers. Individual teachers will respond to different modes of reflection. It is the responsibility of the professional development facilitator to provide different avenues of reflection for the participants to choose from. This reflection may include analysis of student writing samples, observation or discussion of successes in other participating teachers' classrooms, or may involve reflecting in private, as in logs or journals.

It is also important that professional developers take an interest in revising their own methods to meet the needs of the intervention participants. Through formative experiment, professional development facilitators should continue to rework their intervention over time based on the strengths and weaknesses of the teachers participating in the intervention.

Teacher Learning

The findings from this study support other research (Bauer and Garcia, 2002; Meirink et al., 2009; Scanlon et al., 2005; Scharer, 1992) which asserts that teachers need ample time and an avenue to reflect on their teaching. With so many obligations on teachers' time this may be difficult to achieve. During this study we blocked off time once a week after school to have our meetings, during which I facilitated much of the reflection. I talked the most during these meetings and introduced or led most of the discussions. The participating teachers generally confirmed what I was saying, but did not elaborate on the topics being discussed. Perhaps if I had prompted more teacher led conversation, both teachers would have constructed more knowledge of how to reflect on their own teaching and how to apply this knowledge to revise their instructional methods.

Another limitation of this study was that this intervention only lasted for 12 weeks. Perhaps if I had supported both of the participating teachers over an entire school year they would have had more time to reflect on their teaching and would have been more likely to make changes in their instructional methods. Also, if I had allowed Andie to direct more of the conversation, she might have chosen topics to discuss that were more beneficial to her learning. It may also have been beneficial for Andie and Caroline to spend more time analyzing their students' dialogue and written texts in order to make

instructional decisions. This practice may have enhanced their ability to revise their instruction based on their individual student's strengths and weaknesses.

When considering future literacy interventions, perhaps it would be helpful for a facilitator to model numerous interactive lessons at the beginning of the intervention. Not only would this give participants more time to build their constructions of what interactive writing is, but it might also provide participants an avenue to reflect in a non-threatening manner. This study suggests that it is sometimes difficult for teachers to reflect and accept feedback on their own teaching. By modeling interactive writing lessons, and reflecting on the facilitator's teaching instead of the participating teachers' instruction, the ownership would be shifted. By practicing how to reflect on someone else's instruction, teachers may learn how to reflect, accept feedback, and revise instruction without feeling judged or threatened by their colleagues. Once rapport has been established between facilitator and teacher and the facilitator feels the teacher has the knowledge to reflect and revise instruction based on feedback, then the roles could be reversed. Teachers may then use the knowledge they gained reflecting on the facilitators teaching and apply it to their own teaching.

Not only is it necessary for interactive writing intervention facilitators to be knowledgeable about the process of writing, but also about participating in progressive discourse to facilitate teacher learning. Throughout this study, I was an active participant working with the participating teachers to support their learning and the implementation of interactive writing into their classrooms. Although I felt comfortable with my knowledge of the interactive writing intervention, I was sometimes confused as to how to support Andie with her professional growth. When I ran out of alternative methods of

supporting her I felt hopeless. I discussed with my colleagues ways of varying my support to support Andie, but none of these changes seemed to help.

Understanding Teacher Beliefs

It may be more difficult for some teachers to reflect on their instruction than others. This difficulty may be related to how long or how strongly they hold beliefs related to instruction. Perhaps Caroline found it less difficult to change her instructional methods because she was a new teacher and had not had the time to solidify her beliefs related to writing compared to Andie who had taught much longer. It also may be difficult to reflect on something you don't believe in. If an intervention goes against a teacher's current pedagogical beliefs, then change is unlikely to occur. Teachers must be committed to an intervention before lasting changes to beliefs and learning can occur. On 11/19 Andie wrote in her reflection log:

> *Although Jennifer tried every which way to give me ownership of the writing, I often felt like a mere implementer, which may go back to the stricter guidelines (or the lack of appreciation of why the guidelines are in place) of the program or my own sinful rebellion! I often compared it to the type of writing I normally do and I struggled to find ways that this program was more beneficial. Maybe that was the entire frustration for me???*

Since Andie never accepted the interactive writing intervention as a viable alternative to her current teaching methods, she could not rethink her instructional methods and make lasting changes.

To attempt to change teacher beliefs, facilitators must first begin to understand where the participating teachers are on the continuum of interactive instruction. From

that point, they can then gradually implement small changes toward the desired goal (Bauer and Garcia, 2002). Possibly because I had taught first grade with Andie previously, I held assumptions about her pedagogy and knowledge that influenced the way in which I approached the intervention with her. I assumed that she was expert at reflecting on her students' reposes, both oral and written, and knew how to revise her instruction based on these responses. I quickly realized that this was not the case, and I spent a few weeks backpedaling during our planning and reflecting meetings.

I changed the focus of our conversations to address what I perceived as deficiencies in her understanding of responsive instruction. This shift in focus may have lead to more misunderstanding and a loss in confidence in me by Andie. She told me later on 11/20, that she felt I did not truly understand the intervention at the beginning of the study and that she believed that we both learned throughout the intervention. I think this perceived lack of understanding was related to my dialogic shift in focus with Andie. In hindsight, it would have been more beneficial to Andie's learning if I had not made assumptions about her instruction and worked more diligently to understand where she was on the learning continuum as I had done with Caroline. Perhaps Caroline was more successful in revising her instructional methods because I was supporting her in her own zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). When planning literacy interventions in the future, it may be beneficial to avoid pairing facilitators and teachers who have a previous working history. What is gained with a solid rapport at the beginning of the study may be undermined by faulty assumptions throughout the study.

The Reciprocal Relationship between Reading and Writing

After teachers have knowledge of the reciprocal relationship between reading and writing and an understanding of how to reflect on their teaching, the focus of professional development should move to ways to plan integrated literacy lessons. As students compose their text they are organizing their perspectives and exploring different ways of structuring their texts. These thought processes will be influenced by their reading that has occurred previously, because students will base their writing on texts they have read before. This process will continue in a recursive manner in which the writer will think about what they are currently reading based on their writing and composition that has already occurred. Reading skills such as comprehension and text structure can be explored and practiced through interactive writing lessons. Since writing is a means of thinking, students may reformulate and reinforce their understandings of these reading concepts through writing (Shanahan, 2006).

It is important for teachers also to plan reading lessons that integrate writing skills. Reading strengthens students' understandings of sequencing, vocabulary development and word choice, and how to form more complex texts. Reading different genres exposes students to different text structures and purposes for writing. This knowledge may then serve as a scaffold for their individual written texts when writing for different audiences and purposes.

Since the No Child Left Behind Act (2002) was enacted, the focus of literacy instruction in many primary classrooms has been on teaching the discrete skills of phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Since writing was not specifically mentioned as one of the critical elements of reading instruction by

the NRP, many teachers are not spending time teaching it. This is occurring even though research consistently has demonstrated that writing is an integral part of any literacy program intended to prevent reading difficulties (Edwards, 2003; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). As this study suggests, reading skills can be taught through writing, particularly interactive writing in the primary grades. Caroline taught her students phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension through her dialogue and revisions to her instructional methods during interactive writing lessons.

Previous research has shown that not all processes of reading and writing are related, but illustrates a positive relationship between spelling and reading, writing and reading vocabulary, reading comprehension and complexity of writing, and reading comprehension and writing structure or organization (Shanahan, 1984). This research adds to the growing base of research on the reciprocal relationship between reading and writing. It reinforces the connection between reading comprehension and writing, as well as put forth the connection between reading fluency and writing, based on the rereading of student constructed texts (see Tables 4.28, 4.47).

In this study, reading fluency and reading comprehension gains were observed in Caroline's students to a more significant extent than Andie's students. Perhaps interactive writing led to these gains in Caroline's classroom, because she followed the basic tenets of interactive writing more closely than Andie did. Composing written texts led students to reread their text numerous times. This rereading of text may have led to increases in reading fluency. Gains in reading comprehension could have been facilitated through the conversations that occurred during Caroline's interactive writing lessons. Caroline and her students discussed the main ideas, characters, setting, problems, and

solutions of the books she read aloud in order to set the purpose for writing each week. She also integrated these reading concepts into her students' written text.

Further Research

Researchers need to look more closely at what particular aspects of the writing process lead to gains in reading. In this study, students in both classrooms spent time discussing the composition of their written texts, how to spell unknown words, and issues related to grammar. It is possible that by composing their own texts students expanded their knowledge of how to comprehend texts written by other authors. Also by attempting to spell unknown words they may have increased their ability to read unknown words. Through the repeated readings of their own texts these students may have also increased their reading fluency. Further research needs to more closely examine if and how these reading and writing processes are connected.

Also, more research is needed to determine the specific role of dialogic moves in the role of writing leading to reading growth. Other dialogic moves such as requesting and giving justification for a response, requesting or giving an opinion, or giving relevant examples, which might support student learning during interactive writing lessons, but were not present and therefore not examined during this study, should also be explored. Researchers should also examine how dialogue and the type of reading skills addressed during interactive writing lessons vary according to the genre being composed.

Summary of Chapter

Interactive writing is a dynamic literacy event that is carried out differently in different settings based on the needs of the students present. Additional qualitative

research on the topic of interactive writing and dialogue would provide a fuller picture of how knowledge is co-constructed in these classrooms. By examining teachers with varying degrees of experience and different teaching backgrounds a more comprehensive explanation of learning could be developed. Also, multiple case studies would provide teachers with authentic examples of how to integrate interactive writing into their own instructional methods.

With the current emphasis on scripted programs, researchers and teachers need to exercise caution. The goal of interactive writing is to teach writing skills in response to the need of individual students. Scripted lessons will never address the needs of all, if even most, of the students in a classroom. By presenting teachers with the framework of interactive writing and supporting them through the learning process of how to base instruction on the needs of their students, both teachers and students may gain knowledge from this type of instruction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: TABLES

Table 3.1: Frequency and Duration of Observations in Minutes

	Purpose Setting											
	9/15	9/22	9/24	10/6	10/7	10/13	10/27	10/28	11/10	11/11	11/17	11/18
Andie	30	30	18		12	17		7		12		8
Caroline	23	25	21	21		15	19		15		19	
	Interactive Writing											
	9/16	9/23	9/30	10/7	10/14	10/28	11/11	11/18				
Andie	19	26	20	12		22	20	9				
Caroline	27	30	22	22	21	16	25	30				
	Paired Writing											
	9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/15	10/29	11/12	11/18	11/19	11/20		
Andie	11	13	14	10		17	16	7	19			
Caroline	11	12	12	19	12	16	16			23		
	Individual Writing											
	9/18	9/25	10/2	10/3	10/9	10/16	10/30	11/13	11/20			
Andie	20	16		13	13		28		42			
Caroline	18	15	9		10	19	25	20				

Table 4.1: Definition of Discourse Moves

Discourse Move	**Description**
Requesting Information	Asking inauthentic or authentic questions
Giving Information	Answering questions, offering information, or offering suggestions
Repetition	Repeating what was previously stated by either yourself or someone else
Reformulation and Expansion	Reformulation refers to the act of changing the text and reworking the syntax of the sentence throughout the writing process. Expansion refers to adding more information, and therefore words, to the written text.

Table 4.2: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Caroline during Interactive Writing Lessons

		9/16	9/23	9/30	10/7	10/14	11/11	11/18
Requesting Information		**14**	**25**	**14**	**14**	**31**	**21**	**41**
	Composition	6	12	6	14	16	9	17
	Spelling	6	9	4		12	4	19
	Punctuation	2	4	2		3	2	5
	Grammar			2			6	
Giving Information		**3**	**5**	**9**	**2**	**4**	**6**	**11**
	Composition	2	3	2	2	1	2	5
	Spelling	1	2	2	0	3	3	4
	Punctuation			1				
	Grammar			4			1	2
Repetition		**5**	**10**	**4**	**0**	**4**	**5**	**8**
	Composition	5	10	4		4	5	7
	Spelling							1
	Punctuation							
	Grammar							
Reformulation and Expansion		**1**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**4**	**2**	**2**
	Composition	1	3	2	1	4	2	1
	Spelling							1
	Punctuation							
	Grammar							

Table 4.3: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Caroline during Interactive Writing Lessons

		9/16	9/23	9/30	10/7	10/14	11/11	11/18
Requesting Information		**61%**	**58%**	**48%**	**82%**	**73%**	**62%**	**66%**
	Composition	26%	28%	20%	82%	38%	27%	27%
	Spelling	26%	21%	14%		28%	12%	31%
	Punctuation	9%	9%	7%		7%	5%	8%
	Grammar			7%			18%	
Giving Information		**13%**	**12%**	**31%**	**12%**	**9%**	**18%**	**18%**
	Composition	9%	7%	7%	12%	2%	5%	8%
	Spelling	4%	5%	7%		7%	9%	7%
	Punctuation			3%				
	Grammar			14%			4%	3%
Repetition		**22%**	**23%**	**14%**	**0%**	**9%**	**15%**	**13%**
	Composition	22%	23%	14%		9%	15%	10%
	Spelling							3%
	Punctuation							
	Grammar							
Reformulation and Expansion		**4%**	**7%**	**7%**	**6%**	**9%**	**5%**	**3%**
	Composition	4%	7%	7%	6%	9%	5%	3%
	Spelling							
	Punctuation							
	Grammar							

Table 4.4: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Andie during Interactive Writing Lessons

		9/16	9/30	10/7	10/28	11/11	11/18
Requesting Information		**17**	**16**	**20**	**22**	**34**	**16**
	Composition	12	2	19	12	17	12
	Spelling	1	9	1	7	10	1
	Punctuation	4	1		2	5	
	Grammar		4		1	2	3
Giving Information		**9**	**14**	**8**	**11**	**11**	**14**
	Composition	6	5	7	6	7	13
	Spelling	2	5	1	4	3	
	Punctuation	1	3				
	Grammar		1				1
Repetition		**1**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**2**	**1**
	Composition	1	1		2	2	1
	Spelling						
	Punctuation						
	Grammar						
Reformulation and Expansion		**0**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**0**
	Composition		1	1	1		
	Spelling						
	Punctuation						
	Grammar						

Table 4.5: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Andie during Interactive Writing Lessons

		9/16	9/30	10/7	10/28	11/11	11/18
Requesting Information		**63%**	**50%**	**69%**	**60%**	**72%**	**52%**
	Composition	44%	6%	66%	32%	36%	39%
	Spelling	4%	28%	3%	19%	21%	3%
	Punctuation	15%	3%		6%	11%	
	Grammar		13%		3%	4%	10%
Giving Information		**33%**	**44%**	**28%**	**31%**	**24%**	**45%**
	Composition	33%	16%	25%	19%	17%	42%
	Spelling	6%	16%	3%	12%	7%	
	Punctuation	4%	9%				
	Grammar		3%				3%
Repetition		**4%**	**3%**	**0%**	**6%**	**4%**	**3%**
	Composition	4%	3%		6%	4%	3%
	Spelling						
	Punctuation						
	Grammar						
Reformulation and Expansion		**0%**	**3%**	**3%**	**3%**	**0%**	**0%**
	Composition		3%	3%	3%		
	Spelling						
	Punctuation						
	Grammar						

