THE CLASSROOM IMPACT OF READING RECOVERY TRAINING: EXAMINING RESITUTATED READING RECOVERY-BASED TEACHER LEARNING

by

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Abstract

Responding to calls for more effective teacher preparation for teaching early literacy, this descriptive study examines if and how teacher learning from Reading Recovery training can be applied within whole-class contexts. Reading Recovery is an early literacy intervention developed by Marie Clay and is implemented internationally to assist Grade One children having difficulty developing early literacy skills. Teachers are trained to deliver one-to-one instruction by attending professional development sessions over one school year in an apprentice-style of learning.

Using an online survey instrument, 53 Canadian Kindergarten, Grade One, or Grade Two teachers who had completed Reading Recovery professional development in the three years prior to the study were asked to describe if and how Reading Recovery training had influenced their instructional procedures, language, knowledge or beliefs when teaching English Language Arts in their classrooms. Additionally, three Manitoba survey respondents volunteered as case study participants and were observed weekly over a three-month period in their classrooms.

The survey and case study findings show participants appropriated many procedures and language from Reading Recovery during different reading and writing activities. More significantly, they described being more capable of formatively assessing students and how their knowledge and beliefs about literacy instruction had shifted, or developed, in ways that reflected those of Reading Recovery. The case study observations revealed that rather than simply transferring knowledge gained from the Reading Recovery training, teachers took this knowledge and applied it in individual ways in their classrooms, essentially *resituating* their learning into what is termed their *personal theory of literacy instruction*.

The participants depict Reading Recovery's model of professional development being particularly potent to their learning. They described how Reading Recovery training increased their confidence and effectiveness in literacy instruction, a finding that could add to discussions of both in- and pre-service teacher professional development.

Preface

This dissertation is an original intellectual product of the author, J. Stouffer. This research was covered by UBC Ethics Certificate number H12-0078.

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List of Abbreviations

CIRR: Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery

CLLRN: Canadian Language & Literacy Research Network

DIBELS: Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills

EAL: English as an additional language learner

EPLTs: Exemplary primary literacy teachers

OECD: Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development

OISE: Ontario Institute of Educational Studies (University of Toronto)

HRSW: Hearing and recording sounds in words procedure

IRA: International Reading Association

JS: Joseph Stouffer (used to indicate my discourse versus the participants' during interviews)

MSV: Meaning, structural, visual information

RRCNA: Reading Recovery Council of North America

RRNZ: Reading Recovery New Zealand

U.S.: United States of America

WWC: What Works Clearinghouse

ZAD: Zone of actual development

ZPD: Zone of proximal development

Glossary

Below, I define how I am using terms that described common contexts for classroom literacy instruction in this study.

Demonstration writing: The teacher composes and/or transcribes a piece of writing in front of students with the purpose of teaching them about the writing process.

Explicit instruction: The teacher isolates a sub-skill of the reading or writing process (e.g., checking writing for capitalization of proper nouns) and teaches it as a separate lesson.

Guided reading: The teacher coaches students as they read and respond to a text with the intent of supporting and improving their strategic processing as they read. Guided reading is often delivered to a small group of students who may read the same text, but each has their copy. The content of the lesson is often set by the students' responses.

Guided writing: The teacher coaches students as they write and revise text with the intent of supporting and improving their strategic processing as they write. The content of the lesson is often set by the students' ideas and responses.

Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words: A word-solving strategy in writing in which the student says a word aloud slowly and tries to represent each heard phoneme in print.

Home reading: Teacher-assigned or student-selected texts that students take home to read.

Literacy centres: Independent literacy activities which student undertake, usually during periods when the teacher is working with small groups or one-on-one with students.

Print literacy: Reading or writing printed text

Self-selected reading: Students select texts and read them independently

Shared reading: The teacher reads a text with students

Shared writing: The teacher writes a text with students

Teacher read-aloud: The teacher reads a text to the students

Teacher/student conference: The teacher meets with one student to discuss, assess the student's progress, or set goals around a read or written text.

Word Work: Teaching spelling patterns and general ways words are constructed in English.

Writer's Workshop: An instructional framework for teaching writing. Students work on composing and writing their own pieces, while the teacher intermittently provides mini-lessons and holds teacher/student conferences.

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Dedication

For the many teachers who, like me, asked, “How ***do*** you teach someone to read?”

Chapter 1: Introduction

Success in literacy development has long been associated with affordances across many domains, including employment, standard of living, and health (Maxwell & Teplova, 2007; Statistics Canada & Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD], 2005). Although some conceptualizations of literacy have evolved to include broader, multiple (Street, 1984) and multi-modal representations of meaning (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000), competence in *print literacy* (reading and writing printed text) is generally assumed as an essential skill in contemporary societies that require reading and writing texts across many domains of social activity.

It is generally agreed that print literacy must be learned within some type of educational context[1]. Thus, issues of print literacy instruction and the teachers who deliver it become critical. The way that teachers structure learning environments and how the children spend their time influence the reading proficiency that students attain (Leinhardt, Zigmond, & Cooley, 1981; Cunningham & Allington, 2007, Rowe, 1995). As well, a strong predictive relationship has been shown between early reading achievement and later achievement as a reader and writer (Juel, 1988; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Stanovich, 1986). Therefore, it follows that the level of competence of children's first literacy teachers in schools is a key factor to children's future success becoming literate community members. Within the large volume of research that has been produced investigating correlational and predicative factors of children's reading

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[1]The exception would be the relatively few documented cases of 'self-taught' readers who appear to learn to read before they start school. However, research has shown that parents of such learners provide key instruction at teachable moments in response to questions from their children (Durkin, 1968).

development, “Overwhelmingly, there is evidence that teacher quality matters” (Bean & Morewood, 2007, p. 374).

In both Canada (Canadian Language & Literacy Research Network [CLLRN], 2009) and the United States [U.S.] (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Lacina & Collins Block, 2011; Walsh, Glaser, & Wilcox, 2006), critics have argued that too many children are failing to achieve a satisfactory level of literacy development, and one avenue to lifting literacy achievement lies in “the need to improve teacher preparation in the area of reading development and reading instruction, and to improve the quality of literacy-related instruction in Canadian classrooms” (CLLRN, 2009, p. 5). Lacina and Collins Block (2011) believe “the need to prepare the best literacy teachers has never been greater” (p. 319).

Donders and Cowley (2006) suggest that a “substantial proportion of Canada’s new teachers may enter their first elementary school classroom with little, if any, understanding of effective reading instruction methods” (p. 9). They found a majority of 75 surveyed Canadian school district superintendents held the opinion that their newly trained elementary teachers are not effective at teaching reading. Most of the negatively responding superintendents felt that their new hires lacked a sufficient understanding of the mechanics of reading. As well, the majority (81%) of the superintendents in their study expressed the opinion that more pre-service training in literacy instruction was necessary to better prepare new teachers for the workplace expectations of their districts. From these findings, they conclude, “the content of Canadian language arts instruction courses may not be particularly effective” (p.10). While this viewpoint may not be universal, it has also been suggested that the Canadian research base assessing the preparation and skill-level of literacy teachers is presently insufficient (Purcell-Gates & Tierney, 2009).

Darling-Hammond (2010) also criticizes the "American tradition of under-investing in preparation" (p. 196) of its teachers. She feels that many teachers' lack of content knowledge and the skills required to effectively deliver quality literacy instruction are compelling reasons to look at overhauling present systems of teacher training.

Risko and her colleagues (2010) sought to identify the components of effective early literacy teacher preparation in their large-scale review of teacher education programs across the U.S. What they found problematic was "our understanding of how prospective teachers learn to teach has increased during the last 30 years, but findings are contradictory or insufficient for providing explanatory power about features of effective teacher education programs" (p. 303). They concluded further research was still required that would add to our understandings of what such features might be.

Many U.S.-based organizations, including the American Educational Research Association, the International Reading Association (IRA), the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and the National Academy of Education are in agreement that a new design for teacher training is needed to better prepare future literacy teachers. This consensus has spurred recent reports and positions on the professional preparation of teachers in literacy education (Anders, Hoffman, & Duffy, 2000; Harmon et al., 2001; Hoffman & Pearson, 2000; Hoffman, J., Roller, C. & the National Commission on Excellence in the Preparation of Elementary School Teachers for Reading Instruction, 2001; IRA, 2003, 2010; Lacina & Collins Block, 2011; Lenski, Grisham, & Wold, 2006, Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005, Strickland, Snow, Griffin, Burns, & McNamara, 2002).

In a U.S. national research report, *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children*, Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998) identify enhancing teacher education as a key strategy in

improving reading instruction and thus reading outcomes for children. Similarly, the Language and Literacy Researchers of Canada (2008) hold the position that teachers "should have specialized education in language and literacy pedagogy" and "develop extensive knowledge of language and literacy development and process" (p. 1). While there seems to be general consensus that improvements are required to better prepare future literacy instructors, there also seems to be little understanding or agreement as to what direction this redesign should take.

One avenue of investigation to contribute to discussion of this redesign may be to study in-service teacher professional programs designed to train teachers to deliver literacy interventions. I contend if an intervention has proven successful in assisting struggling readers and writers and teachers report that the professional development associated with the intervention has application to classroom instruction, it seems worthy to explore what, if any, positive effects and classroom applications the training held. Further, we should ask whether the effects of the training are commonplace and assistive to classrooms enough to suggest other teachers could benefit from similar training to develop their skills in providing more effective literacy instruction. I propose one such investigation-worthy model is the year-long teacher-training of Reading Recovery®[2] (Clay, 2005a; Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery [CIRR], 2006).

Reading Recovery: Program, Research, Teacher Training

Reading Recovery is an early, short-term literacy intervention, developed by Marie Clay (2005a). Clay, a New Zealand developmental psychologist, drew upon her seminal 1960's research, in which she systematically observed 100 Grade One children as they learned to read. She noted that observable behaviours such as the rate at which students began to follow the

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[2] Reading Recovery is a trademarked early literacy intervention instituted in Canada by the Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery (CIRR).

directional rules in English text or understood that one printed word corresponded with a spoken word contributed to their overall rate of reading development. She also noted misunderstandings that different children had with learning to navigate print during reading and writing events. These observations led to a reliable system for identifying children who would likely struggle in reading and writing in schools, *The Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement* (Clay, 2002). Clay followed this research with the development of the Reading Recovery intervention as a preventive measure against literacy failure for school systems. Through a process that involved Clay and her colleagues watching and discussing each other teach one child at a time through a one-way mirror, Clay developed the teaching procedures (informed by her theory of literacy processing, 2001) that are used in present-day Reading Recovery in 13 countries, and have since been adapted from English to Spanish, Canadian French, and Danish implementations (Watson & Askew, 2009).

The Reading Recovery intervention. Reading Recovery teachers implement *The Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement* (Clay, 2002) to compare the early literacy skills of struggling Grade One students nominated by their teachers. Using this data and national-based stanines, school teams rank nominated Grade One students in each school and select the lowest-achieving child for every available Reading Recovery teaching slot. Once selected, the student receives a daily, 30-minute individual lesson with a Reading Recovery teacher for an average 12-18 week period to supplement the literacy instruction they also receive in their classroom. At the end of the child's series of Reading Recovery lessons, *The Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement* is implemented again to gauge the student's progress and to provide comparative pre- and post-intervention data. When one student finishes his/her series of lessons, the next-lowest student is taken into the now available Reading Recovery lessons.

The Canadian implementation of Reading Recovery has the following organizational structure: certified teachers, who undergo year-long training facilitated by a Teacher Leader, teach children Reading Recovery. Reading Recovery Trainers train Teacher Leaders over a year in a major city centre at one of the four Canadian divisions of the CIRR. Trainers oversee the implementation within Canada's four regional divisions (Mountain Pacific, Western, Central, and Atlantic), having trained themselves over one year at an accredited university site in the U.S. or New Zealand. The Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery, embodied in a national representative board of directors, holds the Canadian trademark for the implementation of Reading Recovery. The CIRR's responsibilities include the oversight of licensed implementations of Reading Recovery across Canada, managing annual national data collection and report or outcomes, the organization of an annual national Teacher Leader professional development forum, and an annual National Reading Recovery and Early Literacy Conference.

In Canada, the Scarborough Board of Education first implemented Reading Recovery in Ontario in 1988 (Huggins, 2007). By 1992, the national implementation had grown such that a national coordination system was required. With the assistance of Marie Clay, the Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery (CIRR) was established. By the 2012-2013 school year, 1,078 Reading Recovery teachers provided Reading Recovery lessons to 9,462 Canadian children, who are among 168,861 Canadian children who have received the intervention since the inception of systematic national data collection in 1995-96 (CIRR, 2013).