Table 4.6: Frequency of Topics of Discussion by Caroline during Planning/Reflecting Meetings

	9/17	9/24	10/2	10/9	10/16	10/30	11/13	11/20
Skills and Strategies	**8**	**2**	**5**	**11**	**6**	**5**	**13**	**12**
Composition	1	1	1				1	3
Spelling	6		3	10	4	5	8	5
Grammar	1	1	1	1	2		4	4
Student Engagement	**6**	**4**	**2**	**9**	**2**	**1**	**5**	**3**
Collaboration	6	2	1	6		1		3
Participation				3	2		4	
Diversity of Topic		1	1					
Purpose Setting		1					1	
Teacher Engagement	**1**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Format								
Lesson Planning								
Lesson Duration	1	1		1				
Importance of Teaching Writing								

Table 4.7: Percentage of Topics of Discussion by Caroline during Planning/Reflecting Meetings

	9/17	9/24	10/2	10/9	10/16	10/30	11/13	11/20
Skills and Strategies	**53%**	**29%**	**71%**	**52%**	**75%**	**83%**	**72%**	**80%**
Composition	12%	50%	20%					17%
Spelling	76%		20%	45%	67%	100%	31%	25%
Punctuation					33%			33%
Grammar				10%			15%	
Spelling Scaffolds			40%	45%			31%	17%
Length of Texts							8%	8%
Complexity of Texts	12%	50%	20%				15%	
Student Engagement	**40%**	**57%**	**29%**	**43%**	**25%**	**17%**	**28%**	**20%**
Partner Writing	100%	50%	50%	67%		100%		100%
Every Student Responding				33%	100%		80%	
Expansion of Lessons		25%	50%					
Purpose Setting		25%					20%	
Teacher Engagement	**7%**	**14%**	**0%**	**5%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**
Format								
What is the Goal?								
Time (Too Long)	100%			100%				
Rather Teach Reading								
Feedback to Students		100%						

Table 4.8: Frequency of Topics of Discussion by Andie during Planning/Reflecting Meetings

	9/17	9/24	10/2	10/9	10/16	10/30	11/13	11/20
Skills and Strategies	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**7**	**1**	**0**
Composition								
Spelling	1		1	1		7	1	
Grammar		1						
Student Engagement	**2**	**2**	**0**	**3**	**0**	**2**	**3**	**3**
Collaboration	2	1		3		2		1
Participation							3	
Diversity of Topic								
Purpose Setting		1						2
Teacher Engagement	**24**	**5**	**8**	**17**	**0**	**9**	**13**	**13**
Format	21			4		4	4	8
Lesson Planning	1	1	5	5			4	4
Lesson Duration	1	1	3				1	
Importance of Teaching Writing	1	3		8		5	4	1

Table 4.9: Percentage of Topics of Discussion by Andie during Planning/Reflecting Meetings

Topic	9/17	9/24	10/2	10/9	10/16	10/30	11/13	11/20
Skills and Strategies	**4%**	**13%**	**11%**	**5%**	**0%**	**39%**	**6%**	**0%**
Composition								
Spelling	4%		11%	5%		39%	6%	
Grammar		13%						
Student Engagement	**6%**	**25%**	**0%**	**14%**	**0%**	**11%**	**18%**	**19%**
Collaboration	6%	13%		14%		11%		6%
Participation							18%	
Diversity of Topic								
Purpose Setting		12%						13%
Teacher Engagement	**90%**	**62%**	**89%**	**81%**	**0%**	**50%**	**76%**	**81%**
Format	78%			19%		22%	24%	50%
Lesson Planning	4%	13%	56%	24%			24%	25%
Lesson Duration	4%	13%	33%				4%	
Importance of Teaching Writing	4%	36%		38%		28%	24%	6%

Table 4.10: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Caroline's Below Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/15	10/29	11/12	11/20
Requesting Information		**12**	**9**	**6**	**5**	**8**	**2**	**4**	**12**
	Composition	2	3	2	2	3		2	5
	Spelling	10	6	4	3	4	2	2	6
	Punctuation					1			1
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**14**	**9**	**9**	**12**	**14**	**11**	**13**	**48**
	Composition	2	3	4	5	4	3	6	18
	Spelling	11	6	4	7	9	5	7	23
	Punctuation	1		1		1	3		7
	Grammar								
Repetition		**6**	**2**	**8**	**5**	**6**	**2**	**4**	**19**
	Composition	4	2	8	5	6	2	4	16
	Spelling	2							3
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**9**
	Composition			1					9
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.11: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Caroline's Below Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/15	10/29	11/12	11/20
Requesting Information		**38%**	**45%**	**25%**	**23%**	**29%**	**13%**	**19%**	**14%**
	Composition	6%	15%	8%	9%	11%		10%	6%
	Spelling	32%	30%	17%	14%	14%	13%	9%	7%
	Punctuation					4%			1%
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**44%**	**45%**	**38%**	**56%**	**50%**	**74%**	**62%**	**55%**
	Composition	6%	15%	17%	23%	14%	20%	29%	20%
	Spelling	34%	30%	17%	32%	32%	34%	33%	26%
	Punctuation	4%		4%		4%	20%		9%
	Grammar								
Repetition		**18%**	**10%**	**33%**	**23%**	**21%**	**13%**	**19%**	**21%**
	Composition	12%	10%	33%	23%	21%	13%	19%	18%
	Spelling	6%							3%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**0%**	**0%**	**4%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**10%**
	Composition			4%					10%
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.12: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Caroline's Average Writers during Partner Writing

	9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/15	10/29	11/12	11/20
Requesting Information	**5**	**4**	**1**	**4**	**5**	**8**	**5**	**6**
Composition	3	2	1	4	3	3	3	4
Spelling	2	2			2	3	2	
Punctuation						2		2
Grammar								
Giving Information	**15**	**13**	**3**	**17**	**20**	**26**	**16**	**31**
Composition	11	9	1	10	13	9	10	18
Spelling	4	4		7	5	14	6	10
Punctuation			2		2	3		3
Grammar								
Repetition	**8**	**4**	**4**	**6**	**7**	**15**	**10**	**14**
Composition	7	4	4	5	7	12	9	11
Spelling	1			1		3	1	3
Punctuation								
Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion	**1**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**4**	**1**	**2**
Composition	1			1		4	1	2
Spelling								
Punctuation								
Grammar								

Table 4.13: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Caroline's Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/15	10/29	11/12	11/20
Requesting Information		**17%**	**19%**	**13%**	**14%**	**16%**	**15%**	**15%**	**11%**
	Composition	10%	10%	13%	14%	9%	6%	9%	8%
	Spelling	7%	9%			7%	6%	6%	
	Punctuation						3%		3%
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**52%**	**62%**	**37%**	**61%**	**62%**	**49%**	**50%**	**58%**
	Composition	38%	43%	13%	36%	41%	17%	31%	34%
	Spelling	14%	19%		25%	14%	26%	19%	18%
	Punctuation			24%		7%	6%		6%
	Grammar								
Repetition		**28%**	**19%**	**50%**	**21%**	**22%**	**28%**	**32%**	**27%**
	Composition	24%	19%	50%	18%	22%	22%	29%	21%
	Spelling	4%			3%		6%	3%	6%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**3%**	**0%**	**0%**	**4%**	**0%**	**8%**	**3%**	**4%**
	Composition	3%			4%		8%	3%	4%
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.14: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Caroline's Above Average Writers during Partner Writing

	9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/15	10/29	11/12	11/20
Requesting Information	**1**	**5**	**11**	**7**	**4**	**10**	**8**	**5**
Composition		1	1	2		1	2	2
Spelling	1	4	10	5	4	9	6	3
Punctuation								
Grammar								
Giving Information	**7**	**8**	**14**	**20**	**17**	**25**	**19**	**35**
Composition	5	3	1	6	7	9	9	17
Spelling	1	5	12	13	10	15	9	11
Punctuation	1			1				1
Grammar			1			1	1	6
Repetition	**5**	**5**	**10**	**8**	**9**	**17**	**9**	**14**
Composition	5	5	10	7	9	17	8	10
Spelling				1			1	4
Punctuation								
Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion	**4**	**3**	**4**	**3**	**4**	**4**	**4**	**3**
Composition	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	3
Spelling								
Punctuation								
Grammar								

Table 4.15: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Caroline's Above Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/15	10/29	11/12	11/20
Requesting Information		**6%**	**24%**	**28%**	**18%**	**12%**	**18%**	**20%**	**9%**
	Composition		6%	3%	5%		2%	7%	4%
	Spelling	6%	18%	25%	13%	12%	16%	13%	5%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**41%**	**38%**	**36%**	**53%**	**50%**	**45%**	**48%**	**61%**
	Composition	29%	14%	3%	16%	21%	16%	23%	30%
	Spelling	6%	24%	30%	34%	29%	27%	23%	19%
	Punctuation	6%			3%				2%
	Grammar			3%			2%	2%	10%
Repetition		**29%**	**24%**	**26%**	**21%**	**26%**	**30%**	**22%**	**25%**
	Composition	29%	24%	26%	18%	26%	30%	20%	18%
	Spelling				3%			2%	7%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**24%**	**14%**	**10%**	**8%**	**12%**	**7%**	**10%**	**5%**
	Composition	24%	14%	10%	8%	12%	7%	10%	5%
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.16: Sentence Complexity for Caroline's Interactive Writing Texts

Date	Total Words	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/11	6	1	S
9/16	15	1	S
9/23	19	3	S,S,S
9/30	11	1	S
10/14	8	1	C
10/28	21	2	C,C
11/11	10	1	C
11/18	43	6	S,S,S,S,S,C

Table 4.17: Word Fluency Gains for Caroline's Students

Student	Partner Writing	Individual Writing	Journal Writing
Joanna	19	7	0
Ryan	19	8	3
Holly	18	19	-1
Paul	18	7	-1
Kate	34	14	7
Jake	34	20	7

Table 4.18: Sentence Complexity for Caroline's Below Average Partner Writers

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/17	7	6	1	S
9/24	16	9	2	S,S
10/1	9	5	1	S
10/8	14	8	3	S,S,S
10/15	5	4	1	S
10/29	9	7	1	C
11/12	6	6	1	S
11/20	26	23	3	S,C,S

Table 4.19: Percentage of Words Spelled Correctly for Caroline's Students

Student	Partner Writing	Individual Writing	Journal Writing
Joanna	74%	75%	89%
Ryan	74%	74%	71%
Holly	85%	84%	77%
Paul	85%	88%	87%
Kate	85%	81%	84%
Jake	85%	92%	85%

Table 4.20: Sentence Complexity for Caroline's Average Partner Writers

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/17	5	4	1	S
9/24	10	17	3	S,S,S
10/1	7	7	1	S
10/8	26	20	5	S,S,S,S,S
10/15	14	14	1	C
10/29	22	20	3	S,S,S
11/12	16	12	2	S,S
11/20	23	22	5	S,S,S,S,S

Table 4.21: Sentence Complexity for Caroline's Above Average Partner Writers

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/17	17	13	2	C,C
9/24	14	14	3	S,S,S
10/1	23	19	2	S, CX
10/8	27	20	4	S,S,S,S
10/15	11	8	1	S
10/29	14	11	1	C
11/12	20	18	2	C,S
11/20	48	45	9	S,S,S,S,S,S,S,S,S

Table 4.22: Joanna's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	5	4	2	S,C
9/18	5	2	1	S
9/25	15	11	3	S,S,S
10/2	4	4	1	S
10/9	6	6	2	S,S
10/16	4	3	1	S
10/30	7	4	1	S
11/3	12	10	3	S,S,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	4	4	1	S
9/16	4	3	1	S
9/29	11	10	1	S
10/10	3	2	1	S
10/28	4	3	1	S
11/11	4	3	1	S

Table 4.23: Ryan's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	3	3	1	S
9/18	12	7	1	C
9/25	11	9	2	C,S
10/2	6	3	1	S
10/9	5	5	1	S
10/16	5	4	1	S
10/30	9	6	1	S
11/3	11	9	2	S,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	6	5	1	S
9/16	9	8	1	S
9/29	12	10	1	S
10/10	5	4	1	S
10/28	4	4	1	S
11/11	9	7	1	S

Table 4.24: Holly's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	12	7	1	C
9/18	5	4	1	S
9/25	11	10	2	S,S
10/2	12	11	1	S
10/9	6	4	1	S
10/16	22	20	3	S,S,S
10/30	26	22	4	S,S,S,S
11/3	20	19	4	S,S,S,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	6	4	1	S
9/16	9	8	1	S
9/29	12	10	1	S
10/10	5	4	1	S
10/28	6	5	1	S
11/11	5	3	1	S

Table 4.25: Paul's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	8	8	1	C
9/18	7	6	1	S
9/25	15	11	2	S,S
10/2	5	5	1	S
10/9	9	7	1	S
10/16	17	15	1	C
10/30	13	13	2	S,C
11/3	14	12	2	S,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	5	5	1	S
9/16	3	2	1	S
9/29	5	2	1	S
10/10	5	3	1	S
10/28	4	4	1	S
11/11	4	4	1	S

Table 4.26: Kate's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	14	8	3	S,S,S
9/18	18	13	1	C
9/25	13	12	2	C,S
10/2	7	5	1	S
10/9	5	5	1	S
10/16	22	17	2	S,CX
10/30	26	24	2	C,C
11/3	23	20	4	S,S,CX,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	6	6	1	S
9/16	7	7	1	S
9/29	6	6	1	S
10/10	5	2	1	S
10/28	4	4	1	S
11/11	13	10	1	S

Table 4.27: Jake's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	6	5	1	S
9/18	18	18	3	S,S,S
9/25	9	9	1	S
10/2	7	6	1	S
10/9	6	6	1	S
10/16	19	17	2	C,C
10/30	26	23	5	S,S,S,S,S
11/3				
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	8	6	1	S
9/16	9	9	1	S
9/29	12	9	1	S
10/10	8	8	1	S
10/28	12	10	2	S,S
11/11	15	12	1	S

Table 4.28: Assessment Results for Caroline's Students

Student		RL	WCPM	Spelling	Writing
Joanna	Pre	**C**	**3/7**	Early letter name—alphabetic	**10**
	Post	**C**	**4/9**	Middle letter name—alphabetic	**12**
Ryan	Pre	B	6/10	Early letter name—alphabetic	11
	Post	E	23/27	Middle within word pattern	18
Holly	Pre	E	33/35	Middle letter name—alphabetic	10
	Post	M	63/64	Middle within word pattern	22
Paul	Pre	C	20/28	Middle letter name—alphabetic	12
	Post	F	42/47	Middle within word pattern	17
Kate	Pre	H	66/66	**Middle within word pattern**	14
	Post	Q	112/112	**Middle within word pattern**	22
Jake	Pre	L	97/101	Middle within word pattern	13
	Post	Q	120/121	Early syllables and affixes	23

Table 4.29: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Andie's Below Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/29	11/12	11/13	11/19
Requesting Information		**7**	**2**	**1**	**4**	**4**	**10**	**4**	**6**
	Composition	4	2	1	3	4	9	3	5
	Spelling	3			1		1	1	1
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**22**	**12**	**16**	**16**	**20**	**24**	**14**	**16**
	Composition	11	6	4	9	10	17	7	8
	Spelling	11	6	9	7	8	5	7	6
	Punctuation			2		1	2		2
	Grammar			1		1			
Repetition		**9**	**11**	**11**	**14**	**9**	**13**	**18**	**16**
	Composition	9	11	10	14	9	12	17	15
	Spelling						1	1	1
	Punctuation								
	Grammar			1					
Reformulation and Expansion		**3**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**1**
	Composition	3	1	1		2	1	2	1
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.30: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Andie's Below Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/29	11/12	11/13	11/19
Requesting Information		**17%**	**8%**	**3%**	**12%**	**11%**	**21%**	**11%**	**15%**
	Composition	10%	8%	3%	9%	11%	19%	8%	12%
	Spelling	7%			3%		2%	3%	3%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**54%**	**46%**	**55%**	**47%**	**57%**	**50%**	**37%**	**41%**
	Composition	27%	23%	14%	26%	28%	35%	18%	21%
	Spelling	27%	23%	32%	21%	23%	11%	19%	14%
	Punctuation			6%		3%	4%		6%
	Grammar			3%		3%			
Repetition		**22%**	**42%**	**39%**	**41%**	**26%**	**27%**	**47%**	**41%**
	Composition	22%	42%	36%	41%	26%	25%	44%	38%
	Spelling						2%	3%	3%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar			3%					
Reformulation and Expansion		**7%**	**4%**	**3%**	**0%**	**6%**	**2%**	**5%**	**3%**
	Composition	7%	4%	3%		6%	2%	5%	3%
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.31: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Andie's Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/29	11/12	11/13	11/19
Requesting Information		**2**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**8**	**1**	**3**
	Composition	2	1	1	3	2	5	1	2
	Spelling			1			3		1
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**5**	**4**	**5**	**8**	**10**	**21**	**5**	**11**
	Composition	5	4	1	6	7	10	4	9
	Spelling			4	2	3	10	1	2
	Punctuation						1		
	Grammar								
Repetition		**1**	**2**	**4**	**1**	**0**	**12**	**2**	**3**
	Composition	1	2	4	1		12	2	3
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**1**	**1**	**4**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1**
	Composition	1	1	4					1
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.32: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Andie's Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/29	11/12	11/13	11/19
Requesting Information		**22%**	**13%**	**13%**	**25%**	**17%**	**20%**	**13%**	**17%**
	Composition	22%	13%	7%	25%	17%	12%	13%	11%
	Spelling			6%			8%		6%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**56%**	**50%**	**33%**	**67%**	**83%**	**51%**	**62%**	**61%**
	Composition	56%	50%	6%	50%	58%	24%	50%	50%
	Spelling			27%	17%	25%	24%	12%	11%
	Punctuation						3%		
	Grammar								
Repetition		**11%**	**24%**	**27%**	**8%**	**0%**	**29%**	**25%**	**17%**
	Composition	11%	24%	27%	8%		29%	25%	17%
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**11%**	**13%**	**27%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**6%**
	Composition	11%	13%	27%					6%
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.33: Frequency of Discourse Moves by Andie's Above Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/29	11/12	11/13	11/19
Requesting Information		**3**	**3**	**6**	**2**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**6**
	Composition	3	2	4	2	3	2	1	4
	Spelling		1	2		1		1	2
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**21**	**15**	**28**	**16**	**16**	**16**	**6**	**15**
	Composition	8	5	11	9	12	13	2	8
	Spelling	12	10	13	5	4	1	4	6
	Punctuation	1		4	2		2		1
	Grammar								
Repetition		**6**	**4**	**12**	**5**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**5**
	Composition	6	4	10	5	2	3	2	3
	Spelling			2					2
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**4**	**0**	**5**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1**
	Composition	4		5	1				1
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.34: Percentage of Discourse Moves by Andie's Above Average Writers during Partner Writing

		9/17	9/24	10/1	10/8	10/29	11/12	11/13	11/19
Requesting Information		**9%**	**14%**	**12%**	**8%**	**18%**	**10%**	**20%**	**22%**
	Composition	9%	9%	8%	8%	14%	10%	10%	15%
	Spelling		5%	4%		4%		10%	7%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Giving Information		**61%**	**68%**	**55%**	**67%**	**73%**	**76%**	**60%**	**56%**
	Composition	24%	23%	21%	38%	55%	62%	20%	30%
	Spelling	34%	45%	26%	21%	18%	5%	40%	22%
	Punctuation	3%		8%	8%		9%		4%
	Grammar								
Repetition		**18%**	**18%**	**24%**	**21%**	**9%**	**14%**	**20%**	**18%**
	Composition	18%	18%	18%	21%	9%	14%	20%	11%
	Spelling			4%					7%
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								
Reformulation and Expansion		**12%**	**0%**	**9%**	**4%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**4%**
	Composition	12%		9%	4%				4%
	Spelling								
	Punctuation								
	Grammar								

Table 4.35: Sentence Complexity for Andie's Interactive Writing Texts

Date	Total Words	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/11	8	1	S
9/16	10	1	CX
9/23	19	3	S,S,S
9/30	7	1	S
10/28	17	2	S,S
11/11	29	4	S,S,S,S

Table 4.36: Word Fluency Gains for Andie's Students

Student	Partner Writing	Individual Writing	Journal Writing
Suzy	15	12	8
Nathan	15	11	-1
Lindsey	18	3	20
Garrett	18	7	3
Elizabeth	23	18	19
Max	23	17	8

Table 4.37: Sentence Complexity for Andie's Below Average Partner Writers

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/17	14	11	1	CX
9/24	16	13	3	S,S,S
10/1	7	5	1	S
10/8	14	3	3	S,S,S
10/29	18	16	1	S
11/12	29	29	8	S,S,S,S,S,S,S,S

Table 4.38: Percentage of Words Spelled Correctly for Andie's Students

Student	Partner Writing	Individual Writing	Journal Writing
Suzy	82%	69%	65%
Nathan	82%	62%	65%
Lindsey	87%	78%	86%
Garrett	87%	85%	90%
Elizabeth	95%	90%	91%
Max	95%	86%	83%

Table 4.39: Sentence Complexity for Andie's Average Partner Writers

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/17	4	4	1	S
9/24	17	12	2	C,S
10/1	8	7	1	S
10/8	23	18	3	S,CX,S
10/29	14	13	2	S,S
11/12	22	20	5	S,S,S,S,S

Table 4.40: Sentence Complexity for Andie's Above Average Partner Writers

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/17	9	8	1	CX
9/24	15	13	3	S,S,S
10/1	29	25	3	CX,S,S
10/8	14	14	3	S,S,S
10/29	26	26	2	S,S
11/12	32	32	7	S,S,S,S,S,S,S

Table 4.41: Suzie's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
9/11	6	4	1	S
9/18	11	7	2	CX,S
9/25	13	6	3	S,S,S
10/3	6	6	1	S
10/9	6	6	1	S
10/30	18	13	1	S
11/20	14	9	3	S,S,S

Journal Writing

Date	Total Words	Spelled Correctly	# of Sentences	Type of Sentences
8/25	4	4	1	S
9/16	7	4	1	S
9/29	4	4	1	S
10/10	5	3	1	S
10/28	7	4	1	CX
11/11	12	8	2	S,S

Table 4.42: Nathan's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	9	7	2	S,S
9/18	10	5	2	S,S
9/25	15	6	2	S,C
10/3	7	6	1	S
10/9	5	3	1	S
10/30	21	15	2	S,S
11/20	20	12	3	S,S,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	9	6	1	CX
9/16	9	9	1	S
9/29	5	3	1	S
10/10	3	2	1	S
10/28	7	4	1	S
11/11	8	5	1	CX

Table 4.43: Lindsey's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	9	7	2	S,S
9/18	15	14	2	S,S
9/25	16	8	3	S,S,S
10/3	7	7	1	S
10/9	9	6	2	S,S
10/30	12	11	2	S,S
11/20				
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	11	9	1	CX
9/16	10	10	1	S
9/29	17	13	4	S,S,S,S
10/10	28	26	3	S,S,S
10/28	17	15	2	S,S
11/11	31	24	4	S,S,S,S

Table 4.44: Garrett's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	8	8	1	C
9/18	6	3	1	C
9/25	18	17	3	S,S,S
10/3	6	5	1	S
10/9	5	3	1	S
10/30	14	10	2	S,S
11/20	15	15	3	S,S,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	8	6	1	S
9/16	8	8	1	S
9/29	3	3	1	S
10/10	3	3	1	S
10/28	8	7	1	S
11/11	11	10	1	S

Table 4.45: Elizabeth's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	6	5	1	S
9/18	5	4	1	S
9/25	19	16	2	C,S
10/3	8	8	1	S
10/9	12	12	1	C
10/30	20	19	2	S,S
11/20	24	21	1	S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	10	9	1	CX
9/16	14	14	1	CX
9/29	8	7	1	S
10/10	20	19	3	S,S,S
10/28	17	13	1	CX
11/11	29	26	2	S,S

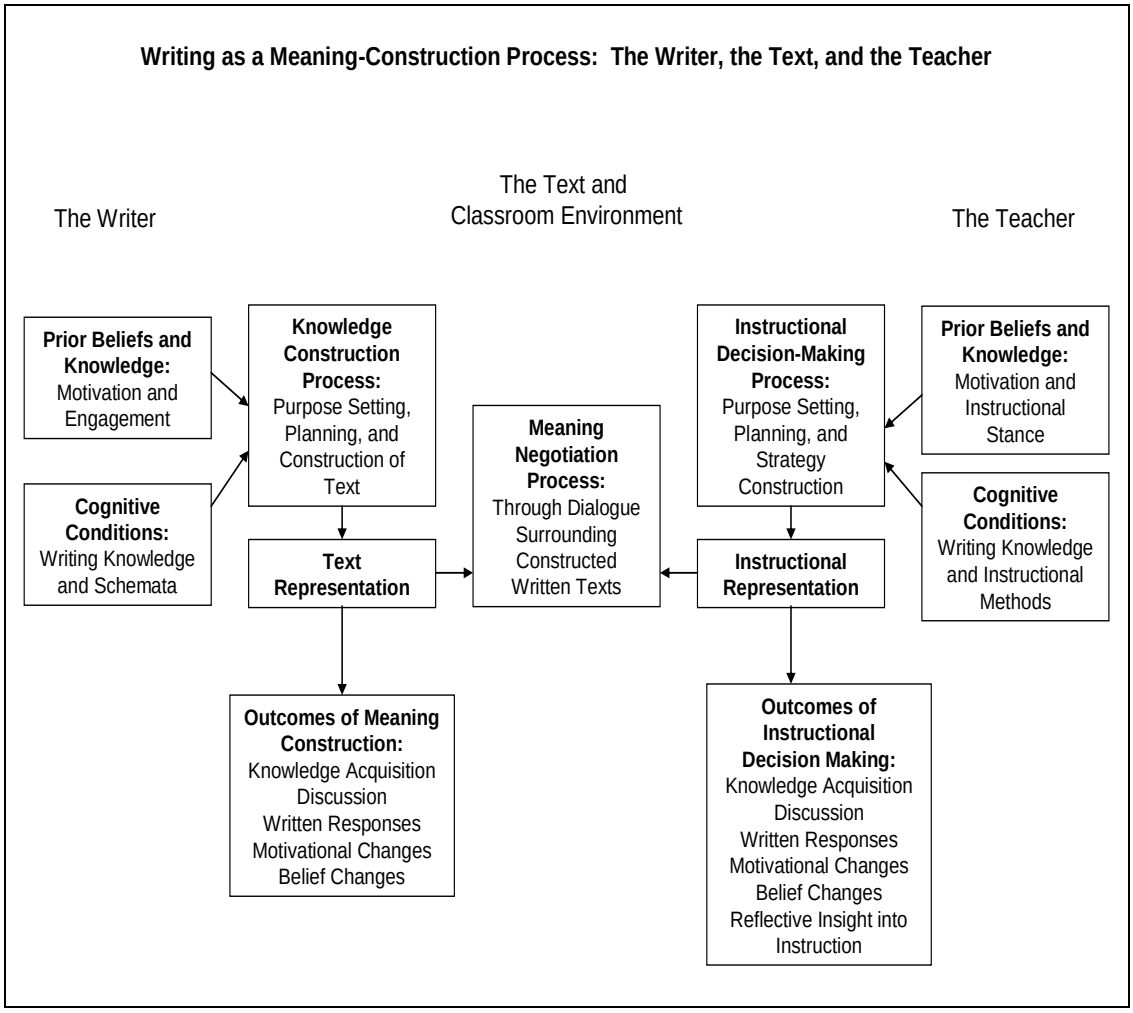
Table 4.46: Max's Fluency Gains during Independent and Journal Writing

Individual Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
9/11	5	3	1	S
9/18	9	6	2	S,S
9/25	14	13	3	S,S,S
10/3	8	6	1	S
10/9	8	7	2	S,S
10/30	15	14	3	S,S,S
11/20	22	21	3	S,S,S
Journal Writing				
Date	**Total Words**	**Spelled Correctly**	**# of Sentences**	**Type of Sentences**
8/25	8	5	1	S
9/16	12	10	1	CX,CX
9/29	8	7	1	S
10/10	7	5	2	S,S
10/28	12	11	3	S,S,CX
11/11	15	10	2	CX,CX

Table 4.47: Assessment Results for Andie's Students

Student		**RL**	**WCPM**	**Spelling**	**Writing**
Suzy	Pre	C	4/8	Middle letter name—alphabetic	11
	Post	E	24/33	Late letter name—alphabetic	16
Nathan	Pre	B	**3/12**	**Middle letter name—alphabetic**	12
	Post	D	**8/13**	**Middle letter name—alphabetic**	20
Lindsey	Pre	H	36/42	**Middle within word pattern**	12
	Post	N	69/69	**Middle within word pattern**	22
Garrett	Pre	F	36/39	**Middle letter name—alphabetic**	10
	Post	M	57/74	**Middle letter name—alphabetic**	17
Elizabeth	Pre	L	66/68	**Middle within word pattern**	12
	Post	U	101/101	**Middle within word pattern**	22
Max	Pre	M	195/197	**Middle within word pattern**	8
	Post	U	203/203	**Middle within word pattern**	20