Research on Reading Recovery. Reading Recovery has been widely implemented in both Canada and the U.S. and has been positioned as an effective measure to improve the reading and writing of struggling Grade One students (Assad & Condon, 1996; Baene, Bernhole, Dulaney, & Banks, 1997; Center, Wheldall, Freeman, Outhred, & McNaught, 1995; D'Agostino & Murphy,

2004; Gómez-Bellengé, 2002; Iverson & Tunmer, 1993; Pinnell, DeFord, & Lyons, 1988; Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, & Seltzer, 1994; Schwartz, 2005; Wasik & Slaving, 1993; What Works Clearinghouse [WWC], 2007a, 2007b; see Chapter 4). Annual data collected in Canada by the Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery has reported that within a 12 to18-week period of instruction, the majority of Reading Recovery children returns to national average levels of reading and writing skills and they are expected to continue to expand their literacy skills back in a regular classroom setting (CIRR, 2013).

If, as Reading Recovery reports, trained teachers are able to assist children who initially struggled in their classroom setting, they might have gained some additional skills and knowledge that make them more effective as literacy instructors in addition to having the advantage of working in a one-teacher-to-one-child setting. Perhaps, within the teacher learning intended by Reading Recovery training are factors that could be assistive to a broader audience of classroom teachers or teacher candidates as well.

However, Reading Recovery has been critiqued and its reported outcomes and cost-effectiveness challenged (Iversen, Tunmer, & Chapman, 2005; Tumner, Chapman, Greaney, Prochnow, & Arrow, 2013). Within those critiques, the high costs associated with training a teacher over a school year and providing individual instruction to children are unjustifiable to some. Schools systems may elect to provide early literacy support to children in other existing formats, such as small group instruction (e.g., *Leveled Literacy Intervention*, [Fountas & Pinnell, 2009]) when Reading Recovery is deemed unaffordable. Perhaps Reading Recovery could be shown to have influence to teachers who return to classroom teaching and, in doing so, benefit a far greater number of students. If so, then it could be argued that cross-contextual professional

benefits of Reading Recovery training extend the cost effectiveness of the program when trained teachers return to teach in classroom settings.

While Reading Recovery's reports of enhanced literacy skills following Reading Recovery instruction suggest that its training seems to enhance its teachers' capacity to work individually with struggling children, it is unclear if and how elements of this training would transfer from the one-to-one setting of Reading Recovery to classroom practice. Research that searches for such evidence could contribute to discussions concerning the redesign and improvement of teacher preparation in early literacy instruction.

Reading Recovery's model of teacher training. A noted feature of the Reading Recovery intervention is the year-long training[3] it provides teachers. Pikulski (1994) argues that "Professionally prepared, accomplished teachers are the mainstay of successful early intervention programs" (p. 38). Pinnell, Smith-Burke, and Worden (2002) add, "Reading Recovery is unusual in linking staff development to student outcomes over time with the aim of improving the teaching of children" (p. 19).

Having been selected by their school districts[4], Canadian teachers begin their training by attending the equivalent of two days of in-service professional development sessions, usually within the first two weeks of a school year. These first sessions focus on the administration of *The Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement* and *Running Records* (Clay, 2002) the principle assessment instruments used in Reading Recovery.

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[3] In the Reading Recovery community, the professional development is often referred to as "training" and teachers undertaking the professional development are referred to as "teachers-in-training".

[4]In Canada, most school districts post Reading Recovery positions as employment opportunities within the districts and use an interview-based selection process.

Once trained in the assessment and selection procedures, teachers immediately select and begin to work with 4 different children daily. Through the training year, groups of teachers-in-training attend bi-weekly 2.25-hour professional development sessions facilitated by a Teacher Leader. During these sessions, the teachers-in-training learn about and discuss Reading Recovery teaching procedures and their theoretical underpinnings (see Chapter 3).

As part of each session, two of the teachers from the group will each teach one of their students a live, 30-minute lesson behind a one-way screen, commonly referred to by the Reading Recovery community as "teaching behind the glass." The rest of the group observes the demonstration lessons and discusses how the lessons relate to a topic at hand and their own teaching.

When not seated "at the glass" observing and discussing concepts raised by the demonstration lessons, the training classes are seated in chairs in a circle. This configuration is designed to facilitate equal discussion amongst all of the teachers and the Teacher Leader, as opposed to a lecture style of seating (Teacher Leader at front, training teachers in rows of desks).

Four texts are used throughout the training year of Reading Recovery. In *An Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement* Clay (2002) provides guidance in the assessment instruments used by Reading Recovery teachers. The text, *Becoming Literate*, (Clay, 1991) provides an expanded discussion of Clay's general theory of literacy development. *Literacy Lessons Designed for Individuals, Part One* (Clay, 2005a) provides an overview of the intervention and its underlying principles for both teachers and administrators. Finally, *Literacy Lessons Designed for Individuals, Part Two* (Clay, 2005b) provides the main reference for the teaching procedures and teaching prompts used in Reading Recovery.

Reading Recovery has been widely implemented in Canada, the U.S., Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom (Askew & Gaffney, 1999; Watson & Askew, 2009). I viewed these implementations as indicators that Reading Recovery was deployable in a large variety of educational systems. In examining potential transferability of teachers' learning, I wanted to examine an intervention that was applicable to teachers in a wide variety of contexts. Otherwise, considerations of the generalizability of my findings would be more limited to educational systems that closely resembled the Canadian districts in this study. According to these reports, Reading Recovery has been successfully implemented in countries with school systems that vary significantly from the North American tradition. Also related to this study, internationally, teachers who have experienced different models of pre-service teacher education are trained under a common curriculum developed by Reading Recovery. If one accepts Reading Recovery's reports of successful intervention across international settings, then it also seems plausible that its model of teacher training might also be influential to teachers from various types of pre-service programs.

Locating the Researcher

It is critical that I disclose my professional history, most recently as a literacy coach and consultant (2011-present), Reading Recovery Teacher Leader (2006-2010), Reading Recovery teacher (2004-2006), and classroom teacher (1993-2006). I have taught literacy as a primary classroom teacher, undergone the year-long process of Reading Recovery training as a classroom teacher, taught children in Reading Recovery, completed the year-long training for certification as a Teacher Leader, trained groups of teachers to become Reading Recovery teachers, provided continuing professional development to both Reading Recovery teachers and classroom teachers and, while a Teacher Leader, taught undergraduate courses in early literacy pedagogy at Brandon

University. Each of these experiences shapes my perspective and value of Reading Recovery training and gives me an insider view of the process from multiple perspectives – the teacher, the trainee, and the teacher-trainer of both pre- and in-service teachers (Stouffer, 2006, 2010).

My experience in Reading Recovery in roles as teacher and Teacher Leader are both informative and problematic to this inquiry. Because of the descriptive design of this study (see Chapter 5), I contend that more than a casual understanding of the Reading Recovery philosophy and its teacher-training is required. Without an in-depth knowledge of the program, it would be difficult to identify some knowledge, procedures, language, and beliefs that are presented to teachers during the training year. With an insider perspective of the training of new Reading Recovery teachers, I may be able to detect potentially transferred aspects that a less-familiar observer might accredit to other sources or not recognize as hallmark to Reading Recovery. On one hand, my detailed familiarity with the program is advantageous as it broadens the scope of this inquiry and may lead to a more in depth description of Reading Recover's transferability.

However, my experience with the intervention is also challenging to the design of this study because of a personal bias. During two year's work as a Reading Recovery teacher and, in particular, four years as a Teacher Leader, I have come to believe that Reading Recovery is an effective early literacy intervention and have seen my own training as valuable to my professional development. While I assert that a deep understanding of the program is assistive to undertaking this inquiry, I also acknowledge that my having participated in the training makes it impossible for me to not have an opinion.

Also, I temper my admission of bias by pointing out to the reader that I have not been employed in any Reading Recovery position nor worked directly with any Reading Recovery organization or personnel for the last five years. During these past five years, I have worked with

Kindergarten-Grade Six teachers, supporting literacy instruction in classrooms. I have also been contracted to train teachers across Canada to implement a small group intervention, Fountas and Pinell's (2009) *Leveled Literacy Intervention*, which some Canadian school districts have implemented as an alternative to Reading Recovery. Because of my lack of involvement with the Reading Recovery professional community for the past five years and my current position, I can assuredly state that I have no professional stake in the outcome of this research that would influence me to promote Reading Recovery.

Further, while I acknowledge Clay as a major influence, I also regularly draw upon many others' work outside of Reading Recovery to inform my practice in literacy instruction (e.g., Regie Routman, Lucy Caulkins, Nell Duke, P. David Pearson, Sharon Taberski, Louise Rosenblatt, Tony Stead, Chris Tovani, Lori Jamison Rog, Irene Fountas, Gay Su Pinnell, Steve Peha, Ruth Culham, Gail Boushey, and Joan Moser). Nonetheless, as part of my inquiry's design, I have taken steps to prevent my bias influencing my collection of data and my analysis (see Chapter 5: Safeguards Against Researcher's Bias).

Qualities of Reading Recovery Model that Render It Promising as Research Venue

My decision to investigate if Reading Recovery training has potential to influence classroom instruction is based upon particular characteristics of the intervention. First, within its organization, Reading Recovery maintains tight controls ensuring consistent implementations, specifically in regards to its model of teacher training (CIRR, 2006, Clay, 2005a; RRCNA, 2008). Reading Recovery-trained teachers have a common model of professional development, regardless of the region or country in which they train. This consistency reduces confounding factors in my assessment of the transferability of Reading Recovery training in a Canadian context (CIRR, 2006).

In both Canada and the U.S., National Standards and Guidelines documents (CIRR, 2006; RRCNA, 2008) are used to inform and regulate the implementations of Reading Recovery, including the training of teachers. These documents are intended to ensure standardized realizations of Reading Recovery with the intent of optimizing outcomes for children and maximizing the cost-effectiveness of the intervention.

The Standards and Guidelines documents (CIRR, 2006; RRCNA, 2008) are publically accessible documents, which provide:

1. The mission statement, purpose, and responsibilities of the CIRR or RRCNA, as members of the Reading Recovery international community.
2. The structure of the Reading Recovery organization from a school to international scale.
3. The role of school teams in supporting Reading Recovery implementations.
4. Principles for the unbiased, needs-based selection of children to participate in Reading Recovery.
5. Preparation procedures for the establishment of Teacher and Teacher Leader Training Centers.
6. Criteria and principles for the selection of teachers to be trained as Reading Recovery teachers, and personnel to be trained as Teacher Leaders and Trainers.
7. Standards and guidelines for teachers in training, training classes, trained teachers, Teacher Leaders and Trainers (in training and experienced).
8. A code of ethics for Reading Recovery professionals.

In these documents, standards refer to mandatory conditions of implementations, with variances requiring the written permission of the CIRR or RRCNA. Guidelines are strongly recommended conditions, but do not require permission for exemption. As part of Reading

Recovery's practice, agreed compliance with the Standards and Guidelines is a requirement for a school district's continued use of the trademarked intervention.

In my opinion, an additional strength of Reading Recovery lies in the design of its teacher preparation. Fogarty and Pete (2009), through a review of the research in professional learning, school change, and standards of high quality staff development identify seven protocols as components that are particularly important for successful professional learning communities. Referring to these protocols as the *syllabus of seven*, they argue, "regardless of what models of professional learning are implemented, these seven elements anchor the experiences for lasting impact" (p. 32). In Table 1.1, I compare features of the Reading Recovery Teacher Training to Fogarty and Pete's seven protocols:

Table 1.1

Reading Recovery Training: Staff Development Quality as Defined by Fogarty & Pete (2009)

Fogarty & Pete Protocol	Requirements of Protocol	Features of Reading Recovery Teacher Training
1. Sustained	Long-term implementation plan that occurs consistently and continually over time. Fewer school-wide initiatives and more team initiatives.	• Sessions are spread throughout a 1-year period • Reading Recovery personnel's focus of professional development during training year • Reading Recovery teachers encouraged to become part of school literacy teams
2. Job-embedded	Immediate help accessible to teachers. Peer coaching, expert coaching, teacher facilitators, and lead teachers needed.	• Teacher Leaders facilitate professional development sessions, make school visits to individual teachers-in-training • Peer coaching and feedback provided during teaching behind the glass
3. Collegial	Teachers work with peers in teams.	• Reading Recovery teachers meet in teams both in training and continuing service years
4. Interactive	Active, engaged, interactive learning. Exposure to continual and guided practice that is application-orientated.	• Uses professional conversation as learning vehicle. • Expectation to shift theory into practice in context of teaching
5. Integrative	Different modes of communication and learning: face to face, internet, web-based	• Group and individual discussions • Viewing of demonstration lessons at each professional development session • Access to Teacher Leaders and colleagues via email • Online learning support (webinars, documents, journal articles) on the Reading Recovery Council of North America's website: www.rrcna.org
6. Practical	Must hold relevance and practicality to learners. Must allow time for participants to make real-world connections.	• Discussion of theory in terms of relevance to work with children • Demonstration lessons at every professional development session

Fogarty & Pete Protocol	Requirements of Protocol	Features of Reading Recovery Teacher Training
		• Opportunity to try new pedagogy with own students and assess its effectiveness
7. Results-oriented	Measurable results to confirm research-based, teacher-tested, proven best practice should replace other practices.	• Student data is collected and examined pre-, during, and post-intervention • Belief statement of using results as standard for judging the effectiveness of the program • Recent new editions of training texts (Clay, 2005a, 2005b) which incorporate new research and corresponding new practice

Reading Recovery training appears to meet Fogarty and Pete's seven protocols, thus providing a reasonable model to explore promising elements of teaching reading and writing.