APPENDIX B: FIGURES



Adapted from Ruddell, R.B. & Unrau, N.J. (2004). Reading as a meaning-construction process: The reader, the text, and the teacher. In R.B. Ruddell & N.J. Unrau (Eds.), *Theoretical processes and models of reading (1462-1521*). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Figure 2.1: Theoretical Framework

	Caroline Albert	**Andie Cooper**
Below Average	Joanna and Ryan	Suzy and Nathan
Average	Holly and Paul	Lindsey and Garrett
Above Average	Kate and Jake	Elizabeth and Max

Figure 3.1: Research Participant Population

Date	Andie	Caroline
August 7 (TH)	Dropped off student/parent permission forms, got teacher permission forms signed	
August 11 (M)	Permission forms sent home	
August 14 (TH)	Initial Teacher Interviews	
August 19 (T)	Permission forms sent home again	
WEEK #1		
August 25 (M)	Initial Observations	
August 26 (T)	Initial Observations	
August 27 (W)	Initial Observations	
August 28 (TH)	Initial Observations	
WEEK #2		
September 1 (M) Labor Day: No School		
September 2 (T)	Reading Level Assessment	
September 3 (W)	AIMS Assessment	
September 4 (TH)	AIMS/Spelling/Writing Assessment	
September 5 (F)	Planning	
WEEK #3		
September 8 (M)	I modeled **Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Clifford the Big Red Dog*	
September 9 (T)	I modeled **Interactive Writing**: The big golden dog has big brown spots.	I modeled **Interactive Writing**: They have tan and gray spots.
September 10 (W)	**Paired Writing**	
September 11 (TH)	**Independent Writing**/Planning and Reflecting Meeting	
WEEK #4		
September 15 (M)	**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Miss Nelson has a Field Day*	
September 16 (T)	**Interactive Writing**: We like gymnastics because people help us and support us.	**Interactive Writing**: In soccer you run fast and use teamwork to get The ball in the goal!
September 17 (W)	**Paired Writing**	
September 18 (TH)	**Individual Writing**/Planning and Reflecting Meeting	
WEEK # 5		
September 22 (M)	**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Froggy Bakes a Cake*	
September 23 (T)	I modeled **Interactive Writing**: There are five frogs on a log. One frog got eaten by a shark. How many were left? Four	**Interactive Writing**: There were ten frogs on a lilypad. Three frogs got eaten by a shark. There are seven frogs left.
September 24 (W)	**Paired Writing**/Planning and Reflecting Meeting	
September 25 (TH)	**Independent Writing**	

Figure 3.2: Schedule of Data Collection

WEEK # 6		
September 29 (M)	**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Tuesday*	
September 30 (T)	**Interactive Writing**: The green frog is flying at 8:00P.M. !	**Interactive Writing**: On Tuesday night, some green and confused frogs start to float.
October 1 (W)	**Paired Writing**	
October 2 (TH)		**Individual Writing**
	Planning and Reflecting Meeting	
October 3 (F)	**Individual Writing**	
WEEK #7		
October 6 (M)		**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Stellaluna*
October 7 (T)	**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Stellaluna*	
	Interactive Writing: Venn Diagram of Birds and Bats	
October 8 (W)	**Paired Writing**	
October 9 (TH)	**Individual Writing**/Planning and Reflecting Meeting	
WEEK # 8		
October 13 (M)	**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *The Little Old Lady who was Not Afraid of Anything*	**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Knuffle Bunny*
October 14 (T)	Out Sick	**Interactive Writing**: Trixie forgot Knuffle Bunny and they looked for it.
October 15 (W)	Out Sick	**Partner Writing**
October 16 (TH)	Out Sick	**Individual Writing**/Planning and Reflecting Meeting
FALL BREAK: October 20-24: No School		
WEEK #9		
October 27 (M)		I modeled **Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *Pumpkin Eye*
October 28 (T)	**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *There was an old lady who Swallowed a Bat*/**Interactive Writing**: There was an old lady who swallowed a toilet. My oh my she started to boil it.	I modeled **Interactive Writing**: What has sharp claws and is gray and hairy? (werewolf) What is black and has green eyes and sharp teeth? (cat)
October 29 (W)	**Paired Writing**	
October 30 (TH)	**Individual Writing**/Planning and Reflecting Meeting	

Figure 3.2 Continued

OFF WEEK November 3-7		
WEEK # 10		
November 10 (M)		**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *A Friend for Little Bear*
November 11 (T)	**Purpose Setting**: Discussion of food products/**Interactive Writing**: I am a rectangular prism. I am in the sweet and grain group. I am bumpy and roundish. You eat me in the morning with milk. What am I?	**Interactive Writing**: I would build a house and eat crab and coconuts.
November 12 (W)	**Paired Writing**	
November 13 (TH)	**Paired Writing**	**Individual Writing**
	Planning and Reflecting Meeting	
WEEK # 11		
November 17 (M)		**Purpose Setting**: Read Aloud *A Turkey for Thanksgiving*
November 18 (T)	**Purpose Setting**: Discussion of Indian Head Dresses **Interactive Writing**: Adjectives / Nouns Rainbow / Ham red / Hog ruffly / Hair	**Interactive Writing**: How To Cook a Turkey: First, wash your hands. Next, put the turkey in the pan and put oil on both. Turn the oven on to hot. Put the turkey in. Set the timer for 4 hours. Take it out and eat it!
November 19 (W)	**Paired Writing**	
November 20 (TH)	**Individual Writing**	**Paired Writing**
	Planning and Reflecting Meeting/Final Teacher Interviews	
WEEK # 12		
November 24 (M)	Final Observations/AIMS and Spelling Assessments	
November 25 (T)	Final Observations/Reading Level Assessments/Final Student Interviews	
November 26 (W)	Final Observations/Reading Level Assessments	
THANKSGIVING HOLIDAY November 27-28: No School		
WEEK #13		
December 1 (M)	Writing and Reading Level Assessments	
December 2 (T)	Reading Level Assessments	

Figure 3.2 Continued

Language Arts

Children in first grade begin the journey of expressing and sharing their thoughts and ideas with others through speaking and writing.

Students will:

- speak in complete sentences.
- write neatly so that others can read their work.
- sound, stretch, and spell correctly simple three and four letter words.
- begin to write simple sentences with the correct ending punctuation.
- begin to use a capital letter when writing the first word in a sentence, proper nouns, and the pronoun I.
- sum up stories by using simple sentences and pictures.
- write stories about their own experiences.
- write in journals and write friendly notes to others.
- share with others simple stories that they have written and illustrated.

- produce written language that can be shared with others.

Reading

Children will begin to develop reading and listening skills that will help them to read and enjoy a wide variety of print. They will grow in their appreciation of words as they develop the ability to recognize more words. They will begin to read with understanding and link what they read to their own knowledge and experiences.

Students will:

- listen and respond to information from a speaker, books, audiotapes or videotapes.
- retell stories using order words such as first, next, and last.
- strengthen their vocabulary by listening to, discussing, and reading a variety of books.
- understand and follow three-step directions.
- use decoding skills to sound out words, compare similar words, and break words into smaller parts.
- read high frequency words quickly.
- be aware of when their reading does not make sense and self-correct any errors.
- read aloud accurately and with expression.
- recognize the main idea when looking at pictures, picture books, and other texts.
- retell three or four steps in a series of events.
- read and share a variety of books such as picture books, storybooks, and poetry that will help them to develop a love of reading.

Figure 3.3: First Grade Curriculum Learning Outcomes

Wells' Dialogic Moves	Adaptations	Coded for in This Study
Request Information	Authentic or to Gauge Learning	X
Request Suggestion		
Request Opinion		X
Request Justification/Explanation		
Request Yes/No Answer		
Request Confirmation		
Request Repetition		
Check for Understanding		
Request to Speak		
Give Information		X
Give Suggestion		X
Give Opinion		X
Give Justification/Explanation		X
Give Confirmation		X
Qualify Previous Contribution		
Clarify Own Previous Contribution		
Extend Previous Contribution		X
Give Relevant Example		
Give Yes or No Answer		X
Repeat Own Previous Contribution	To Include Others' Previous Contributions	X
Nominate Next Speaker		
Acknowledge		
Accept Previous Contribution		X
Reject Previous Contribution		X
Evaluate Previous Contribution		X
Reformulate Previous Contribution		X

Based on Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic Inquiry: Toward a sociocultural practice and theory of education.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Figure 3.4: Coding of Dialogic Moves

Discourse Moves	Coding
Caroline: Who can spell the number word three?	Request Information
Student: T H R E E	Give Information
Caroline: We are starting a new sentence so what do we have to do?	Request Information
Student: Make it an uppercase letter.	Give Information
Caroline: What's the next word going to be?	Request Information
Student: Got.	Give Information
Caroline: Three what?	Request Information
Student: Frogs.	Give Information
(Student writes frog)	
Caroline: What's next?	Request Information
Student: Got.	Give Information

Figure 4.1: Requesting Information about Spelling and Composition by Caroline

Discourse Moves	Coding
Caroline: Let's write there were ten frogs on a lily pad. Who can write there?	Give Information/ Request Information
Student: T H E R	Give Information
Caroline: What letter comes at the end sometimes?	Request Information
Student: E	Give Information
Caroline: There were ten frogs on a lily pad. Who can write were?	Repetition/Request Information
Student: W E R E	Give Information
Caroline: There were ten. What did I say yesterday about numbers?	Repetition/Request Information
Student: We have to write the number word.	Give Information
Caroline: Who can write ten?	Request Information
Student: T E N	Give Information
(Caroline covers up T E that went off the line)	
Caroline: There were ten	Repetition
Student: frogs	Give Information
Caroline: The next two words are easy. What are they?	Request Information
Student: On the	Give Information
Caroline: Who wants to try lily pad?	Request Information

Figure 4.2: Repetition about Composition by Caroline

Caroline: What comes at the end like Emily? *Caroline: There were ten frogs on a lily pad. Is that a sentence?*	Request Information Repetition/Request Information

Figure 4.2 Continued

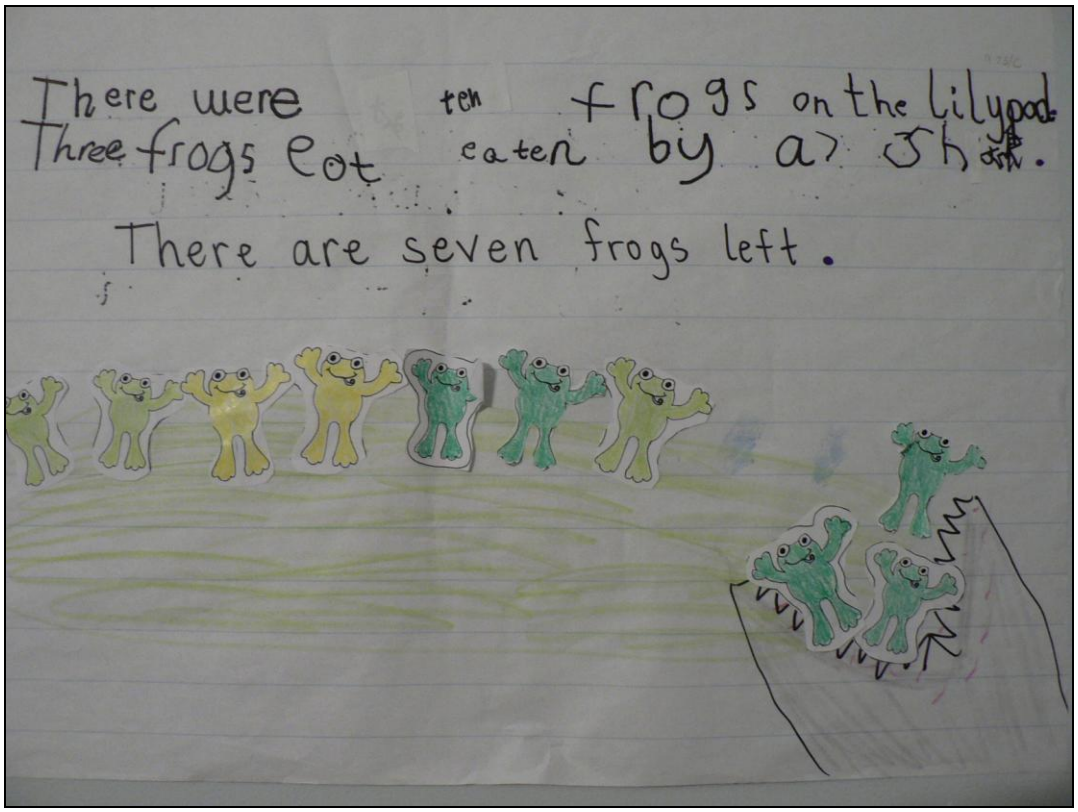


Figure 4.3: Photograph of Interactive Writing Text by Caroline's Students on 9/23