Clay (2005a) designed Reading Recovery as an individual, pullout-style (i.e. the student leaves the classroom to receive their Reading Recovery lesson) literacy intervention, not intending it for classroom instruction. She defends Reading Recovery's one-child-to-one-teacher when she writes:

> There is particular opportunity for revision and reworking in the one-to-one teaching situation. Child and teacher talk about reading and writing as it occurs. There is opportunity for the child to initiate dialogue about his response as he works and for the teacher to help in many different ways. (2005b, p. 116)

Clay is vigorous in her defense of the individualized instruction in her literature and her insistence upon fidelity to the Standards and Guidelines documents. By protecting the one-teacher-to-one child model, she guards against school districts' temptation to alter the delivery of lessons in order to cut costs. According to Reading Recovery advocates, doing so would undermine the potency of the intervention. However, while Reading Recovery was not designed for general classroom instruction, there are suggestions from the field that imply Reading Recovery training may have carry-over effects to classroom instruction.

Further Suggestions of Reading Recovery's Potential Transferability to Classroom Settings

From my experience, a frequent comment made by Reading Recovery teachers-in-training who are also classroom teachers is that Reading Recovery training has changed their instructional practices in a classroom context. I wish to better understand if and how teachers transfer Reading Recovery-based learning from a one teacher/one student setting to classroom settings when they teach classroom English Language Arts after training in Reading Recovery. As well, teachers may declare shifts in their understanding or beliefs towards literacy instruction stemming from Reading Recovery training.

There have also been indications that professionals familiar with Reading Recovery expect that aspects of Reading Recovery training transfer to the whole classroom. The Canadian Standards and Guidelines (CIRR, 2006) house the suggestion that teachers should "return to regular classroom teaching after 4 to 5 years teaching Reading Recovery" (p. 16). Reading Recovery personnel state the rationale for this guideline was to encourage the formation of a cycle of teacher training within a school district, so that more personnel could benefit from the training and well-trained teachers were returning to classrooms where their specialized training could be put towards informing their classroom practice. However, this expected benefit has never been systematically studied to date in Canada.

Darling-Hammond (2010) gives the example of a U.S. school district, which, as part of a comprehensive approach to redesigning its literacy instruction provided "Reading Recovery training for an ever-widening circle of teachers creating the first foundations of the teacher development initiative. This effort was used to improve teachers' knowledge about how to teach reading to their entire classrooms of students, in addition to providing one-on-one tutoring to students with special reading needs" (p. 231).

The Rolling River School Division in Manitoba, Canada has adopted a policy of targeted training in Reading Recovery. Since beginning its implementation of Reading Recovery in the 2008-2009 school year, the division has only offered the training to Grade One teachers, with the policy that trained teachers will continue to teach both Reading Recovery and Grade One English Language Arts (personal communication, Marg Janssen, Assistant Superintendent, Rolling River School Division, June, 2008). Believing that the training will have benefit to Grade One teachers and their students' literacy acquisition, the Division has continued to train a Grade One teacher from a different school each year.

Following the 2000 release of the U.S. National Reading Panel's reports on research-based methods of teaching reading, Doyle and Forbes (2003; Forbes & Doyle, 2004) reviewed Reading Recovery practice. They concluded that Reading Recovery's teacher training included both theoretical and practical components that met the National Reading Panel's five essential elements of reading instruction: phonemic awareness instruction, phonics instruction, fluency instruction, vocabulary instruction, and comprehension instruction. In addition, they argued, Reading Recovery also provided instruction to foster children's literacy processing, or the coordination of their knowledge and decision-making while reading and writing continuous texts. It is noteworthy that the National Reading Panel's review was in reference to the essential elements of *classroom* reading instruction. If Reading Recovery training addresses each of the five elements, as Doyle and Forbes claim, then it merits investigation if and how teachers interpret this learning when they shift from the one-to-one teaching milieu of Reading Recovery to whole class setting. Are the teachers able to transport or transform their learning about instruction of phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension from Reading Recovery to classroom practice?

The work of other highly regarded authors of literacy teacher professional materials (e.g., Cunningham & Allington, 2007; Johnston, 1997; Routman, 2003) shows evidence of some expected transfer of Reading Recovery procedures to classrooms (e.g., the taking and analysis of running records as a formative reading assessment). These authors and others seem to have drawn upon Clay's theory or their own professional experience in Reading Recovery to inform parts of their perspectives of classroom literacy instruction. Current examples which house Clay's influence are professional books by American authors Irene Fountas and Gay Su Pinnell (e.g., *Guided Reading [1996], When Readers Struggle [2009*]), their *Benchmark Assessment* of reading (2011) and their small-group literacy-intervention, *Leveled Literacy Intervention (2009).* These two authors were Reading Recovery trainers before they developing their own work and acknowledge their indebtedness to Clay's theory and its pervasive influence to their writing. These materials are widely sold in both Canada and the U.S. and their popularity has likely extended the influence of Marie Clay beyond Reading Recovery.

As Clay's work is well known, aspects of Reading Recovery training may also already be present in some Canadian faculties of education, but the prevalence of Clay's theories across institutions has not been examined. Likely, the presence of Reading Recovery-like practices in a faculty of education will hinge upon individual faculty member's familiarity with and opinion of Reading Recovery or their use of other authors' materials in their courses that draw from Clay.

Therefore, it is possible that some teachers may be exposed to some of Clay's theories and methodology or different theories with aspects similar to Clay prior to being trained in Reading Recovery – either in their undergraduate training or in other in-service professional development. In this study, it will be important to ask the teachers to report what they believe to be the source of any Reading Recovery-like practices in their classrooms.

Importantly to the field, if beneficial aspects of Reading Recovery knowledge and practice can migrate to classroom contexts then therein lies some knowledge and skills that should be considered in the light of pre-service teachers' preparation. Perhaps Reading Recovery will emerge as a potential contributor in addressing issues surrounding the training of future primary literacy teachers or the continued professional development of in-service teachers.

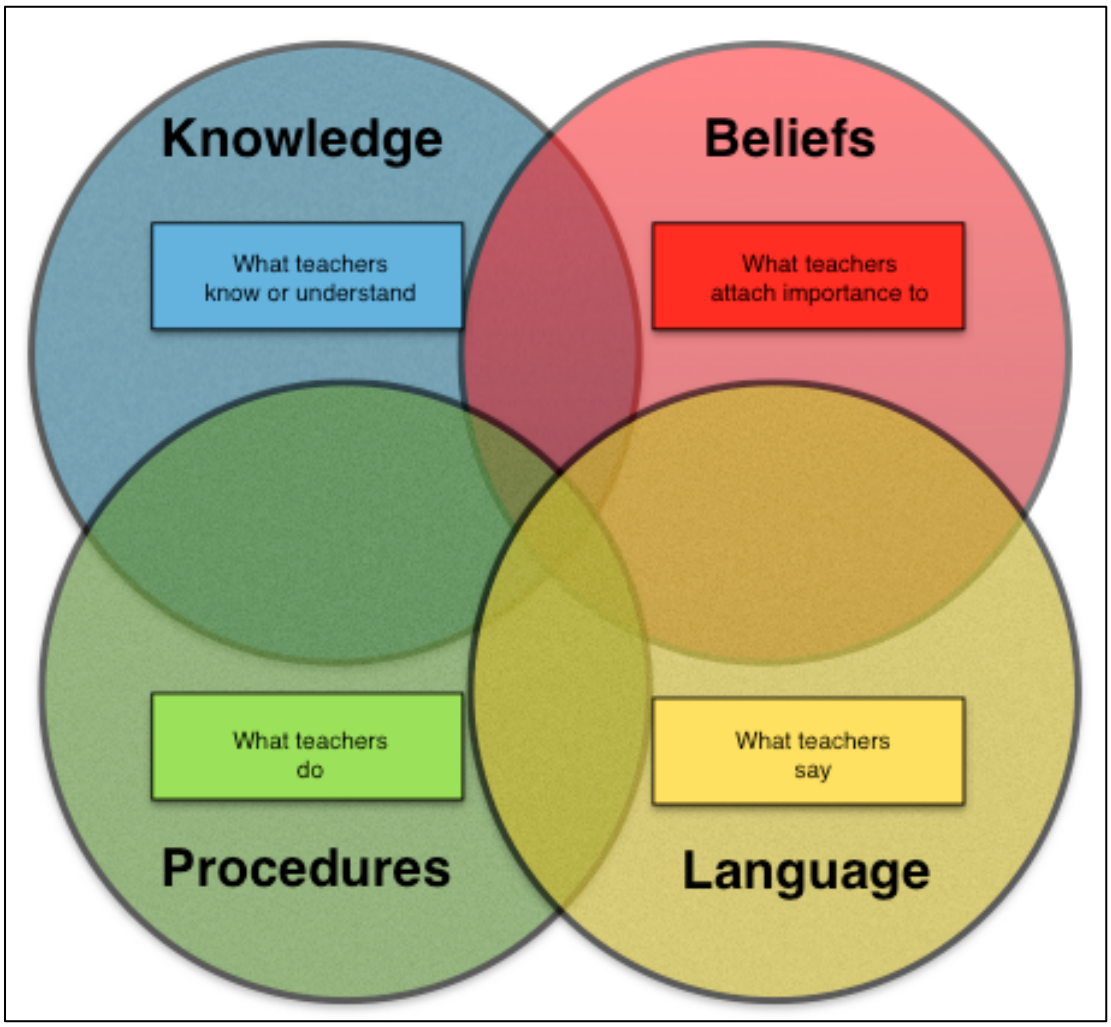
Operationalizing Teacher Learning

In preparation for this inquiry, I reviewed recent research examining the characteristics of exemplary primary literacy teachers (see Chapter 4). I noted that those researchers were describing teachers in three different ways: their knowledge, procedures, and beliefs (i.e. what teachers knew or understood; what they did in their classrooms; and what the researchers had deemed the teachers had attached importance to). This view gave a more multi-dimensional perspective on transfer that I could apply to my investigation of the transportability of Reading Recovery training to classroom environments (Figure 1.1). As well, Reading Recovery incorporates specific language into its pedagogy that can also be observed. In this study, I observe and discuss teacher learning within these four categories: procedures, knowledge, language, and beliefs.

I view each of these attributes as an influence on the others. For example, what teachers understand about how literacy develops will impact the teaching procedure they select or what they say to students. As well, the beliefs the teacher holds about students and literacy education in general will also influence what they do and say (Richardson & Placier, 2001). The reverse can also hold true. For example, if a teacher has been faithfully implementing a program, over time, this experience can influence what they come to believe to be important about literacy

instruction and what they say to students. Their knowledge is shaped according to what they came to understand from their personal history of practice.

Figure 1.1. Attributes of Teachers' Learning Explored in this Study



Research Questions

In my dissertation research, I investigate if and how teacher learning acquired in Reading Recovery training transfers to the context of primary (Kindergarten, Grade One, or Grade Two) classroom literacy instruction.

This dissertation study seeks to answer the following questions:

1) **Do primary teachers report Reading Recovery training influences their classroom literacy instructional practices? If so, what influences do they report?**
2) **If primary teachers report Reading Recovery training as an influence to their classroom literacy instructional practices, what Reading Recovery-like teaching procedures, language, knowledge, or beliefs are observable or reported when the classrooms are systematically observed?**
3) **What does literacy instruction look like in the cases of three primary teachers who are incorporating Reading Recovery-like practices to their classroom literacy instruction?**

To present and discuss my findings, I have organized the dissertation into the following structure: Chapter 2: An overview of the theoretical frames in which the study is situated; Chapter 3: An overview of Reading Recovery's curriculum for teacher learning and its underlying theory; Chapter 4: A review of research relevant to this inquiry; Chapter 5: An overview of the methodology of the study; Chapter 6: A presentation of the survey research findings; Chapters 7, 8, and 9: A presentation of case studies for three teachers; Chapter 10: A cross-case analysis; Chapter 11: A cross-method analysis; and Chapter 12: A discussion of the findings and their significance.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Frame

In this study, I explore the transferability of learning of Reading Recovery concepts from one context, the year-long Reading Recovery training, to another – that of the classroom. I frame my discussion within theories of andragogy (i.e. adult learning), sociocultural theories of learning (specifically, situated learning), and the transfer of learning.

First, I wish to operationalize how I view and discuss adults' learning within a social context and how the transfer of learning has been described. In the next chapter, I turn to Clay's theory of literacy processing, which frames my observations in this inquiry.

Andragogy: Adult Learning

Andragogy, or adult learning, has been described by Knowles (1984) who distinguishes it from pedagogy, the learning of children. Both terms, andragogy and pedagogy, have Greek origins, with andragogy signifying man-leading and pedagogy meaning child-leading. In this study, I am examining the learning of adults, specifically teachers who have trained in Reading Recovery. While the Reading Recovery training centers on early literacy pedagogy, it is the teachers-in-training's learning that is of interest. Knowles outlined ways that adult-learners differ from child-learners.

Knowles (1984) assumes that as people mature, they develop their self-concept in that they move from seeing themselves as a dependent personality to discovering themselves as a self-directed being. Because of this self-concept, adult learners feel more empowered to choose what they are going to learn and want to be involved in the planning and evaluation of instruction. As such, adult learners are more likely to question or challenge their teachers. Often, adults need an explanation as to why specific things are going to be taught. Adult learners also develop an

internal motivation to learn. Knowles describes adult learning as more problem-centered than content-orientated.

Andragogy also incorporates the adage "With age comes experience." Over their lives, adults accumulate many experiences (both successes and failures) and refer to them as a resource for learning. Therefore, from an adult-learning perspective, experience, including mistakes, provides the basis for learning. Adult-learners should be provided opportunities to put learning into action to develop their experience to inform their own learning. I also assume that neither teacher knowledge nor practices are static entities. Roskos and Vukelich (1998) argue, "Teachers mature professionally, and as they do, their pedagogical ideas and understandings change" (p. 255). I view the enactment and quality of literacy teaching as an evolving process for individual teachers.

Adult learning is seen as more effective when it is task-orientated as opposed to memorization. As well, Knowles (1984) encouraged adult learning to be more exploratory, so that learners could discover things and learn from their early mistakes. In Knowles' view, the teacher of adults would set learners off with enough information to get started, but later provide feedback and assistance based on the adults' experiences trying the task.

Finally, adult learning, as mentioned is problem centered, and adults' learning becomes increasingly orientated towards pressing tasks and problems within their social roles. Knowles (1984) states that adults are most interested in learning that has immediate application to their job or personal life. This differs from child-learning, where the application of learning is often postponed (e.g., "You'll need to know this when you grow up."). Adults are more likely to engage in learning activities when they see real-life purpose and when they are allowed to practice the actual activity.

Knowles (1984) view of adult learning takes into account the social roles of adult learners. Other theories have extended their consideration into how the social context shapes and defines learning.

A Sociocultural Perspective of Learning

Differing from behaviorist or cognitive models of learning, which are concerned with the observable artifacts and thinking processes associated with learning, a sociocultural perspective views learning as socially situated (Vygotsky, 1978). From this viewpoint, social interactions as well as imbedded cultural expectations and rules create the boundaries of the learning contexts and define the roles of both learners and teachers.

The work of Vygotksy (1978) is most closely identified with the development of sociocultural theory. Wertch (1991) describes the major premise of a sociocultural view of learning is that learning, or individual development, has its origins in social sources. Learners acquire new strategies and perspectives about the world stemming from their experiences working with others. A sociocultural stance considers what both the teacher and learner bring to the learning task, and how the overall social context shapes the teacher/learner interaction. Vygotsky writes, "Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the [learner] is interacting with people in his environment and with his peers" (p. 90).

A seminal concept brought forward by Vygotsky (1978) is the explanation of learning as socially mediated, and occurring through well-timed explicit instruction from a more knowledgeable other. He describes children's knowledge and skills with the terms Zone of Actual Development (ZAD), what a learner could control independently, and a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), wherein the learner could successfully complete a task, but with the

assistance of a more capable other. In Vygotsky's view, the most rapid gains can be made when a teacher arranges to maximize the instructional time spent within the learner's ZPD. However, at this level of challenge, the learner will require some degree of support from the teacher in order to successfully complete the task at hand. Drawing on this theory, Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) first suggested a metaphor of a scaffold used in construction to describe the evolving support the teacher provides the learner. The teacher's support is seen as a flexible, temporary, and customized framework put into place to support the learner. As the learner gains competence with a task, the teacher can gradually remove the supports. This interaction with the learner, and the teachers' judgments of how much support to provide and when to gradually fade the assistance is what Wood and colleagues coined as providing *scaffolded instruction.*

Drawing on a contemporary sociocultural theory, situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), I consider the teacher learning and the context for learning within and beyond the Reading Recovery community.

Situated Learning

Within the theory of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) teacher learning and the effectiveness of practice are examined taking into account the community of practice in which learning occurs. "A community of practice is a set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice" (p. 98).

Lave and Wenger (1991) see this theory as a bridge between two opposing schools: one that sees cognitive actions, including learning (e.g. Piaget's theory of cognitive development, [Wadsworth, 2004]), as the primary focus of study and another that first examines social actions and views learning as merely a side-effect of participating in social practices (e.g., Bandura's

(1963) social learning theory). Lave and Wenger suggest a more dynamic relationship between learning and the social context:

> In summary, rather than learning by replicating the performances of others or by acquiring knowledge transmitted in instruction, we suggest that learning occurs through centripetal participation in the learning curriculum of the ambient community. Because the place of knowledge is within a community of practice, questions of learning must be addressed within the developmental cycles of that community, a recommendation which creates a diagnostic tool for distinguishing among communities of practice. (p. 100)

Knowledge is seen as belonging to communities, as the communities themselves provide the interpretive support necessary to make sense of ideas, values, and the heritage of the community. Further, the community defines its own social structure of practice. The hierarchy of learners and teachers, power relationships, the conditions of legitimacy, what is acceptable and what is offensive – all constrain what can and should be learned within the community.

Through the process of *legitimate peripheral participation*, or a novice's partaking in the authentic practices of a collective, a novice will move towards becoming a full participant in that group. "This central concept denotes the particular mode of engagement of a learner who participates in the actual practice of an expert, but only to a limited degree and with limited responsibility for the ultimate product as a whole" (p. 14). Lave and Wenger add to a basic conceptualization of apprenticeship by not only considering the actions and knowledge of the master and the apprentice, but also draw back to examine the cultural background in which an apprenticeship unfolds. It is this understanding of the cultural backdrop behind learning that

distinguishes legitimate peripheral participation from describing a learning context as an apprenticeship. For example, describing the learning undertaken by a novice potter learning by working alongside an artisan as an apprenticeship would imply that the novice learned by watching the potter then making his own attempts. The novice would improve by responding to the feedback of the master, gaining mastery over an extended period of cycles of practice, observation, and critique from the more knowledgeable other.

From the vantage point of legitimate peripheral participation, the observation, practice, and feedback are still present, but they are all bound within the learning community's culture. Considering this example, what is appropriate for the master to say to the student and vice versa? What is the student expected and allowed to do at different points of time? How will the quality of the students' work be assessed? What qualities of both the product and the potter are valued over others? When and how much knowledge does the master share with the student? What qualifies an individual within the community to be considered a master? These types of cultural restraints define the role a legitimate peripheral participant, that is, what it means to be a learner in this community and what can be learned.

Lave and Wenger (1991) view situated learning not only as a means of more clearly defining learning contexts, but as a setting in which deeper understandings of knowledge develop. Most of their examples described adult learners and settings of adult education. While this theory could be applied to younger learners, its focus on adults lends itself well to this study and the learning of teachers involved in Reading Recovery.

In a situated learning context, tools are not seen merely as by-products of learning, but as means to construct knowledge through their use. Brown, Collins, and Dugid (1989) explain, "People who use tools actively rather than just acquire them, by contrast, build an increasingly

rich implicit understanding of the world in which they use the tools and of the tools themselves" (p. 33). When learning is purposeful and able to be put into practice in a real world context, engagement and competence benefit. Contrasting the classic school child's lament of "Why do we have to learn this?", situated learning places learners in authentic conditions were real world applications are present throughout and beyond the acquisition of skills and knowledge. Situated learners acquire the "why" of learning (as it is defined by the community of practice) the "what" and "how" through their undertaking their community's legitimate practices. In this context, learners come to not only better understand procedures themselves, but also see how these practices fit into the community's microverse and how that community fits into the larger world.

As well, differing perspectives amongst the participants are believed to mediate their learning. Two learners may seem to undertake the same training "experience" but will come away with different understandings and reactions. From a situated learning viewpoint, learners are conceptualized as learning through the filter of their experience and beliefs. In a classroom of many students, each is seen as viewing the lesson through their own tinted glasses. What may resonate deeply with one learner may only create a superficial reaction from another. The learners are not merely viewed as empty vessels into which knowledge is poured, but as carrying experience which are catalysts to their own learning. The cultural baggage that each learner carries will affect their experience as they situate themselves within the community of learning. Each learner must determine "Who am I?" within the boundaries of the community' practice.

Lave and Wenger (1991) treat "verbal meanings as the product of speakers' interpretive activities, and not merely as the 'content' of linguistic forms" (p. 15). From this viewpoint, understandings are constructed during daily practice (i.e. a learning curriculum) not merely as a product of a syllabus telling them what they should know (i.e. a teaching curriculum). In this

light, knowledge can construed as a pliable construct of the community, a more "I can't explain it, you had to be there" viewpoint. That is to say, the experiences of community practice undertaken by learners help them define and articulate the knowledge of the community. A shared experience of cultural practice build and define the community's knowledge in an evolving fashion. The novice extends their understanding within the community by living the shared experience of the other members of the community. Knowledge is nurtured within the community by talking with another who has walked the same path.

Obstacles to legitimate peripheral participation include access and sequestration. Examining a community's practice of sharing its knowledge with others includes who is allowed access to the community. What controls and standards does a community have in place to maintain who will and will not be accepted? Do the newcomers come into frequent contact with the well-experienced members of the community? In order for any community of practice to continue to exist, it must accept some new members, but the controls placed around access will shape its size and growth.

Another phenomenon impacting the legitimate peripheral participation in some communities is the practice of sequestering the newcomers; that is, removing new members either from participating in the legitimate activities of the community (e.g., the novice washes the master hunter's car while he hunts) or allowing them practice of the legitimate activity, but removing them to the periphery (e.g., the novice practices on a target range while the hunters go hunting). In either case, the cultural practices of the community dictate the treatment and scope of practice of the newcomers. Restricting, resituating, or modifying their legitimate practice however, would dampen the learning that occurs until they are accepted into the community's regular routines.

Viewing Reading Recovery through the lens of situated learning. Reading Recovery training is delivered in an apprenticeship model and a socially mediated milieu. In the Reading Recovery context, teachers learn the pedagogy of the intervention through the process of teaching children, coming to assume the role of a Reading Recovery teacher, and evolving in their practice throughout the year of training. Each Reading Recovery teacher-in-training's experience working with individual children, their personal response to the training sessions and conversations, and the social structure within which the training is conducted will all shape the learning that the training experience facilitates.

Gaffney and Anderson (1991) identify two tiers of scaffolding within the processes of teaching and learning in the context of teachers training to become Reading Recovery teachers. The first tier is support that a teacher provides a child in the process of learning, while the second tier is comprised of the support the teacher herself receives as she learns to assist the child.

In Reading Recovery training, Teacher Leaders serve as the more expert other, guiding novice Reading Recovery teachers, extending their understandings, and supporting their initial efforts to master new instructional methods. This learning very much takes place in a social context, and is delivered in what appears to be a conversation between colleagues (Forbes & Briggs, 2001) centering around live demonstration lessons that are built into each training session and the teachers' own work with children.

Over time, as the teachers-in-training gain more control over their growing knowledge, they assume a larger contributing role in the conversations of the training sessions, and the Teacher Leader releases this responsibility to them. At various points of a session, different teachers-in-training will assume the role of verbalizing the community's knowledge, speaking

from their own relevant experience or articulating their understanding of a concept being tousled by the group.