Figure 4.4: Example of Partner Writing by Caroline's Average Writers

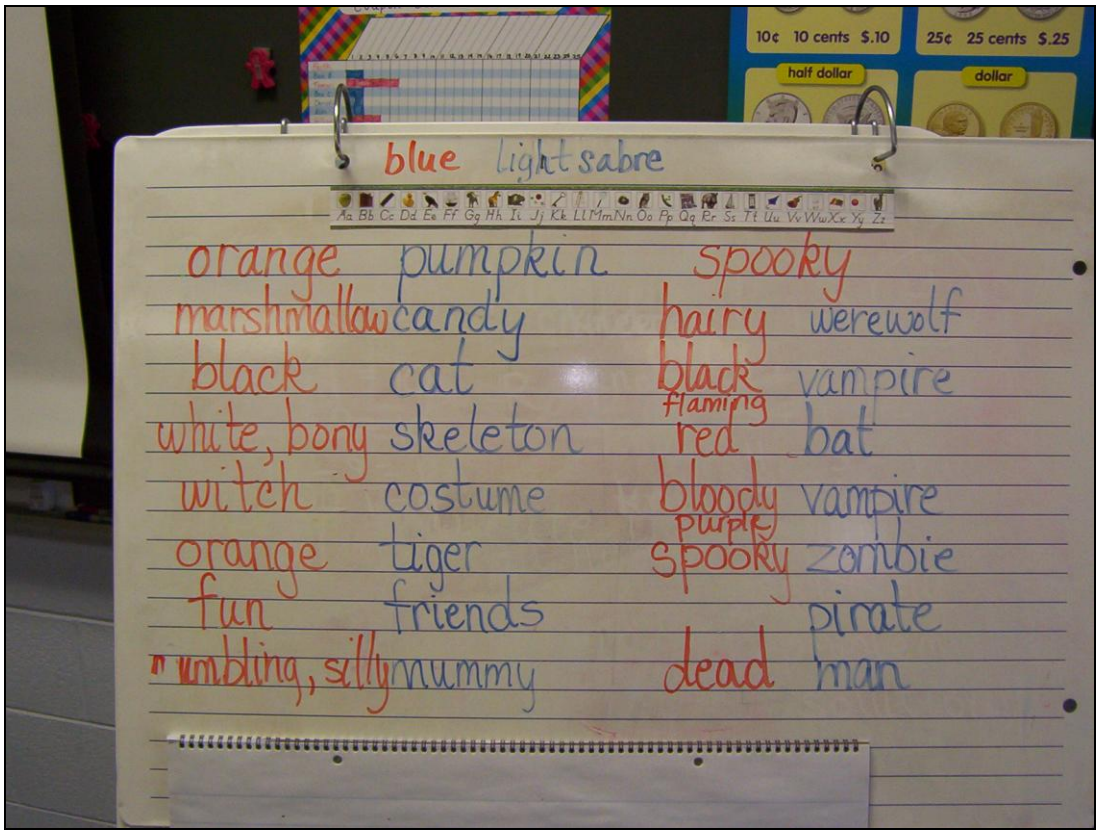
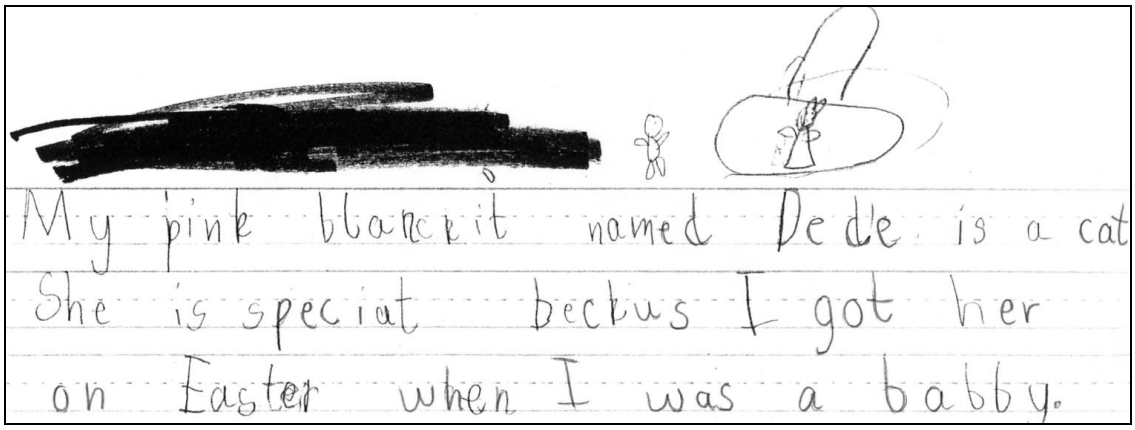


Figure 4.5: Example of Content Lists



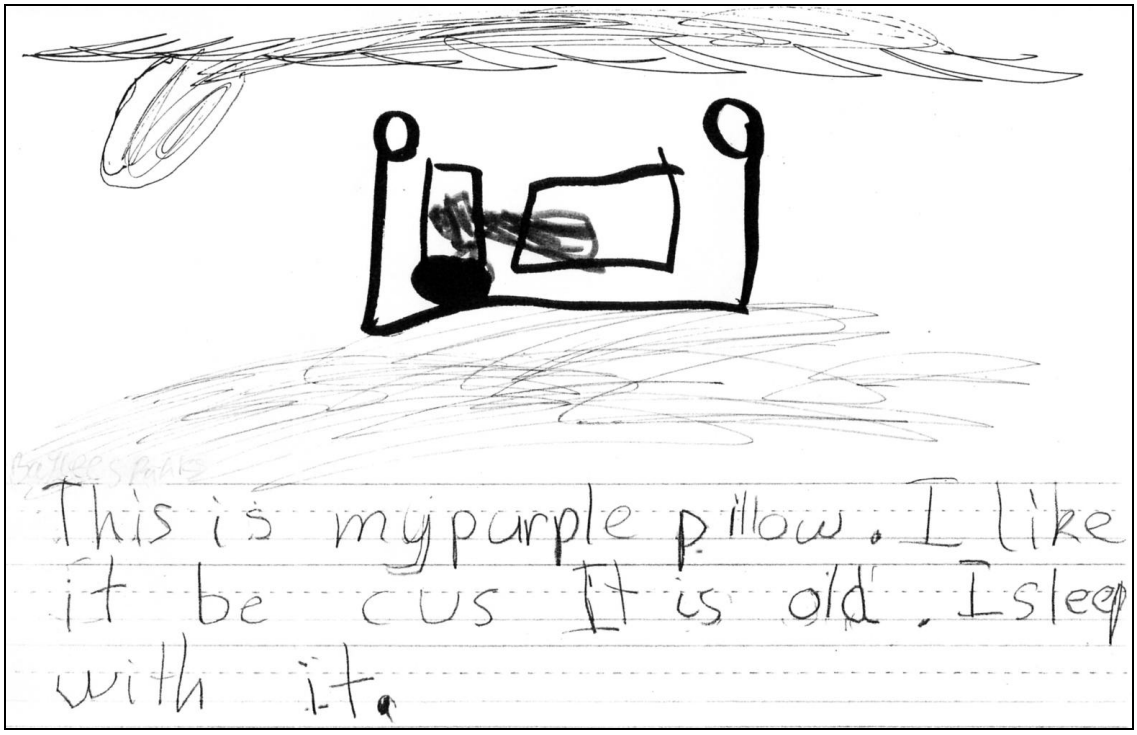


Figure 4.6: Examples of Student Writing Used for Analysis of Errors in Caroline's Classroom

During our planning and reflecting meeting on 10/16 I presented these writing samples to Caroline and pointed out that these students, and other students, were misspelling the word “because”. She agreed that many of her students were spelling “because” incorrectly. I suggested that she put this word on the word wall and direct her students’ attention to it, or that she attempt to use this word in interactive writing lessons in the future and try to draw students’ attention to the correct spelling of “because”. She decided to add this word to her word wall.

Figure 4.6 Continued

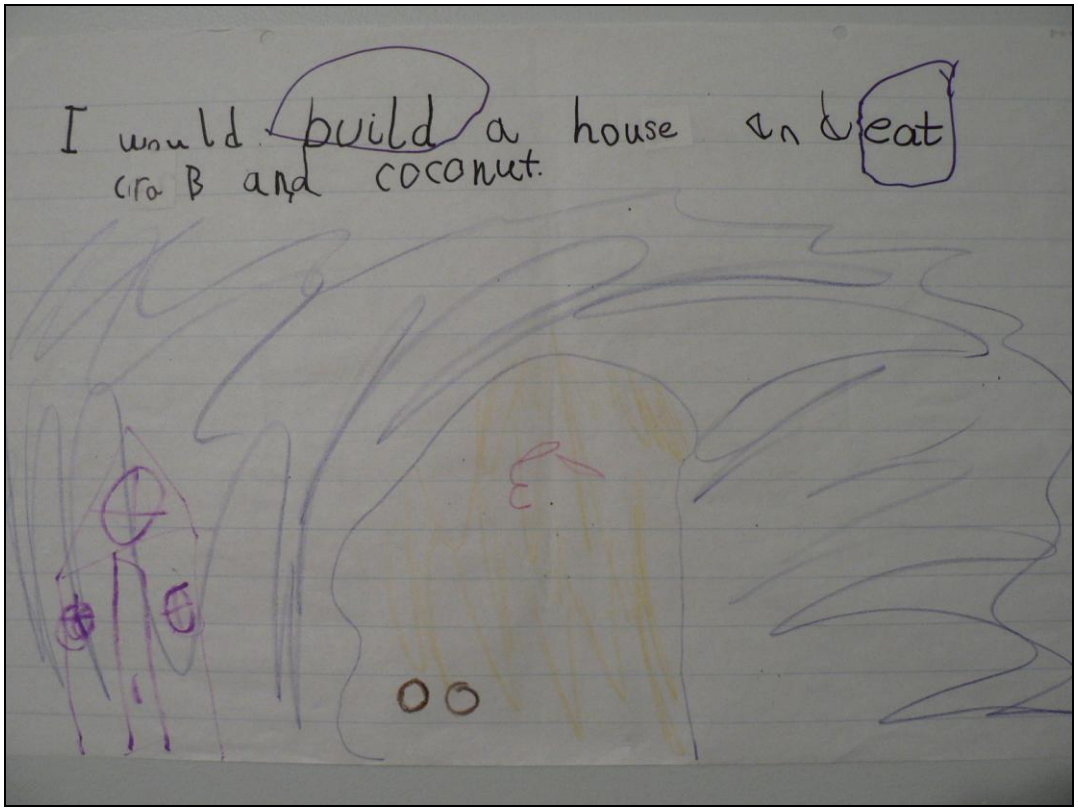


Figure 4.7: Photograph of Interactive Writing Text by Caroline’s Students on 11/11

Figure 4.8: Photograph of the CARE Wall in Caroline's Classroom

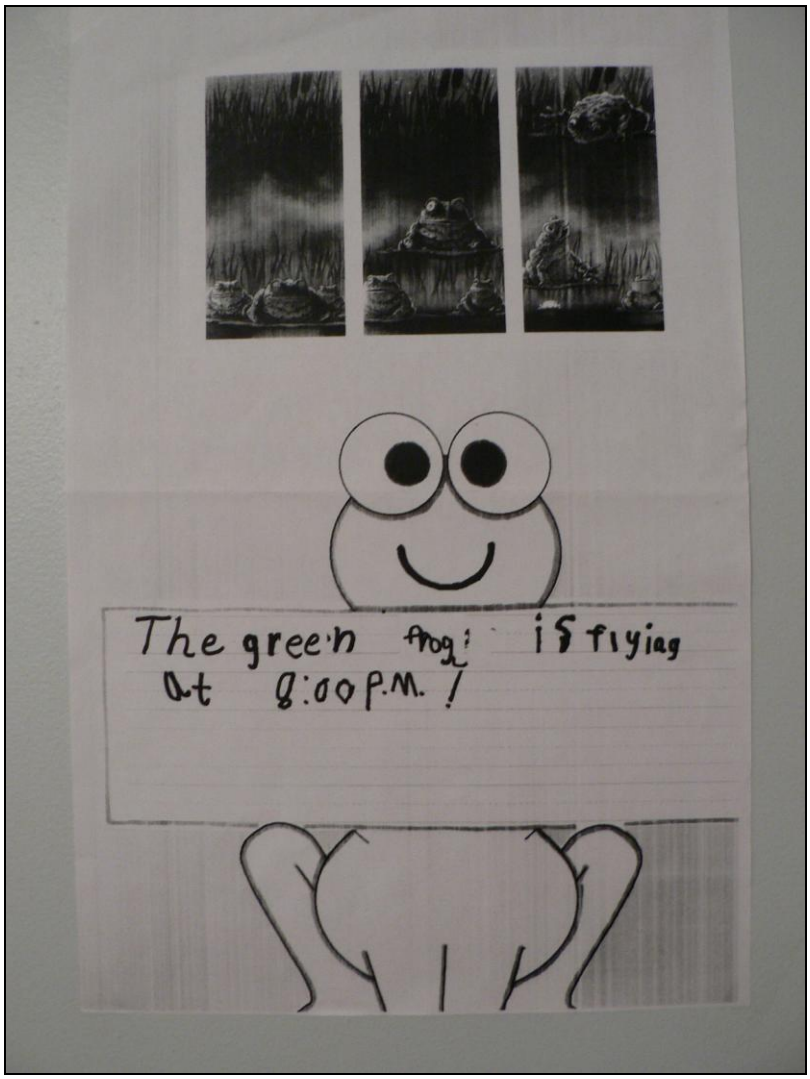


Figure 4.9: Photograph of Interactive Writing Text by Andie's Students on 9/30

Discourse Moves	Coding
Andie: How do you spell green? There are places in the room.	Request Information/Give Suggestion
(Student writes green)	
Andie: The next word will be frog. It has a blend in it. What is it?	Give Information/Request Information
Student: R, FR	
Andie: What vowel says –O?	Give Information
Student: O	Request Information
Andie: Who wants to try frog?	Give Information
(Student writes forog)	Request Information
(Student writes is)	
Andie: How would you spell fly? It has a suffix. What makes the ING?	Request Information/Give Information
(Student writes flying)	
Andie: What is the rest of the sentence?	Request Information
Student: At 8:00 pm	Give Information
Andie: What do we do at the end of the line?	Request Information
Student: Go back to the next line.	Give Information