Swartz (1998) identifies a tension inherent in the training process of Reading Recovery. Taking the stance that communities of practice are defined by the communities' standards and practices, he acknowledges that a period of socialization, or training, as it is referred to in the Reading Recovery community, is required for new members to join. "New members bring knowledge and expertise that both facilitate their learning and enrich the community. But a community of practice can't expand and maintain its identity if new members aren't helped to recognize and adhere to the standards of the community" (p.2). The Reading Recovery training model is somewhat of a dichotomy, incorporating elements of both training and inquiry. While the term "training" implies a teacher-led model of learning, "inquiry" would suggest a more collaborative approach to learning. Often, especially during the initial stages of training, when teachers are first joining the Reading Recovery community, information is shared via a more explicit, teacher-to-learner instructional path from the Teacher Leader to the teachers-in-training. However, group conversations and demonstration lessons are inherent throughout the training year, which fit more readily into an inquiry style of learning (Pinnell, 1994). Schwartz (1998) points out:

> Instructional decisions and actions are based on observation and interpretation of the child's literacy performance. While this is a general principle of instruction in Reading Recovery, there is no precise way to specify how this is to be done. Specific, detailed training is not possible. Group discussion during and after demonstration lessons helps link this knowledge into systems that support instruction. This is authentic inquiry. (p. 3)

Teachers' level of comfort and engagement within the Reading Recovery training may then, in part, hinge upon the degree of tension they feel as they navigate between socializing and collaborative aspects of the training. Individual teachers will hold different expectations of how professional development should unfold. Where one teacher may prefer a more direct approach (i.e., "Tell me what to do.") another may be more suited to more open-ended inquiry (i.e., "What do I think about that?"). As a result, as the training year progressively shifts from a more direct Teacher Leader-led style to one of more authentic inquiry between the whole group, different teachers may feel more or less comfortable with the learning format as the training comes closer or drifts away from alignment with their preferred style of learning. Also and very importantly, the overlying social aspect (i.e. training teachers working relationships with the Teacher Leader and the other teachers) will also mediate individual experience in the training year. As teachers take on new learning, their perception of the competence, supportiveness, and likeability of the Teacher Leader and their colleagues will all shape their impressions and participation in the training.

As part of its design, Reading Recovery (CIRR, 2006) ideally trains experienced classroom teachers. These teachers arrive at their first Reading Recovery professional development sessions carrying their experiences, knowledge, and beliefs about children, learning, and literacy instruction. While some of the teacher's pre-held positions are often confirmed and explored in more depth, other assumptions may be challenged and new ideas may surface in the process of teaching and learning under the umbrella of Clay's theory of literacy processing (see Chapter 3). Clay's conception of literacy development houses concepts that might initially conflict with some viewpoints of the teachers in a training class.

From the onset of the training, teachers are expected to base their instructional decisions upon their consideration of a child's needs against their understanding of Clay's general theory. Clay (2005b) writes:

> One teacher and one child work together in ways that allow a myriad of instructional adjustments to be made. From the recommended procedures a teacher selects those that she requires for a particular child with a particular problem at a particular moment in time. *There are no set teaching sequences: there is no prescription to learn this before that.* A highly appropriate recommendation for one child could be an unnecessary one for another child. The teacher must select the activities needed by a particular child after working with him, observing his responses, and thinking about what he needs to learn next. (p. 2)

Schwartz (1998) frames a tension within the knowledge base of Reading Recovery between *problems versus answers* that must be negotiated by teachers. Often, he states, there is not a fixed, concrete answer in the context of teaching children in Reading Recovery. Rather, situations that call for teacher action are presented as problems, which need to be solved on a case-by-case basis. In Schwartz's view, Reading Recovery endeavors to position the teacher as a decision-maker, as opposed to a script-follower.

In this inquiry, I am interested in how knowledge and skills acquired in Reading Recovery fit within teachers' learning communities in classrooms. It is important to clarify that the theory of situated learning does not preclude the notion of the teachers transporting skills and knowledge from one setting to another. As Putnam and Borko (1997) contest, "The situative perspective is not argument *against* transfer, however, but an attempt to recast the relationship between what people know and the settings in which they know – between the knower and the

known" (p. 12). As learners participate in a new social context, they may employ some common tools or find different applications of familiar tools. "The question seems to be how one describes the detachability of these skills from the participatory contexts in which they were acquired" (Lave & Wegner, 1991, p. 19). To better describe how teachers transport or modify skills between contexts, I now turn to work that examines the transfer of learning.

Transfer of Learning

In the last three decades, cognitive research has had a far greater influence on educational theory (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2004). For example, research in cognitive psychology has more clearly defined the nature of competent performance and principles of how knowledge is organized. Additional work in social psychology, cognitive psychology, and anthropology has asserted that the contexts and spaces of learning are bound by particular sets of cultural and social norms and expectations. These settings influence learning and the transfer of learning in powerful ways.

Early in the twentieth century, Thorndike and Woodworth (1901) introduced the notion of the transfer of learning, which they described as the dependency of human performance and learning on prior experience. That is, our prior learning shapes our response and capacity in novel situations from which the initial learning occurs. More contemporary discussions of the nature of learning transfer view transferability as a signpost of the quality of learning. Bransford, Brown, and Cocking suggest (2004):

> Measures of transfer play an important role in assessing the quality of people's learning experiences. Different kinds of learning experiences can look equivalent when tests of learning focus solely on remembering (e.g., on the ability to repeat previously taught facts or procedures), but they can look quite different when tests

of transfer are used. Some kinds of learning experiences result in effective memory but poor transfer; others produce effective memory plus positive transfer. (p. 51)

Joyce and Showers (1984) conceptualize the *transfer* of teaching skills as teachers demonstrating skills in multiple, specific contexts. Schunk (2004) has further categorized different types of learning transfer, dependent on the nature of the previous learning and the new context (Table 2.1).

Schunk (2004) delineates *near* and *far* transfer as different based on the similarity or dissimilarity of the context where skills were acquired and the new context where they are eventually applied. For example, students who apply the skill of equivalent fractions at home to measure ingredients for a recipe are transferring skills to a much different setting and context than learning about fractions at school.

Table 2.1

Schunk's (2004) Types of Learning Transfer

Type of Transfer of Learning	Characteristics
Near	Original and transfer contexts are similar
Far	Original and transfer contexts are dissimilar
Positive	What is learned in one setting enhances learning in another
Negative	What is learned in one setting hinders or delays learning in the another
Figural	Uses some aspect of initial learning to think about a problem in a new setting
Low Road	Transfer of well established skills in a near automatic fashion
High Road	Transfer involves the learning consciously formulating ways in which previous learning can be applied to the new setting

In different situations, previous learning can be both *positive* and *negative* towards transfer. In some cases, prior knowledge assists the learner in a new context, while in others it is confusing. A person used to using a Windows platform on a computer may later find that previous experience confuses them when they are first navigating an Apple computer. A repeated routine acquired in the Windows setting, for example, quitting an application by clicking the

corner 'X' icon when transported to the Apple screen appears to accomplish the same effect when clicking the corner red button. However, Windows users may be surprised that while the Apple window has closed, the application is still running. The habits of one setting may mislead and frustrate learners while in the process of learning familiar skills in a new setting – especially if their automatic responses result in undesired results.

However, in other cases, prior learning can assist the learner in a new setting. In a positive transfer, a person might find their prior experience using an iPad extremely helpful in their learning how to use a brand new iPhone.

Literal and *figural* transfers designate either transfer of intact skills in the literal case or, in the case of figural transfer, one uses general knowledge from previously learned skills to solve a problem in a new setting. Schunk states that in order to make a figural transfer the learner must first draw an analogy between the old and new setting to apply the appropriate prior knowledge towards solving the new task at hand.

Finally, Schunk (2004) describes an automatic, or unconscious transfer of well-learned skills in what he terms a *low road* transfer. Here, the learner directly applies what he has previously learned spontaneously, as an instinctive response to a new situation. Conversely, when the learner adapts acquired knowledge into a new situation, a *high road* transfer is occurring. In this study, I am not only looking for examples of low road, that is, exact replications of Reading Recovery principles and procedures, but also will consider how teachers are modifying elements of Reading Recovery for use in a whole class context.

It has been argued that the transfer of problem-solving strategies (Crowley & Siegler, 1999) requires that the learner have a deep understanding of the strategy plus conditional knowledge of its potential applications. Learners gain this conditional understanding as they

expand in their ability to articulate the nature of the strategy. That is, the more deeply one understands a strategy, the more flexibly and broadly the learner can apply it in other contexts.

Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2004) theorized four key elements of learning transfer: the necessity of initial learning, the importance of abstract and conceptual knowledge, the conception of learning as an active and dynamic process, and the notion that all learning is transferred. For each element, I discuss how teacher learning in the context of Reading Recovery training might be supported to transfer.

First, for transfer to occur, some initial learning must occur. As opposed to simple memorization, transfer is more likely to occur when the learner obtained deeper understanding of concepts. Practical use of knowledge and motivation are also seen as enhancements to learning transfer. Developing meta-cognition, or the awareness of how one thinks and learns is seen as important to increasing both learning and transfer. From this viewpoint, the multiple and frequent opportunities in the Reading Recovery training to discuss and challenge teachers' understandings of underlying knowledge would be seen as a potential enhancer to transfer. However, the depth of understanding that each individual teacher constructs would also play into their capacity to adapt Reading Recovery learning back within a classroom setting.

Second, learning in multiple contexts provides the learner the capacity to identify key elements of concepts and to develop more flexible representations of that knowledge. Developing deep versus shallow levels of understanding enable transfer between more widely varied settings. Learning to distinguish core elements from more trivial details in knowledge renders that knowledge more transferable. During the Reading Recovery training year, teachers provide individual instruction to four different children daily and begin work with a new student immediately when one student completes his/her series of lessons (CIRR, 2006). Although a

child's series of lessons may be extended during the training year beyond the normal 12- to 18-week period, it is not uncommon for training teachers to work with eight or more different children during the training year. As well, training and continuing teachers in Reading Recovery have the opportunity to observe and discuss the live, "behind the glass" teaching of two different children at each Reading Recovery professional development session. Each of these components of the structure of Reading Recovery training expose the teachers to and require the teachers' consideration of Reading Recovery pedagogy within the context of different learners. A key skill, according to proponents of Reading Recovery, is the teacher's ability to formatively assess different children and tailor their instruction according to the needs of a child. To develop this skill beginning in the training year, the teachers are asked to examine what they have learned in the training and apply this knowledge in a case-by-case approach.

Third, Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2004) agree with Schunk (2004) in that previous learning can either help or hinder new learning. The compatibility of the new knowledge with the old and the degree of similarity between learning contexts could facilitate or frustrate new learning or the application of old knowledge in a new setting. I acknowledge that individual teachers' prior knowledge, beliefs, and history of practice will shape the nature and degree of change brought about by the Reading Recovery training. Some teachers may find Reading Recovery training compatible with their previous practices. Other teachers may have held a different theoretical stance (e.g., they taught reading mainly through the presentation of high quality children's literature without an emphasis on direct instruction) and find themselves in conflict with the paradigms of Reading Recovery.

Cultural practices are seen as having a strong role in connecting old and new learning – for example, if a teacher customarily activated prior knowledge in a classroom before introducing

new material, this practice might assist them in understanding Clay's (2005b) approach towards orienting a struggling reader to a new text before reading. However, new Reading Recovery teachers with a teaching tradition that greatly differs from the practices found in Reading Recovery might find it difficult to accept ideas from their training.

Finally, transfer of learning is seen as the ultimate goal of any learning. Learning that occurs in schools for example, is seen as outwardly destined for application in the world beyond school. Teachers are encouraged to develop tools in their students to help them "choose, adapt, and invent tools for solving problems" (p. 78). Learning for learning's sake (i.e. memorization of facts) is not regarded as the goal of teaching. The authors argue that learning should lead to skills and knowledge that were applicable to real world contexts. In this light, teachers should only transfer learning from Reading Recovery that they felt had application to the contexts of their classrooms. The degree of transfer would hinge upon an individual's teacher's assessment of the value of Reading Recovery-learning to their own classroom practice.

Working within this theory, the degree and depth to which teachers understand Reading Recovery pedagogy will influence their transfer of skills into classroom settings. Teachers will also navigate the varying contexts between teaching in a one-to-one setting in Reading Recovery and the different contexts found in a classroom (e.g., small group, whole class). Where there may be sometimes a seemingly automatic transfer of skills between similar contexts (e.g., providing feedback to a single child reading in a classroom) there may be different degrees of transfer when the connection between the Reading Recovery and classroom context is more abstract (e.g., reading a story to an entire classroom). Individual teachers then, following this line of thought on transfer of learning, may vary in the situations, degrees, and frequency of transfer of Reading Recovery skills to their own classrooms.

Chapter 3: Reading Recovery: Clay's Theory and Curriculum for Teachers-in-Training

Given that this study focuses on teacher learning originating in the training provided by Reading Recovery, it is necessary to provide the reader with some detail of the intended learning outcomes of Reading Recovery's teacher training and describe the instructional procedures, language, and philosophies associated with the program. In this chapter, I outline Reading Recovery's syllabus according to what I have established as dimensions of teacher learning (i.e. procedures, language, knowledge, and beliefs; see Chapter 1) to operationalize potential signposts of Reading Recovery-based teacher learning that could be reported or observed within this study's data.

A Knowledge Base for Reading Recovery Teachers: Clay's Theory of Literacy Processing

Reading Recovery training and practice are situated with Clay's (1991, 1998, 2001, 2005a) theory of literacy processing, which is described as foundational to the procedures (Clay, 2005a, 2005b) implemented by Reading Recovery teachers. Askew and Gaffney (1999) discuss one of Reading Recovery training's positive impacts on teachers was their increased knowledge of literacy processes and development. A major component of the intended learning of Reading Recovery training is that teachers "develop their understanding of reading and writing processes" (NZRR, 2010b, Tutor Information: Objectives of the Teacher Training Course).

In Clay's (1991, 1998, 2005a) theory, children are seen as emerging into literacy, growing at individual paces and along various paths shaped by their unique experiences, aptitudes, and interests. From this perspective, literacy learning is not viewed as a sequential, lock-step instructional process. While there are essential early skills and knowledge in the development of

reading and writing processes, Clay argues that children may take different paths towards a common outcome of literacy development. Individualized instruction is viewed as more efficient than a universal curriculum or pre-determined sequences of instruction for all learners.

Many of the Reading Recovery teaching procedures are guided by the question, "What do proficient readers do as they problem-solve increasingly difficult texts?" (Clay, 2001, p. 43). Clay (2005b) defines reading as a "message-getting, problem-solving activity that increases in power and flexibility the more it is practiced" (pp. 103-4). Children are viewed as actively constructing their own systems of literacy skills through their negotiation and completion of accumulated reading and writing tasks. Clay presents literacy development mainly from a cognitive stance, stating that there are common and essential bodies of knowledge literacy learners must access. More important, however, is how effectively young readers and writers strategically handle this information to synthesize or produce a text-based meaning. She summarizes the complexity of the a literacy processing system in the following:

> In a complex model of interacting competencies in reading and writing the reader can potentially draw from all his or her current understanding, and all his or her language competencies, and visual information, and phonological information, and knowledge of printing conventions, in ways which *extend both the searching and linking processes as well as the item knowledge repertoire.* Learners pull together necessary information from print in simple ways at first . . . but as opportunities to read and write accumulate over time the learner becomes able to quickly and momentarily construct a somewhat complex operating system which might solve the problem. (Clay, 2001, p. 224)

Children are seen as undertaking strategic cognitive processes as they read and write text (Clay, 2005b). As they read and write, children make decisions as they search for and use

information from a variety of sources (visual, meaning, structure, audiological), cross-check sources of information against one another, select amongst alternatives, monitor the effectiveness of their decisions, or self-correct errors. "Reading Recovery children are taught to use cues and strategies rather than to memorize skills in order to read fluently" (Hill & Hale, 1991, p. 481). Clay is careful to distinguish the common use of the term "strategy" which may imply a scripted, standard response to a literacy problem (e.g., "When in doubt, sound it out") from "thinking strategically", where a child uses what he knows in conjunction with cues in the text to solve problems (e.g., teacher prompts, "What do you expect to see at the beginning?" [Clay, 2005b, p. 108]).

Children's literacy development is viewed through a constructivist lens. "Children construct their personal rules about written language from the print you expose them to" (p. 2). In Clay's (2005a) theory, children are depicted as cognitively building a literacy processing system, or skills and knowledge that enable literate acts:

> Children use their brains to attend to certain things, to work out certain things, to find similarities and differences, to build complex processing systems, to use the language they already speak, and to link it to visual squiggles on paper" (p. 3).

Such processes and knowledge emerge, then become internal (Jones, 1995) and ultimately, elusive to the teacher. At best, through careful observation of visible behaviours, a teacher can only make informed assumptions about the nature of a child's approach to literacy processing, but is cautioned to remain tentative and flexible in those interpretations of the implications of the child's behaviours.

Six embedded principles (NZRR, 2010a, Teacher Guidesheet: Key understandings) are identified in the Reading Recovery literature as keystone knowledge within Clay's theory:

1) The power of individual instruction
2) Acceleration of children's learning
3) Reciprocal gains of reading and writing
4) Independence
5) Building the foundations for a self-extending system

The power of individual instruction. Although Clay did not refer to Vygotsky during the development of the intervention, the pedagogy of Reading Recovery has since been described in Vygotskian terms (Clay & Cazden, 1990; Cox, Fang, & Schmitt, 1998; Gaffney & Anderson, 1991; Moore, 1998; Sylva, Hurry, & Peters, 1997) which lend themselves well to describing the individualized and scaffolded (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976) nature of Clay's approach to literacy instruction. Clay (2005b) argues that the major advantage of individual instruction is its affordance of time and attention for the teacher to design effective instruction for each child.

To ensure that the teacher is mindful of a child's ZAD and ZPD, Reading Recovery intends that teachers spend the first ten lessons getting to know the child and his particular competencies thoroughly, in a period referred to as *Roaming Around the Known* (Clay, 2005a). Teachers are guided during these initial lessons to stay tightly within the child's ZAD, consolidating, bringing more fluency and confidence to what the child already knows and, in this getting-to-know-one-another process, try to unearth previously unseen knowledge within the child.

Once regular lessons have commenced, the teacher, through daily assessment and observation, is coached to gear her lessons, feedback, and cues according to the immediate needs of the child. Clay (2005b) writes:

> The teacher's prompts and other responses during the reading have two aims:

> a) To improve the processing of information on continuous texts (the orchestration of efficient reading, the pulling together of everything you know) [Zone of Actual Development: ZAD]
>
> b) To support the continued expansion of the processing system itself to cope with more features of language [Zone of Proximal Development: ZPD]
>
> The teacher helps the child to get to information from print to facilitate the reading of the story in different ways. She must be tentative. She can never be certain what kind of help is needed. (p. 93)

This direction from Clay aligns with Vygotsky's (1978) view of the utility of the ZPD, as he states, "Thus, the zone of proximal development permits us to delineate the child's immediate future and his dynamic development state, allowing not only for what already has been achieved developmentally but also for what is in the course of maturing" (p. 87).

The Reading Recovery teachers are directed to give attention to both the child's ZAD (through successful practice of reading and writing familiar texts) and the ZPD (via the challenges to the existing processing system). "In short, an inverse relationship exists between the contribution of the teachers' resources and the demands that can placed on students as their resources develop. The role of the teacher is to control this shift" (Clay, 2001, pp. 113-14). Clay asserts that the teacher must not work from predetermined assumptions, or instructional sequences that may have worked with other children, but to remain tentative and open to accurately observe the needs of the child at hand. Through this lens, Reading Recovery instruction is viewed as "a system of social interaction organized around the comprehension and production of texts that demonstrably creates new forms of cognitive activity in the child" (Clay & Cazden, 1990, p. 206).

Lyons, Pinnell, and DeFord (1993) describe how a teacher-in-training's understanding of their role in instruction may shift from a traditional classroom perspective to what they term an *active teaching* role:

> Active teaching in this sense is not the same as planned direct instruction. Like direct instruction, teachers take the initiative to draw students' attention to critical elements in the reading process. But unlike direct instruction, teachers' moves must conform to students' responses and repertoire. Making the decisions related to their active teaching is the most difficult challenge for Reading Recovery teachers. (p. 91)

Acceleration of children's learning. Within Clay's philosophy, low-progress children need a period of accelerated learning, if they are to close an ever-widening gap between their achievement and that of their peers each year (Clay, 1987, 2005a; Stanovich, 1986). "In order to become an average-progress child he will have to progress faster than his classmates for a time if he is to catch up to them. Acceleration refers to this increase in the rate of progress" (Clay, 2005a, p. 22). In Clay's view, the child's accelerated learning is dependent upon "how well the teacher selects the clearest, easiest, most memorable examples with which to establish a new response, skill, principle, or procedure" (p. 23). Acceleration is not seen as a condition that the teacher suddenly switches on. Rather, from the onset of lessons, the Reading Recovery teacher is asked to provide a learning environment where more and more things become familiar and easy to the child and, as a result, his attention can turn to new challenges. In this context, acceleration should occur, as the child uses each day's successes to empower new learning.

Reciprocal gains of reading and writing. Clay (1991, 2005a) views both reading and writing as complex, cognitive processes, which embody the challenge of linking together

invisible spoken language with visible printed symbols. Working from Clay's theoretical base, Reading Recovery personnel view reading as a complex process of making meaning from printed symbols, and writing as a message-sending act through the recording of meanings in print.

> Reading is a message-getting, problem-solving activity, which increases in power and flexibility the more it is practiced. It is complex because within the directional constraints of written language verbal and perceptual behaviours are purposefully directed in some integrated way to the problems of extracting sequences of information from texts to yield meaningful and specific communications. (Clay, 2001, p. 1)

Reading and writing are complex processes, within which lay many interconnected sub-processes and knowledge which, from their foundation, need to mature into dynamic, flexible, efficient, and self-extending processing systems, according to Clay (2005a, 2005b). "Familiar marks on the page can be linked to familiar language networks in the brain, and they allow us to make sense of novel messages never read before. Processing activities may involve only one network or many networks 'talking' to each other!" (Clay, 2005a, p. 1).

In Clay's theory, reading, writing, and oral language development are reciprocally beneficial to one another and can be both drawn from and built upon explicitly and incidentally by teaching and learning amongst the three modalities of language (Clay, 2004, 2005b, Spiegel, 1995). "Learning to write letters, words and sentences is particularly helpful as the child learns to make the visual discriminations of detail in print that he will use in his reading" (Clay, 2005a, p. 27). However, this association does not occur for all children spontaneously, and may require that a teacher point out these connections.

From this standpoint, Reading Recovery teachers are asked to foster growth in both a child's reading and writing (and their oral language, as "the child's ultimate resource for learning to read and write is his spoken language" [Clay, 2005b, p 2]). Reading and writing activities in Reading Recovery lessons, then, should receive equal priority and be seen with equal gravitas by the teachers. Working with Clay's theory, teachers may become mindful of a child's strengths in and across language modalities so that competence or knowledge in one mode may be called up to assist the child in another.

Independence. Proponents of Reading Recovery argue that one of the indications of success of a literacy intervention is the child's development of independence. Following this line of thought, children in Reading Recovery are encouraged to make attempts to solve most problems. Clay (2005b) states:

> Do not establish a pattern where the child waits for the teacher to do the work. The child must learn to take the initiative, make some links, and work at a difficulty. That is the general principle that needs to be established in the first lessons. (p. 107)

The Reading Recovery training often highlights the importance of fostering children's independence. According to Clay:

> [Reading Recovery] Teachers aim to produce independent readers so that reading and writing improve whenever children read and write. The reader who problem-solves independently has continual access to new learning. Some things become routine and the brain takes over most of the checking and rapidly locates familiar things. The reader is then free to deliberately attend to other things and can, independent of the teacher, extend his own learning. (2005a, p. 40)

Building the foundation for a self-extending system. In the Reading Recovery's mind's eye, the goal of literacy instruction should be that teachers aim to produce readers and writers who improve each time they read and write (Clay, 2005a). Ideally, a child draws from each successful encounter with texts, adding to the repertoire of what he can do, confirming and extending what he knows about printed language, and making more complex levels of performance easy through accumulated successes reading and writing.

To develop such a self-extending system requires longer than a single school year. Clay (2005b) points out that:

> Children completing their Reading Recovery lesson series will not yet have completed the construction of a self-extending system. They are well on the way but they need to continue to be successful readers and writers in their classroom able to access their teacher's help with oral reading for another 12 to 18 months. (p. 99)

Reading Recovery teachers are reminded that their goal is not to arrange for children to construct completed, self-extending systems. Instead, they need watch for the foundations of literacy processing systems that have self-generative capacity so that children can continue to flourish in the context of regular classroom instruction.

At the heart of Clay's theory, individual children may be seen as taking different paths toward a common goal of literacy "success," varying in their unique experiences, aptitudes, and interests. This view defies the use of a single curriculum or instructional sequence that would seem to promise to benefit all children equally. Clay (2001) is critical of such a view of instruction, stating, "Critics of schools sometimes imply that people have different levels of intelligence but that all people can reach a *similar* level in reading achievement. These two

expectations are contradictory" (p. 23). Cox and Hopkins (2006) argue that Reading Recovery training provides teachers with "a conceptual understanding of the literacy process as it develops for diverse children" (p. 263), which, in their view, comprises a critical element to both successful intervention and classroom literacy instruction.