Figure 4.10: Requesting Information about Spelling and Composition by Andie

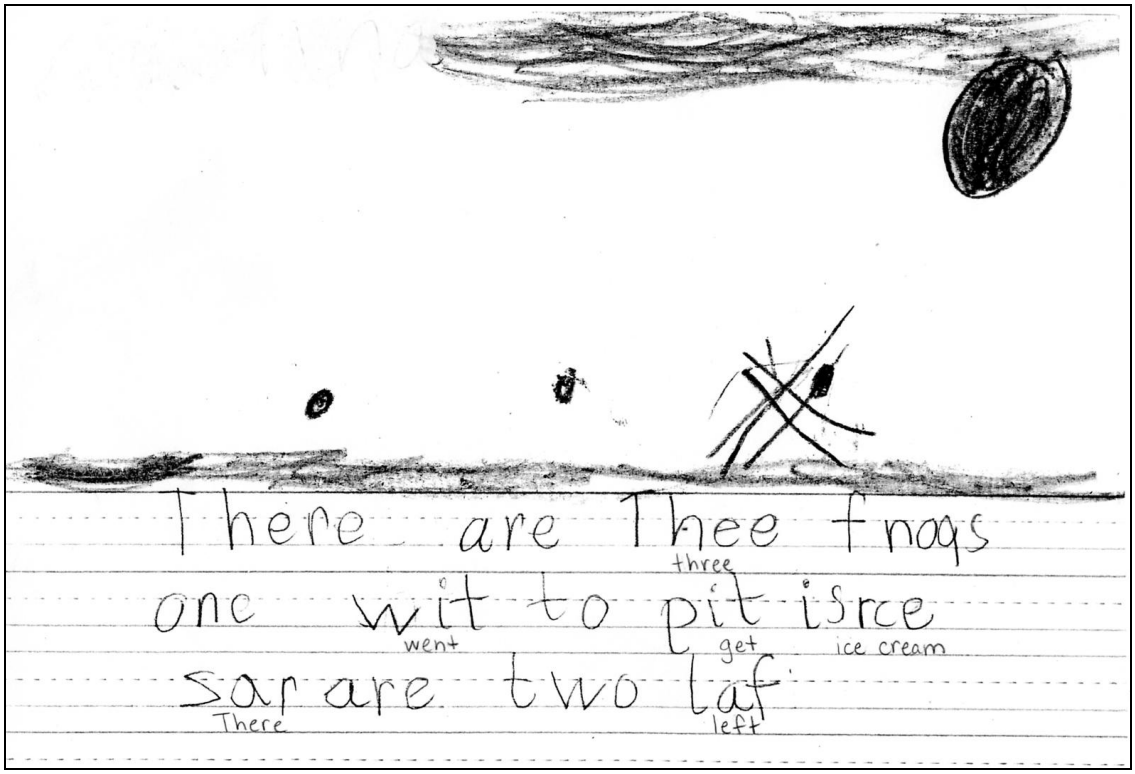
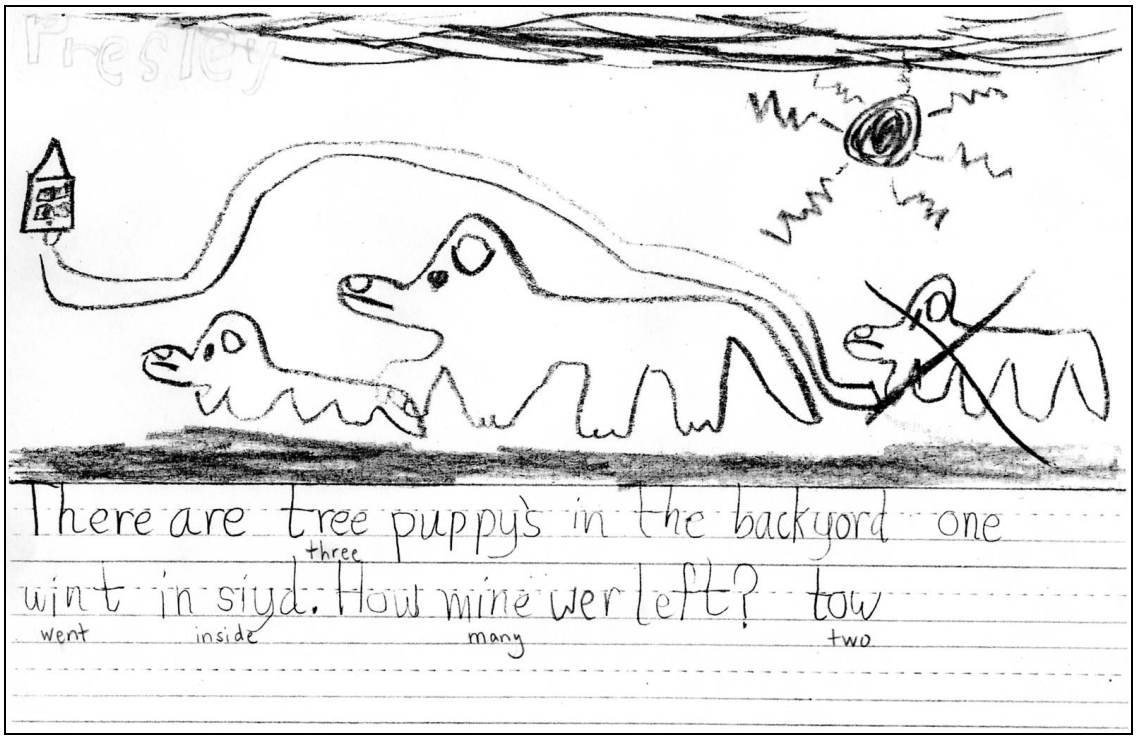


Figure 4.11: Examples of Student Writing Used for Analysis of Errors in Andie's Classroom



I presented Andie with these writing samples on 10/16 during our planning and reflecting meeting to illustrate that some of her students were having difficulty spelling the word "went" She agreed with my analysis of their errors. I suggested that she add the word "went" to her word wall or attempt to incorporate the explicit teaching of its spelling during a subsequent interactive writing lesson. She did not follow through with either of my suggestions.

Figure 4.11 Continued

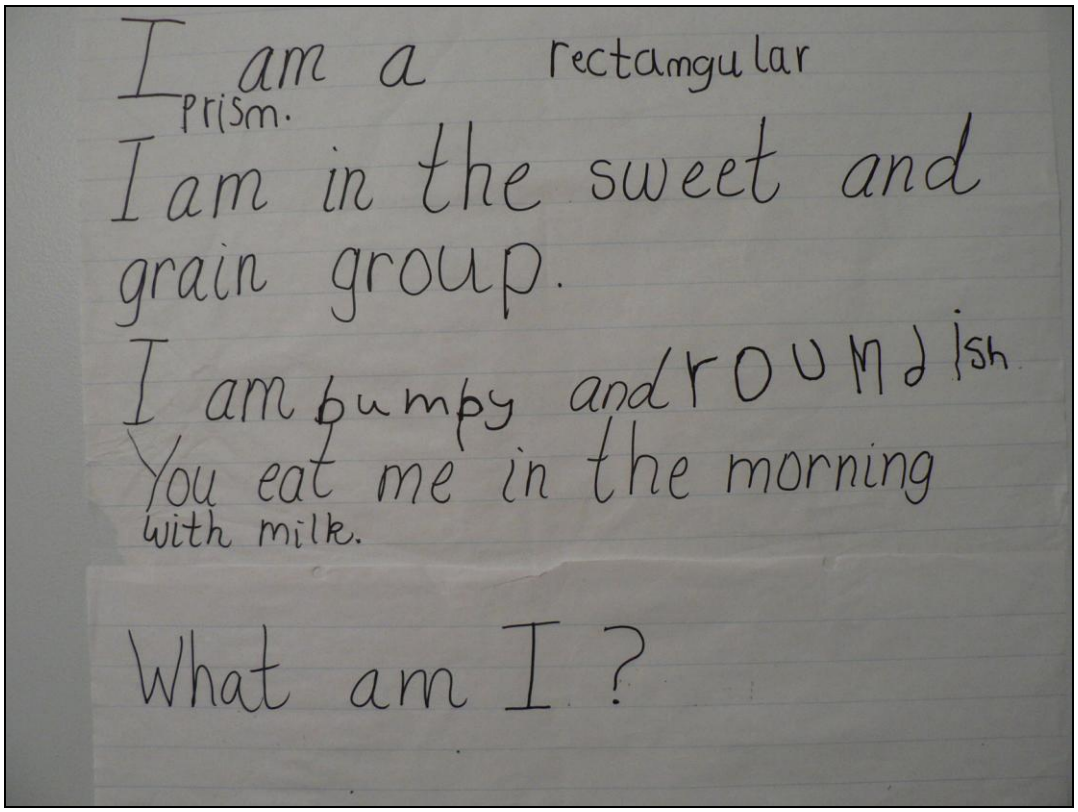


Figure 4.12: Photograph of Interactive Writing Text by Andie's Students on 11/11

Discourse Moves	Coding
Kate: On Tuesday night there, how do you spell there?	Repetition/Request Information
Jake: T H E R E, E R E.	Give Information
Kate: There were.	Repetition
Jake: Not T H , W H.	Give Information
Jake: Aren't you writing there are?	Request Information
Kate: On Tuesday night there are green frogs, this is hard, frogs floating on lily pads. Floating on. Is that how you spell lily? No. I put too many Ls.	Repetition/Request Information/Give Information
Jake: Yeah.	Confirm
Kate: I'll erase this one. How do you spell lily? I put lili. How do you spell lily pad?	Request Information/Give Information
Jake: Lily. You do the writing I do the drawing. That says sow not saw.	Repetition/Give Information
Kate: The man saw the frogs floating while he was eating his snack.	Repetition
Jake: That's not how you spell night. Erase the E.	Give Information

Figure 4.13: Requesting Information about Spelling by Caroline's Above Average Writers

Discourse Moves	Coding
Ryan: The frogs are watch in T. I already did the T. TV, the T is part of TV.	Repetition/Give Information
Ryan: In the house. T.	Repetition
Joanna: House. They are watching TV in the house.	Repetition
Ryan: The frogs are watch in the TV. T E –V E. TV in the house. In the	Repetition/Give Information
Joanna: –H –OU –S.	Give Information
Ryan: The frogs are watch in the TV in the –H –A –S. We are done!	Repetition/Give Information
Joanna: Read me your sentence.	Command
Ryan: The frogs are watch in TV in the house.	Repetition

Figure 4.14: Repetition about Composition by Caroline's Below Average Writers

Discourse Moves	Coding
Joanna: He needs to spell like.	Give Information
Jennifer: Tell me what you are writing first.	Command
Joanna and Ryan: A guinea pig.	Give Information
Jennifer: Well you don't want to say "I like", you want to say "there are how many guinea pigs?"	Give Information
Ryan: Twenty.	Give Information
Jennifer: And what happened?	Request Information/ Expand
Ryan: Two runned away.	Give Information
Jennifer: Then you will say "there are" and you'll have to figure out what 20 minus 2 is.	Give Information
Ryan: 20 minus 2?	Repetition
Joanna: We could just write about a fox.	Give Suggestion
Jennifer: You need to agree and maybe you need to do a smaller number.	Give Directions
Ryan: There are three guinea pigs and two run away.	Give Information

Figure 4.15: Reformulation and Expansion about Composition by Caroline's Below Average Writers

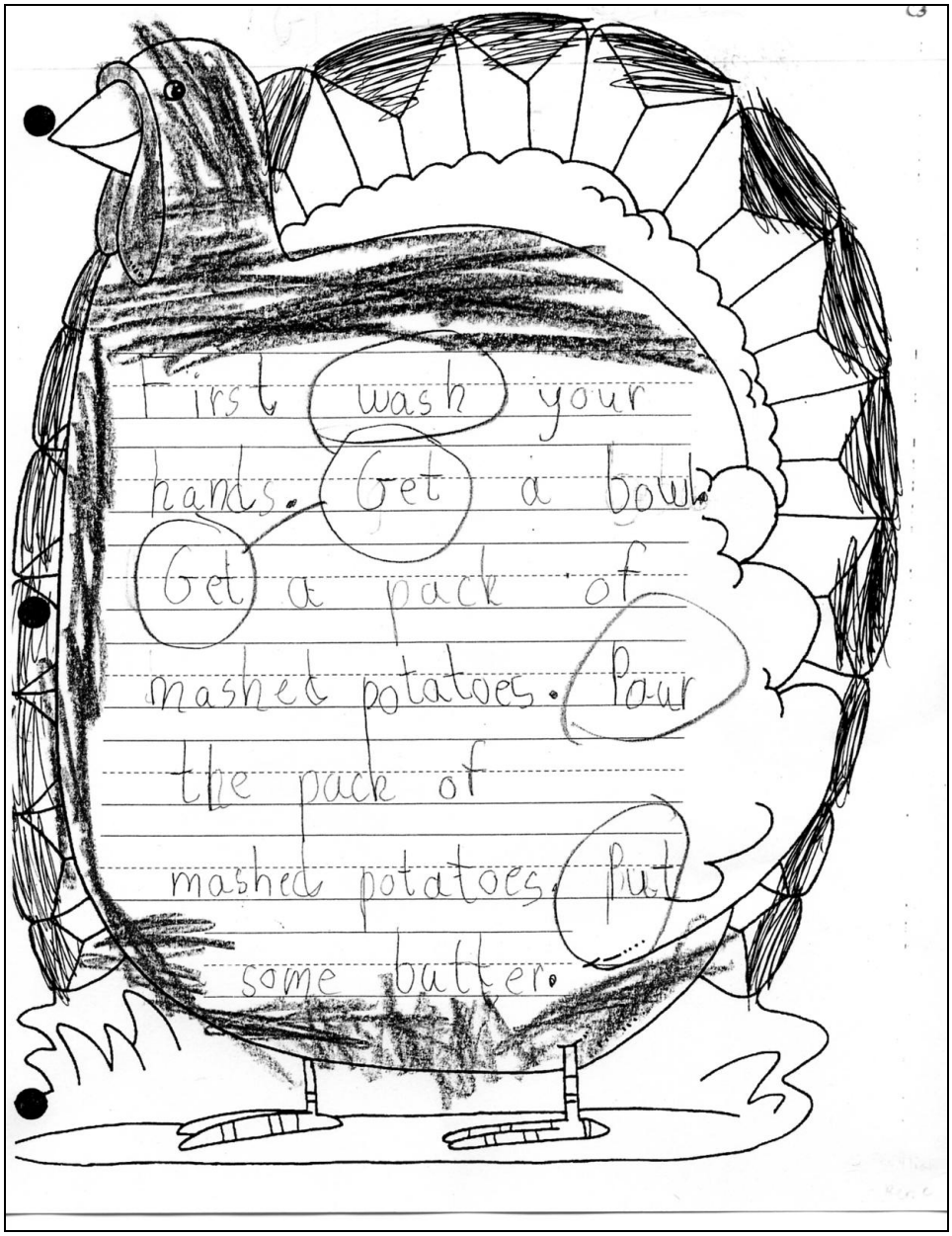


Figure 4.16: Example of Spontaneous Use of Grammar by Caroline's Above Average Writers