The Reading Recovery Curriculum for Teacher Training: Procedures, Language, and Beliefs

The training year of Reading Recovery is framed within a standard curriculum (CIRR, 2006; Clay, 2004, 2005a, 2005b; Reading Recovery New Zealand [RRNZ], 2010a, 2010b; RRCNA, 2008).

Teaching procedures. Both the guidesheets for teachers and information sheets for Teacher Leaders (NZRR, 2010a, 2010b) identify intended skills for new Reading Recovery teachers. Ideally, through participation in the course, teachers:

- Become skilled at using a range of systematic observation techniques to assess and guide children's reading and writing progress
- Become competent at using the specific Reading Recovery teaching procedures
- Are able to design individual instruction that assists the child to produce effective strategies for working on text
- Are able to critically evaluate their work and that of their peers
- Are able to guide the programme and report regularly on its operation in their schools. (NZRR, 2010b, Tutor [i.e. Teacher Leader] Information: Objectives of the Teacher Training Course)

Observation techniques. During their first professional development sessions in Reading Recovery, teachers undergo training to administer and interpret Clay's (2002) *Observation*

Survey of Early Literacy Achievement. This assessment is designed to capture a snapshot of a child's current competencies in the emergent phase of literacy. Children are observed undertaking a variety of early reading and writing tasks so that a teacher may gain a sense of a child's control and understanding of letter identification, concepts about printed language, reading/writing vocabulary, and letter/sound association. These assessments are later used formatively in the design of a child's early Reading Recovery lessons and, summatively, when pre- and post-intervention scores are compared to measure progress.

Teachers are also trained in the taking and analysis of running records of continuous text reading (Clay, 2002). Running records are used to find a child's beginning instructional text level, but are also recorded during each lesson. The analysis of these daily records is expected to inform the planning of subsequent reading instruction.

General teaching procedures. Reading Recovery teachers are trained to structure each 30-minute lesson using a common, repeated framework of activities (Clay, 2005a):

a) Rereading of familiar texts
b) Independent reading of yesterday's lesson's new text, teacher records running record
c) Working with letters and words at magnetic whiteboard
d) Composing and writing of a daily message
e) Reconstruction of a cut-apart sentence, taken from the daily message
f) Introduction to and reading of a new text

Applying a standardized lesson frame within an "individualized" program may appear contradictory, but as Anderson (1999) writes:

> The Reading Recovery teacher is invited to make many decisions, but at the same time to take other lesson features as givens. That there will be boundaries on

> decision-making is inevitable; you cannot question everything at the same time. Decisions are impossible unless some conditions are accepted as given, at least provisionally. (p. 7)

Some teaching procedures (e.g., Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words [HRSW], pp. 72-81; Making a personal alphabet book for a child, pp. 35-6) provide explicit descriptions of what the teacher says and does in the implementation of the procedure. In the example of HRSW, during the writing portion of the lesson, the teacher draws Elkonin boxes (i.e., one box for each phoneme in the word to be solved) as a scaffold to support the child's attempt to spell an unknown word. The child articulates the word slowly, while pushing chips, one at a time, into the boxes to help isolate and identify the phonemes so that he can later record matching letters for each sound with minimum assistance required from his teacher to arrive at the conventional spelling of the unknown word.

Other procedures, such as the teacher's introduction of a new text to the child are not as scripted, but instead are guided by suggestions from Clay. For example, how teachers introduce each new text to be read by a child for the first time is left to the teacher's design with the following suggestions:

> Having carefully selected a book for a particular child the teacher reads it herself, thinking about the best ways to orient this child to this book. Make the child familiar
>
> • With the story [theme],
>
> • With the plot,
>
> • With the phrases of language that he might never have heard,
>
> • With unusual names and new words,

- And with old words used in an unusual way. (p. 91)

Teaching procedures that are either described explicitly or with supportive suggestion are listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Explicit and Suggestion Supported Reading Recovery Teaching Procedures

Explicitly Described Procedures	Suggestion Supported Procedures
• Recording directional behaviours (p. 8) • Early teaching of one-to-one voice/print matching (pp. 16-18). • Creating a personal alphabet book for the child (pp. 35-37) • Learning about how words are constructed (pp. 42-45) • The form of the child's workspace for the daily message (p. 54) • Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words (p. 72-79) • Working with the Cut-up Story (pp. 82-84) • Learning about how words work – solving and constructing words of growing complexity (pp. 140-145) • Assisting children who know little about stories or story telling (pp. 162-163) • Assisting children with sequencing problems (pp. 165-166) • Steps to take when working with children who are finding it hard to accelerate (pp. 180-182)	• Modeling directionality of print (p. 7) • Teaching starting position (p. 9) • Encouraging/discouraging children to point at text while reading (pp. 10-13) • Breaking letters out of words (pp. 19-20) • Using space when writing and assembling cut-up stories (p. 20) • Assisting children's adaption from one-line to multi-line pages of text (p. 20) • Using a non-lined page for children's writing (p. 20) • Extending letter identification (pp. 23-29) • Dealing with confusions of visual forms of letters (pp. 29-30) • Fostering fast visual recognition of visual information (p. 31) • Expanding known words in reading and writing (pp. 40-41) • Extending child's control of oral language (p. 51) • Eliciting a story or conversation with the child (p. 55) • Supporting the child as he writes (p. 57) • Extending the child's writing vocabulary (p. 57-59) • Engaging the child in rereading his written story (p. 61-62) • Selecting words for child to add to his written vocabulary (p.64) • Adjusting the level of support in writing through the series of lessons (p. 67) • Selecting words to be solved using *Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words* (pp. 72-79) • Teacher control of the learning opportunities and level of support in *Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words* (pp. 72-79) • Teacher control of learning opportunities and level of support in the Cut-Up Story (pp. 82-85) • Choosing texts for children (pp. 89-90) • Orienting children to the new story before reading (pp.90-93) • Supporting and teaching children during the first reading of a text (pp. 92-95) • Taking a running record during the second reading of a text, the next day (p. 97) • Teaching after the second reading (p. 97-98) • Building a collection of familiar texts (p. 98) • Providing opportunities for familiar reading (p. 98) • Selecting appropriate prompts (pp. 115-116) • Linking sound and letter sequences (pp. 118-125) • Taking words apart when reading (pp. 129-132) • Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words (pp. 132-133) • Taking words apart after reading (p. 133) • Solving words through analogy to known words (pp. 133-137) • Learning to solve more advanced words (pp. 145-148) • Demonstrating and fostering fluent reading (pp. 152-157)

Explicitly Described Procedures	Suggestion Supported Procedures
	• Assisting children with strong skills that block learning (pp. 169-172) • Assisting children who find it hard to hear sounds or see letters (pp. 173-174) • Assisting children who find it hard to remember (pp. 175-178) • Assisting children with more than one problem area (pp. 179-180) • Teaching children with low proficiency in English (pp. 182-183)

Clay (2005a) argues that struggling children differ more among themselves than average children learning to read and write, and that their confusions may require different approaches than those used commonly in classrooms. As a goal for a teacher-in-training, Clay suggests that she:

> Must know of many ways to foster literacy skills, must vary her teaching sequences, and be bold in negotiating short-cuts. To be able to pick and choose among teaching techniques and learning activities, and pull the right one into her lesson at the crucial moment, that teacher must be very familiar with possible teaching alternatives. (p. 26)

Clay (2005b) sets out that, in Reading Recovery, "There are no set teaching sequences: there is no prescription to learn this before that. A highly appropriate recommendation for one child could be an unnecessary one for another child" (p. 2). Herein lies a challenge for many teachers training in Reading Recovery: the prospect of teaching an exceptional child without the comfort of a completely preconceived sequence of lessons or scripted responses to "common" occurrences.

Critical evaluation of teaching. Clifford Johnson (2001), in an address to a U.S. national assembly of Reading Recovery Teacher Leaders, stated:

> [Reading Recovery] Teachers come to understand that acquiring techniques and procedures is not all that is required to teach effectively. What they come to

> understand with [the Teacher Leader's] help is the critical nature of making good teaching decisions for individual children. During behind-the-glass discussions, teachers learn to discuss, question, challenge, and revise their thinking about what is appropriate for struggling readers and writers. Because of [the support of the Teacher Leader] they learn to make better teaching decisions. (p. 23)

It would seem teachers training in Reading Recovery are called to both assess and, based on their critique, adjust their instruction to better suit the needs of the children they are teaching. "It is necessary to ensure that change occurs in your teaching during each child's series of individually designed lessons. Gaining deeper insights about how you are working will lead to greater understanding and more effective teaching decisions" (NZRR, 2010a, Teacher Guidesheet, Reviewing progress: Change over time in teaching). Reading Recovery Trainers, Pinnell, Fried, and Estice (1990) conclude, "In the long run, perhaps the most important benefit of Reading Recovery for teachers is the insight they acquire in the process of analyzing and articulating their own teaching decisions" (p. 289).

In addition, teachers are encouraged to use both their Running Records and the notes that they record on daily lesson records as sources of information to inform their instruction. For example, a teacher could review her own records when a child's progress slowed to look for ineffective patterns in her teaching.

The two live demonstration lessons, and the discussions that surround them during each of the professional development sessions, also are meant to facilitate a critical view of the teachers' own teaching. During these lessons, the observing teachers are to identify decisions, inquire, challenge, and explore alternatives to their colleagues' decisions during the demonstration lessons as a means of informing their own practice. Witnessing the demonstration lessons

provides the training group with examples of children representing a far wider variety of learners then they would experience in their own teaching.

While the observing teachers may provide some feedback to the demonstration teachers, it is often presented that the major benefactors of the demonstration lessons are the observers. Within the Reading Recovery culture, providing a demonstration lesson for colleagues is viewed as a tremendous gift, as it affords the observers opportunity to learn from a colleague's example and take from the lesson whatever each observer deems relevant and important to their own teaching. Often in the discussion following the demonstration lessons, observing teachers comment on what implications an aspect of the demonstration lesson held for their own teaching. Comments such as, "Tomorrow, when I teach [child], I'm going to try this", "You handled [X] well, I have to try that", "I was wondering why you chose to go that route", or "You made me think about [X] when I was watching your lesson" are common in a professional development session.

Program implementation. Reading Recovery teachers are also tasked with becoming the stewards for the intervention within their schools and communities and, when necessary, providing information about Reading Recovery to other staff in their schools and districts. Teachers-in-training are expected to participate in their schools' literacy teams (CIRR, 2006), supporting the implementation by working with their school teams to ensure a standard implementation.

Suggested language. As part of the Reading Recovery curriculum, teachers are also presented prompts, which are language the teacher might use in hopes of generating a specific response by the child. Clay is careful to distinguish between the two terms, teaching and prompting, writing, "Give thoughtful attention to the level of help the child needs and decide

when you are prompting for processing or when you should be supplying information that the learner does not have (teaching)" (p. 94). In the Reading Recovery community, specific language, based upon names of procedures, Clay's theoretical terminology, or quoting the prompts is common in the discourse of Reading Recovery professionals. Each of the chapters of *Literacy Lessons Designed for Individuals, Part Two* contains several prompts.

While there is an appendix of numerous categorized prompts in Clay's text (2005b, pp. 202-205), many of the prompts appear *only* in their relevant chapters. Clay designed the text with the intention of maintaining a salient bond between the teaching procedures and their underlying theoretical principles (Table 3.2). Presumably, through this structuring of the text, teachers are steered through a review of the theoretical underpinnings en route to locating a specific prompt.

Table 3.2

Reading Recovery Principles with Corresponding Prompts in Literacy Lessons Part II (Clay, 2005b)

Reading Recovery Principles Guiding Specific Prompts
• Encouraging a pointing finger only at times of confusion (p. 12) • Modeling the scanning of words left to right (p. 13) • Drawing attention to letters (p. 27) • Encouraging writing known words faster (p. 62) • Calling for search of knowledge to solve a word in reading (p. 65) • Calling for search of knowledge to solve a word in writing (p. 65) • Intervening in errors in writing (p. 66) • Teaching after the first reading of a text (p. 95) • Rereading for fluency (p. 96) • Checking, extending comprehension after first reading (p. 97) • Encouraging checking with one-to-one matching (p. 106) • Locating known words in continuous text (p. 106) • Locating an unknown word (p. 107) • Encouraging children to remember words (p. 107) • Fostering self-monitoring (pp. 108-109) • Fostering cross-checking of information (p. 110) • Fostering searching for information of various types (pp. 111, 115) • Encouraging use of visual information (p. 111) • Praising self-correction (p. 113) • Fostering self-monitoring/self- correction (p. 113) • Drawing attention to visual features (p. 132) • Encouraging phrasing in fluent reading (p. 150)

While teaching Reading Recovery, the teachers endeavor to select the most effective prompt they can offer in moment-to-moment teaching. However, the sheer number and variety of prompts in the text require that most teachers read and return to the text many times in order to expand their repertoire. To foster the acquisition of Reading Recovery "language", teachers-in-training are encouraged to incorporate and increase the variety of Clay's language in both their teaching and discussion at professional development sessions.