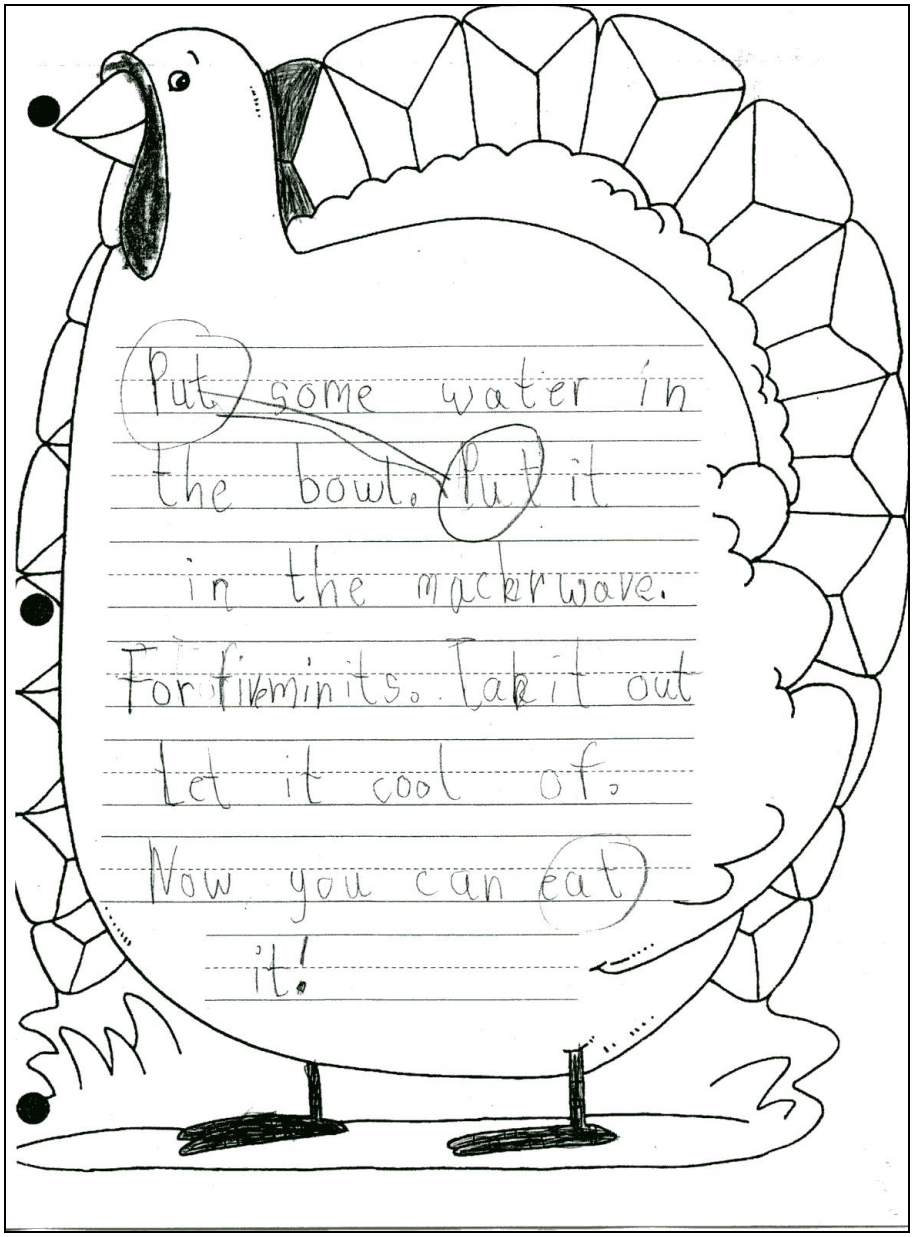


Figure 4.16 Continued

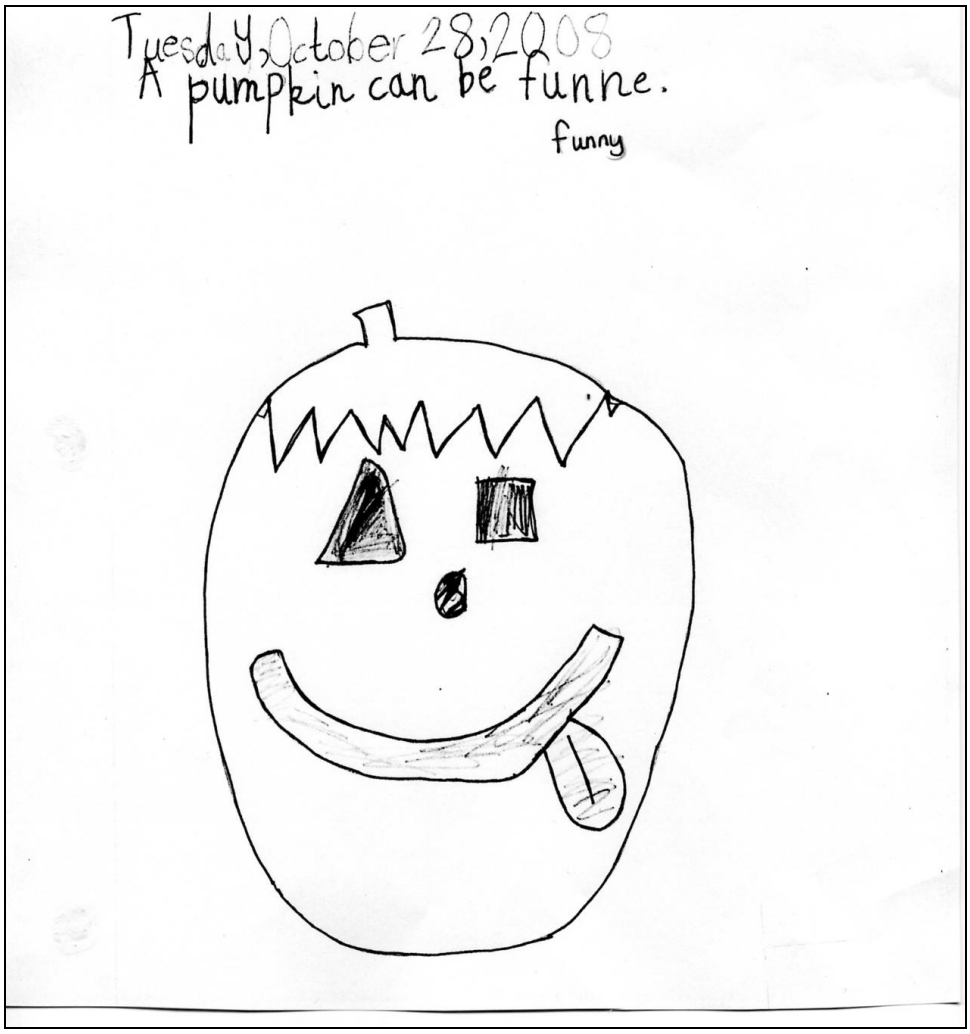


Figure 4.17: Example of Holly's Journal Writing

Discourse Moves	Coding
Garrett: There were 4 octopi and one got eaten by a shrimp.	Give Information
Garrett: How could a shrimp eat an octopus?	Request Information
Lindsey: It got eaten by a whale shark.	Give Information
Garrett: How about there were four shrimp down at the North Pole and one got eaten by the blue whale? How many are left? Now there are three.	Request Information/Give Information

Figure 4.18: Requesting and Giving Information about Composition by Andie's Average Writers

Discourse Moves	Coding
Jennifer: We like golf because. What did you say? It is fun to hit the ball? What did you say Nathan?	Repetition/Requesting Information
Nathan: Because you get to hit the ball.	Give Information
Suzy: It is fun to hit the ball.	Reformulation
Jennifer: Because it is fun.	Repetition
Nathan: It is fun to hit the ball in the tube.	Repetition/Expansion
Jennifer: In the tube. Are you talking about miniature golf?	Repetition/Request Information
Nathan: Yeah, miniature golf.	Confirm/Repetition
Jennifer: We like to play golf because it is fun to hit the ball.	Repetition
Suzy: Because.	Repetition

Figure 4.19: Repetition about Composition by Andie's Below Average Writers

Discourse Moves	Coding
Elizabeth: Yeah, let's write another one. The cat is.	Give Information
Max: Going to eat the frogs?	Expansion
Elizabeth: Go –ING to eat the –FR –OG. The cat is going to eat the frog.	Give Information/ Repetition
Max: The cat is going to eat the frog. Guess what I am doing?	Repetition/Request Information
Elizabeth: What?	Request Information
Max: I am writing the word not.	Give Information
Elizabeth: Why?	Request Information
Max: Because I don't want the cat to eat the frog.	Give Information
Elizabeth: Then how come you wanted to write that?	Request Information
Max: I didn't tell you to write that.	Give Explanation
Elizabeth: Let's erase that and write it is actually going to watch TV.	Give Suggestion/ Reformulation
Elizabeth: It. Is. –A –CH –CH Actually –SH –SH –A –L actually Actually go –ING to –WA –WA –CH Waf? That's Waf. I wrote waf. Ahh, backwards C. Watch TV. There, now we are done.	Repetition/Give Information

Figure 4.20: Reformulation and Expansion about Composition by Andie's Above Average Writers

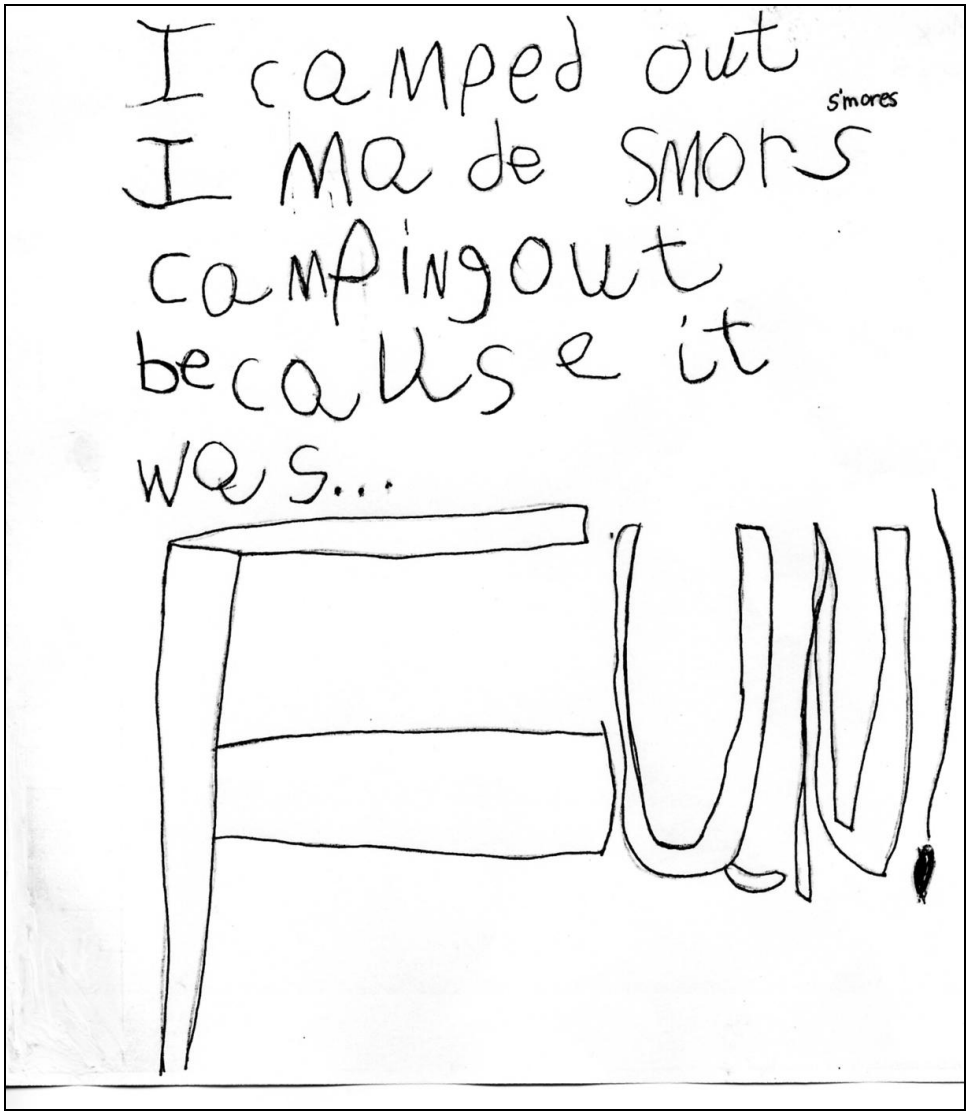


Figure 4.21: Example of Max's Journal Writing

APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORMS

Principal Approval Letter

Return this permission letter to:
Jennifer Jordan
A236 Bailey Education Complex
1122 Volunteer Blvd.
Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-3442

July 7, 2008

To Whom It May Concern,

I grant permission for Jennifer Jordan, Ph.D. student in Literacy Studies, to conduct research into shared dialogue in the context of interactive writing in the first grade at Rocky Hill Elementary School.

I understand that teacher and student participation are voluntary and that each teacher, parent, and student must give written consent before the study begins. I understand that two of the teachers will be selected and observed four to five times a week for the duration of the writing lessons for twelve consecutive weeks in the teacher's classroom while students are present. Observations and interviews with both teachers and students will be audio taped and professional development by the researcher will be videotaped.

The anonymity of participants in this research project will be protected and the results will be reported and presented in such a way as to protect the participants' identities. Several safeguards will be used to strip the data of identifying links to the teachers and students and keep the data secure. All data containing teacher and student names or other identifying information will be kept in a secure location at the University of Tennessee for three years and then destroyed. Other data will be stored in a separate secure location and be labeled only with codes, with care to strip them of any identifying information which could link the teachers, students, or school with the data. All digital audio files of the interviews and observational transcripts will be copied onto CD be stored in a locked cabinet along with the videotapes. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link participants to the study.

Finally, I understand that, in order to protect the safety of participating teachers and students, the Institutional Review Board of the University of Tennessee will review the procedures of the research project, and this project will not proceed until approval has been received.

Sincerely,

Mr. Cory Smith
Principal
Rocky Hill Elementary

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT: TEACHER

Beyond Sharing the Pen: Dialogue in the Context of Interactive Writing

INTRODUCTION

You are invited to participate in a research project that is designed to learn about classroom dialogue in the context of interactive writing in primary grade classrooms. The primary researcher for this study is a graduate student from the University of Tennessee. There are no commercial sponsors for this study.

INFORMATION ABOUT PARTICIPANTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE STUDY

Data collection will occur four to five times a week for the duration of the writing lessons for twelve consecutive weeks in the teacher's classroom while students are present. Assessment data on reading, writing, and spelling will also be collected. This assessment data will include reading running records, Aims Web data from the school wide assessment, analysis of writing samples, and a spelling inventory. Observations and interviews with both teachers and students will be audio taped throughout the study and professional development provided by the researcher will be videotaped. Observations will occur four to five times a week and all spoken language will be recorded. The researcher will meet with participating teachers at least once a week to discuss how the lessons are going and to plan for future lessons. Professional development will be provided after school one day and will continue for a week in the classroom during the writing block. Photographs of class constructed texts, all student writing, and teacher response logs will also be collected and analyzed.

The interviews and observations will be audio recorded and later transcribed. The digital files will be copied onto a CD and kept, along with the videotapes, in a locked filing cabinet in A236 Bailey Education Complex. Your name will not be associated with the research findings in any way and your identity as a participant will be known only to the researcher. The researcher plans to publish the thematic results of this study, including direct quotes from the data using pseudonyms. However, neither you nor the school will be identified by name in published material or oral presentations. The researcher will strive to protect the identity of all participants.

At any time you may ask questions about the study either before participating or during the time that you are participating. I would be happy to share my findings with you after the research is completed.

RISKS

There are no known risks and/or discomforts associated with this study. The expected benefits associated with your participation are the information about classroom dialogue in the context of interactive writing and the opportunity to participate in a qualitative research study.

_____ Write your initials on this line to indicate you have read page 1

BENEFITS

The primary benefit of this study is that you will help contribute to our understanding of how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Researchers will keep all information you provide in the study confidential. Data will be stored securely in a locked file in A236 Bailey Education Complex and will be made only available to those persons conducting the study. Data may be used by other researchers as secondary data after this study is concluded. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link participants to the study. The pseudonym assigned to each participant will be used in reporting and summarizing data.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions about the study or the procedures, you may contact Jennifer Jordan at the Department of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education, A236 Bailey Education Complex, University of Tennessee. She may be reached by telephone at 865-974-5448. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact University of Tennessee Research Compliance Services of the Office of Research at 865-974-3466.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT

I have read the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Participant's signature _____ Date _____

Investigator's signature _____ Date _____

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT: PARENT OR GUARDIAN

Beyond Sharing the Pen: Dialogue in the Context of Interactive Writing

INTRODUCTION

Your child has been invited to participate in a research study to examine the role of dialogue in the context of interactive writing. Your child will be assessed at the beginning and end of the study, as well as interviewed and observed during classroom writing lessons four to five times a week for twelve weeks. This assessment data will include reading running records, Aims Web data from the school wide assessment, analysis of writing samples, and a spelling inventory. The interviews will be informal and will occur during writing lessons in the classroom. Observations will include notes taken by the researcher as well as audio recording of all spoken language during the lessons. The interviews and observations will be audio taped and professional development videos will be created for this study. The focus of these videos will be the researcher, but your child may appear on them as well. Photographs of class constructed texts, all student writing, and teacher response logs will also be collected. In addition, your child will sign an assent form giving their permission. Either of you may elect to discontinue participation at any time in the study without penalty, loss of school services, or any influence in grades.

INFORMATION ABOUT PARTICIPANTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE STUDY

The researcher, Jennifer Jordan, is a doctoral student at the University of Tennessee. With your permission, she will observe and interview your child. The observations and interviews will be digitally tape recorded and transcribed. Interviews will be informal and ask your child to explain what they think about while writing. A pseudonym will be assigned to your child for confidentiality. These digital audio files will be transcribed. The digital audio files will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in a secure location and destroyed after three years.

Your decision regarding your child's participation in this study will not affect any eligibility for services that your child receives from Rocky Hill Elementary. Nor will choice regarding participation influence your child's grades.

RISKS

There are no known risks and/or discomforts associated with this study. The expected benefits associated with your participation are the information about classroom dialogue in the context of interactive writing and the opportunity to participate in a qualitative research study.

_____ Write your initials on this line to indicate you have read page 1

BENEFITS

The primary benefit of this study is that you will help contribute to our understanding of how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through classroom discourse in the context of interactive writing.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The researcher will keep all information you provide in the study confidential. Data will be stored securely in a locked file in A236 Bailey Education Complex and will be made available to only those persons conducting the study. Data may be used by other researchers as secondary data after this study is concluded. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link your child to the study. The pseudonym assigned to each child will be used in reporting and summarizing data. Confidentiality will be explained to your child.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions about the study or the procedures, you may contact Jennifer Jordan at the Department of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education, A236 Bailey Education Complex, University of Tennessee. She may be reached by telephone at 865-974-5448. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact University of Tennessee Research Compliance Services of the Office of Research at 865-974-3466.

PARTICIPATION

Your child's participation in this study is voluntary; you or your child may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you or your child may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed you data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT

I have read the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.
Parent/Guardian signature_____Date _____

I agree to have my child videotaped _____Date _____

I do not agree to have my child videotaped _____Date_____

I agree to use videos for further educational purposes_____Date_____

I do not agree to use videos for further educational purposes_____Date_____

INFORMED ASSENT STATEMENT: STUDENT

Beyond Sharing the Pen: Dialogue in the Context of Interactive Writing

INTRODUCTION

You have been invited to be part of a research study with Mrs. Jordan. She is learning about the language students and teachers use during interactive writing lessons. She will watch and talk to you during classroom writing lessons.

INFORMATION ABOUT PARTICIPANTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE STUDY

Jennifer Jordan is a doctoral student at the University of Tennessee. With you and your parent or guardian's permission, she will test you in reading, spelling, and writing. She will also watch you during writing lessons and ask you questions about your writing. Discussions about writing will ask you to explain what you think about while writing. All of the spoken language during the lessons will be digitally tape recorded and written down. You might also be video taped as part of this study. A false name will be assigned to you to keep your identity secret. The digital audio files will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in a secure location and destroyed after three years.

Whether you participate or not, you will still receive all the services you normally would at Rocky Hill elementary, and this will not affect your grades, making them better or worse.

RISKS

There are no known risks and/or discomforts associated with this study. The expected benefits associated with your participation are the information about classroom language during interactive writing and the opportunity to participate in a qualitative research study.

BENEFITS

The primary benefit of this study is that you will help contribute to our understanding of how teachers revise their instructional methods in response to student outcomes and how students learn strategies of writing through language during interactive writing.

_____ Write your initials on this line to indicate you have read page 1.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Mrs. Jordan will keep all information you provide in the study confidential. Data will be stored securely in a locked file in A236 Bailey Education Complex and will be made available to only those persons conducting the study. Data may be used by other researchers as secondary data after this study is concluded. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link you to the study. The false name assigned to you will be used in reporting and summarizing data. All information will be kept confidential. Mrs. Jordan will be the only one analyzing the data, which will be kept in a locked cabinet when not in use. No mention will be made in oral or written reports which could link you to the study. Data will be used in written and oral presentations, using direct quotes from audio tapes, but none of that information will be linked to you.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions about the study, you may contact Jennifer Jordan at the Department of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education, A236 Bailey Education Complex, University of Tennessee. She may be reached by telephone at 865-974-5448. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact University of Tennessee Research Compliance Services of the Office of Research at 865-974-3466.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed you data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT

I have read the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Participant's signature _____Date _____

I agree to be videotaped _____Date _____

I do not agree to be videotaped _____Date_____

I agree to use videos for further educational purposes_____Date_____

I do not agree to use videos for further educational purposes_____Date_____

APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

Initial Teacher Interview Protocol

1. Describe your educational background.
2. Describe your teaching background.
3. Describe any reading/writing professional development you have attended over the last 2 years. Where any of them influential in your instruction?
4. Describe how you teach writing. How often? Small/large group? Differentiated instruction?
5. What do you hope to gain from participating in this study?
6. Anything else you would like to add.

Final Teacher Interview Protocol

1. What do you feel you have gained from this study?
2. What were the challenges of this study?
3. What were the successes of this study?
4. What, if anything, do you think you and your students have learned from this study?
5. What parts of interactive writing, if any, do you think you will continue using in your classroom after I leave?
6. If I was to conduct this study again, what changes would you recommend?

Student Interview Protocol

1. What do you do before you start writing?
2. What do you do while you are writing?
3. What do you do after you write?

APPENDIX E: WRITING IN-SERVICE AGENDA

Interactive Writing In-service

September 4, 2008

What are the research findings behind beginning/interactive writing?

- Explicit strategy instruction
- Socially situated/active learner participation
- Teacher responsiveness/objectives suit the individual learner
- Transfer of knowledge
- Purpose and authenticity

What is interactive writing?

- "Interactive writing is a dynamic, collaborative literacy event in which children actively compose together, considering appropriate words, phrases, organization of the text, and layout" (McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas, 2000, p. xv).
- According to McCarrier et al. (2000) there are eight steps to the interactive writing process:
    1. Provide a base of active learning experiences.
    2. Talk to establish purpose.
    3. Compose the text.
    4. Construct the text.
    5. Reread, revise, and proofread the text.
    6. Revisit the text to support word solving.
    7. Summarize the learning.
    8. Extend the learning. (p.73)
- Video Example

How can I structure my classroom for interactive writing?

- Dynamics
- Language

APPENDIX F: STUDENT ASSESSMENTS

Writing Assessment

Writing Assessment Rubric:

	4	**3**	**2**	**1**
Ideas and Content	Clear and focused topic with details	Ideas are reasonably clear with some details	Ideas are reasonably clear with few or no details	No clear sense of topic or details
Word Choice	Words are used in a precise, interesting, and natural way	Words are accurate and varied	Words are general and familiar	Limited word choice detracts from the intended message
Conventions	Spelling, punctuation, and grammar are correct	Correct spelling, punctuation, and grammar most of the time	Frequent errors in spelling, punctuation, and grammar that do not detract from the intended message	Frequent errors in spelling, punctuation, and grammar that detract from the intended message
Organization	Sequencing is logical and effective	Sequencing is logical	Some ideas are presented in a logical order	Details are presented in a disorganized manner
Voice	Understands audience and writes with a purpose	Beginning understanding of audience	Little understanding of audience	No understanding of audience
Sentence Fluency	Sentences vary in length and structure	Some variety in sentence length and structure	Some sentences are repetitive	Most sentences are repetitive

Spelling Assessment

Primary Spelling Inventory (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, and Johnston, 2008, p. 266)

1. fan
2. pet
3. dig
4. rob
5. hope
6. wait
7. gum
8. sled
9. stick
10. shine
11. dream
12. blade
13. coach
14. fright
15. chewed
16. crawl
17. wishes
18. thorn
19. shouted
20. spoil
21. growl
22. third
23. camped
24. clapping
25. riding

AIMSWEB

The black and white dog was very smart. He hid his bones all over the yard. He hid his bones in the shadows of the trees. He hid his bones under the swing set. He even hid his bones in the sand of the sandbox.

The dog was always happy. He was never without a bone. The dog's teeth were very sharp and white, but he never bit anyone. He only chewed on bones.

One day the dog was sleeping. A rat came into his yard.

"I will take this dog's bones," said the rat. "He is sleeping. He will never know that I have taken them."

So the sneaky rat snuck around the yard and stole every bone. Then he slipped under the fence and climbed up a tree. He had all the bones with him in a bag.

"I will watch the dog from this branch. I will see what he does when he opens his eyes."

The dog opened his eyes. He was hungry. He got up to dig up a bone. He dug. The hole was empty.

"I am sure that I hid a bone here. I hid it right in the shadow of this tree." He looked around.

Then he heard the rat laughing. He looked up and saw the rat on the branch.

"I took your bones!" the rat yelled.

Just then the bones fell out of the tree. The dog ran under the fence and got them all. He chased the rat away.

APPENDIX G: EXAMPLES OF TEACHER REFLECTIONS

Caroline:

Monday, October 13, 2008

They were totally interested the whole time. Picking a fun book helps! We also got in a little lesson on silent k, and I introduced the concept of main idea. Pretty successful.

Tuesday, October 14, 2008

Much better! The dry erase boards kept them interested but also a little chatty. I guess that's better than not paying attention at all. I don't know if it's something I want to do every week, but I will definitely try it again. We came up with a pretty good sentence and were able to come up with a word with silent k (although I was kind of hoping for one other than Knuffle) and a word with TH. Also, everyone was occupied and no one seemed too upset about not getting to come up and write a word. It was good to have Joanna come up and copy something from the book.

Wednesday, October 15, 2008

Was it too confusing to give 3 different assignments? I thought it would be more of a little lesson at the beginning rather than just giving them the paper. I should have written the assignments on their papers before giving it to them, because half of them forgot what they should be writing about. It was a little loud, but after a few minutes they mostly settled down. Jessica didn't even remember what the book was about.

Thursday, October 16, 2008

Today we wrote about something that is important to us. The topic was pretty easy, but I think we were able to focus on making sure that everyone was able to write a sentence, capitalization, and punctuation.

Andie:

Monday, September 29, 2008

Amazed that the kids "read" the story themselves and were laughing throughout. They didn't even realize it had such few words. Minimal talking by me just enthralled interest by the kids. They were intrigued by the time in the story. We had just done a mini clock lesson that morning.

Tuesday, September 30, 2008

Dreaded today...my least favorite.

The writing went well. They were engaged and I made it a point to use the lower kids to write. It wasn't too long either. Yeah!

Wednesday, October 1, 2008

Kids were excited to write. Most used adjectives. Some wrote more than one sentence. They loved it.

Friday, October 3, 2008

Wow. Sure wish they made a sequence book or a story with several steps. Felt like I rushed them to get through. One sentence isn't enough when I ask them to finish telling the story. Anticlimactic.

APPENDIX E: EXAMPLE OF RESEARCHER NOTEBOOK ENTRY

My field notes from after our Planning/Reflecting Meeting on 9/17:

Summary:

- Andie complains of too much time (2 hours a week)
- For longer written texts should we write over two weeks because of the time issues?
- Discussion of how to use results, but neither teacher followed through and did anything this week
- Teachers are not interested in using the basal or end of 9 weeks writing prompt for skills to teach: Good! But they are still confused about which skills to teach. I need to go over how to base instruction on student errors again.
- I think both teachers are used to teaching disjointed skills and using segmented activities so interactive writing with its emphasis on teaching around a written text may be foreign to them.
- Some teachers may need concrete goals for each lesson: that is what they are use to with pacing guides, curriculum maps, and the basal. Slowly transition to more individual goals.
- Might have been more helpful if I knew the skills they would be focusing on next week before we met for planning: I would have been able to give them more concrete examples.
- Andie keeps saying that she wants to teach higher order writing skills, but when I asked what she meant by that she couldn't tell me.
- Andie seems much more comfortable going over reading or math skills than writing skills…maybe she doesn't know HOW to teach writing.

My Role:

- I am in control still: I talk the most and I chose which topics to follow up on. I ignored some suggestions by Caroline.
- Using concrete examples as a starting point for the conversation seems to be helpful.
- Explaining one teacher's actions to the other: puts the focus "out there" instead of on the particular actions of the individual (good or bad); this may be helpful for teacher learning.

Future Focus:

- I should look at how the percentage of words written by students/teacher changes.
- In partner and individual writing I should look at increases in the number of words written (and spelled correctly)

Quotes:

- Andie: "This is great for me to learn and for them to learn at the same time." (That should be the goal of any professional development!

VITA

Jennifer Jeanne Jordan was born in West Chester, Pennsylvania on March 29, 1976. She graduated from Unionville High School in 1994. She earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Sociology with a minor in Elementary Education from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in 1998 and a Master of Arts degree in Education from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in 1999.

Prior to entering the doctoral program, Jennifer taught first and fourth grades for eight years in Knoxville and Chattanooga, Tennessee. At The University of Tennessee, she taught various graduate education courses.

In August 2009, Jennifer earned her doctorate in Education with an emphasis in Literacy Studies. Her research interests include beginning writing instruction, professional development for teachers regarding beginning writing instruction, and ways to integrate expository writing in the primary grades. Jennifer is currently actively involved in the International Reading Association, National Reading Conference, and the National Council of Teachers of English. In the fall of 2009, she will begin work as a first grade teacher at Farragut Primary school. You may reach her at jenniferjjordan@hotmail.com.