Beliefs. Richard Anderson (1999) writes, "The Reading Recovery teacher assuredly must be a reflective practitioner and an empowered professional decision maker" (p. 7). Many of the skills and knowledge presented throughout the Reading Recovery training seem designed towards fostering reflexivity of practice and theory-based instructional decision-making.

Reading Recovery also houses a paradigm shift away from blaming deficits in children for literacy struggle, looking instead to the capacity and decisions of their teachers. Clay (2002) argues, "All children are ready to learn more than they already know; it is the teachers who need to know how to create appropriate instruction for each child, whatever his or her starting point" (p. 10). From this standpoint, it is the teacher's responsibility to find the means to teach each child and to expect and maximize progress by building on what each child can do (Clay, 1987, 2005a, 2005b). According to Pinnell, Fried and Estice (1990), many teachers who train in Reading Recovery "look more closely at the students they are teaching and find it easier to see strengths" (pp. 289-90). Assuming a positive outlook, building upwards from what a child is able to do, as opposed to viewing the child as somehow defective or fixating on a child's challenges, is frequently promoted in the Reading Recovery community.

Zealotry within the Reading Recovery community. While Reading Recovery has ardent supporters, the intervention could be described as polarizing based on its also having its share of

harsh critics. Detractors of Reading Recovery question the reported potency of Reading Recovery's outcomes (e.g. Tumner, Chapman, Greaney, Prochnow, & Arrow, 2013) and have pointed out what they see as a "cult-like" loyalty amongst its supporters (e.g. Bennett, 2011).

Even within the organization, not all teachers trained in Reading Recovery agree with Clay's approach. In her 1997 critique of the Reading Recovery teacher training, Bonnie Barnes described feeling as though her previous body of literacy instruction skills and knowledge were not acknowledged. She described having a sense of disapproval in the Reading Recovery training context, which she described as hostile and judgmental. In response, other teachers in Barnes' training class (Browne, Fitts, McLaughlin, McNamara, & Williams, 1997) reported differently, stating they had "expanded their professional horizons" (p. 297). They took a different perspective to the training, reporting:

> We did not discard the rich knowledge base we had developed through teaching. But, as learners do when they enter new territory, we were open to new understandings and ideas, gradually adjusting our knowledge as we learned more. We took a fresh look at children, not working on previous assumptions but testing all of our theories daily as we closely observed children. Most of us did rethink previous use of instructional techniques; we did not so much discard our repertoire as we realized that we had to use different approaches with different children. (p. 297)

From these teachers' reports, it would appear that some Reading Recovery teachers' experience in Reading Recovery training could hinge on their level of comfort examining their own practice and their openness to new viewpoints. However, Barnes' critique also points out a cultural aspect of the Reading Recovery community, in which some teachers may feel marginalized if they

disagree with aspects of the training. While a common acceptance of Clay's tenets may help to build community amongst teachers, it also may create an underlying social pressure for teachers to conform to the majority voice so that they feel a greater sense of belonging and acceptance from their peers and Teacher Leader.

Signposts of Reading Recovery learning. From this discussion of the intended learning outcomes of the Reading Recovery training, in Table 3.3 I have identified teacher actions, knowledge, language, and beliefs (CIRR, 2006; Clay, 2004, 2005a, 2005b; RRNZ, 2010a, 2010b; RRCNA, 2008; Stouffer, 2011b) that are brought forward during the year of training.

Table 3.3

Reading Recovery Training Intended Learning Outcomes for Teachers

Teacher Actions& Language	Teacher Knowledge	Teacher Beliefs
Observation techniques • Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2004) • Running Records Teaching Procedures • See Table 3.4 Individual Instruction Design • Analysis of Running Records • Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours Teaching Prompts and Reading Recovery Vocabulary • See Table 3.5	Clay's general theory of learning to read and write Designing individual instruction Fostering accelerated learning The reciprocal nature of reading and writing Fostering learner's independence Concept of a learner's construction of a self-extending system of literacy processing	Reflective of own practice • Awareness of theory driving teaching decisions • Willing to learn and apply new skills and knowledge Raised expectations for all students • Belief that all children will learn to read and write • Shift to examination of quality of teaching versus deficits of child

Teacher actions and language are both reportable through the survey instrument and directly observable (i.e. what the teachers do and say) in their classrooms. For the purposes of this study, I will look for instances where the teachers appear to using Reading Recovery-like

procedures or language (e.g., teaching prompts) that appear to stem from Reading Recovery training (Tables 3.4 & 3.5) in their classrooms as indicators of potential transfer.

Table 3.4

Observable Procedures that May Be Based in Reading Recovery Training

Teaching Procedures	

• Administering task(s) from An Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement:
  • Letter Identification
  • Concepts About Print
  • Word Reading
  • Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words
  • Writing Vocabulary
 	
• Taking a Running Record of a student's reading
 	
• Analyzing a Running Record for sources of information and strategic activity used by the student
 	
• Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis
 	
• Early teaching of one-to-one voice/print matching
 	
• Modeling directionality of print
 	
• Teaching starting position
 	
• Modeling the scanning of words left to right
 	
• Encouraging/discouraging children to point at text while reading
 	
• Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts
	• Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge
	
	• Orienting children to the new story before reading
	
	• Calling on children to sort magnetic letters
	
	• Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or calling on children to take words apart
	
	• Solving words through analogy to known words in reading or writing
	
	• Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words
	
	• Demonstrating fluent reading
	
	• Creating a personal alphabet book for the child
	
	• Using a non-lined page for children's writing
	
	• Engaging the child in rereading his written story to check or extend the message
	
	• Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words (i.e. Elkonin boxes) as a means to attempt unknown words in writing
	
	• Connecting the child's knowledge in writing to solve a problem in reading or vice-versa
	
	• Using Clay's cut-up story procedure (i.e. cutting a sentence into words or phrases and having the student(s) reassemble it)

Table 3.5

Observable Language that May Be Based in Reading Recovery Training

Teacher Language	
• Referring to Clay's *sources of information* available to the reader when discussing the interpretation of a student's reading behaviours: • Meaning • Structure • Visual • Audiological (if reading aloud) • Referring to Clay's *strategic activity* when discussing the interpretation of a student's reading behaviours: • Searching for and using information • Cross-checking sources of information • Self-monitoring • Self-correcting • Orchestrating activity • Encouraging checking with one-to-one matching E.g., "Did you run out of words?" "Point to the words while you read." • Calling for search of knowledge to solve or check a word in reading E.g., "Look at the picture." "What would make sense?" "Did that make sense?" • Calling for a search of English grammar to solve or check a word in reading E.g., "How would we say that in English?" "Did that sound right?"	• Calling for a search of visual information to solve or check a word in reading E.g., "How does it start?" "What's this sound?" "Does that look right?" "Do you see that letter?" • Fostering cross-checking of information E.g., "It could be X, but…" • Fostering self-monitoring E.g., "Was that OK?" • Fostering self-correction E.g., "Try that again and think what would make sense/sound right/look right." • Praising self-monitoring E.g., "Good, you noticed that didn't make sense/sound right/look right." • Praising self-correction E.g., "I like how you fixed that up." • Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading E.g., "Read that again and make it sound like talking."

I use these learning outcomes as signposts of possible Reading Recovery learning. However, as many of these learning outcomes are undoubtedly present in other types of pre- and in-service professional learning, I cannot assume that appearances of these outcomes are, in themselves, indication of transfer. Instead, I must additionally look for references from the participants that directly tie these outcomes to their Reading Recovery training.

Chapter 4: Review of Relevant Research

Following the argued importance of the quality of children's first literacy teachers (Leinhardt, Zigmond, & Cooley, 1981; Cunningham & Allington, 2007, Rowe, 1995) and recent positions that have criticized the preparation of future literacy teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Lacina & Collins Block, 2011; Walsh, Glaser, &Wilcox, 2006), I first examine recent research that has described exemplary literacy teachers in primary classrooms. From this research, I synthesize potential learning "targets" for the training of future teachers. That is, what qualities of successful primary teachers are idealized and hence, should be fostered as much as possible in teacher preparation programs.

Additionally, the impact and relevance of teacher education programs (specifically in reading education) has been debated. Within this work, there are various positions towards if and how teacher education could be improved. To explore Reading Recovery's potential to contribute to teacher education programs, I present a review of teacher education, mainly focusing on teacher preparation in early literacy.

Finally, I review studies that endorse and critique Reading Recovery in terms of children's outcomes. I also share research examining Reading Recovery's influence to teachers in both contexts of teaching Reading Recovery and for those who return to classroom settings after training.

Research on the Characteristics of Exemplary Primary Literacy Teachers

The current tumultuous times in education, in addition to a lack of clarity and multiple interpretations surrounding the qualifications of teachers, as well as reading and writing "success" for children, all beg answer to the question, *"What do we mean by exemplary primary literacy teacher?"* Foundational work by Michael Pressley and his colleagues (1996, 1998)

pointed to a lack of research that described effective literacy instruction. Now fifteen years later, I examine and synthesize how exemplary primary literacy teachers (EPLTs) are profiled within the recent body of study, to contextualize later discussion of aspects of Reading Recovery training that may reflect any of the characteristics deemed "exemplary" by recent research.

Clark and Walsh (2002) pointed to a lack of a coherent "whole" model of effective teachers, finding previous work was compartmentalized or failed to give mention to what they saw as important aspects. In their proposed model, effective teachers had:

- Strong discipline knowledge;
- Pedagogical skills appropriate to the environment and discipline;
- Personal knowledge which included the ability to forge strong relationships with the students, a concern for individual students, and a firm moral code; and
- Intimate knowledge of the context in which they were teaching.

  (p. 1)

Gurney (2007) broadly conceptualized good teachers, good teaching, and good teaching environments as the interaction of five key factors:

- Teacher knowledge, enthusiasm, and responsibility for learning; (b) classroom activities that encourage learning;
- Assessment activities that establish the learning processes in the classroom;
- Effective feedback that establishes the learning processes in the classroom; and
- Effective interaction between the teacher and the students, creating an environment that respects, encourages, and stimulates learning through experience (p. 91).

Finally, Block, Oakar, and Hurt (2002) compiled a listing of the characteristics of successful literacy teachers, regardless of grade level. In their view, effective teachers: (a) take risks; (b) are energetic; (c) teach with flexibility and understanding to meet individual students' needs; (d) are passionate about the subject(s) they teach; (e) are committed to, care about, and advocate for actions that improve their students' lives; (f) develop highly effective instructional repertoires; (g) scaffold frequently; (h) support pupils in their first attempts to learn new concepts; (i) maintain high expectations of themselves and their students; (j) provide clear purposes and directions; (k) understand child and adolescent development; (l)believe all can achieve literacy; (m) assess children and relate progress to previous experiences; (n) know how and when to combine methods that result in highly effective literacy growth; (o) possess knowledge that was developed over thousands of hours of experiential learning; (p) structure problems through qualitatively different and richer patterns than less expert educators; (q) highlight the meaningful components in a learning process; (r) are skilled opportunistic planners who change approaches faster when appropriate; (s) can impose meaning on ambiguous stimuli; and (t) engage automatic behaviours and self-regulatory processes that enhance student learning.

In the studies I reviewed, *effectiveness* or *success* as a literacy teacher was consistently defined, either explicitly or implicitly, as the teacher's capacity to lift their students' literacy outcomes above those of other teachers. Colleagues, supervisors, or the researchers identified particular teachers as being extraordinarily capable of fostering literacy development in their students. In many cases, a history of these teachers' students' superior standardized test scores was used as evidence to confirm this perception. In other studies, the researchers made judgments from their observations that the focus teachers' students were making more rapid

and/or distinctively robust progress learning to read and write, attributing this progress to their teacher.

The interchangeably used terms *effective, best, excellent, good, high quality*, etc., are also problematic. These terms, when applied to teachers, I argue, are always defined relatively within specific contexts. They seem to imply that there is a singular, checklist-like archetypal ranking of successful teachers, with "best" implying an achievable, static state of a wholly evolved, perfected, master teacher. For many other teachers, such a view presents an unmatchable model and, therefore, an unreachable pinnacle-like notion, as well as implying the existence of the converse, unflattering title of "worst" teacher at the far end of some sort of measurable scale of good to mediocre to bad teachers.

I gravitate towards using the term *exemplary* in this review and for my discussion, as it allows for differing teachers to be viewed as exemplary. I propose a view of exemplary teachers that is built from the examination of many successful teachers, each contributing a piece to a larger, multi-faceted construct. Exemplary teachers can then be seen as possessing common traits, but also having degrees of individuality, reflected within their own contexts, both growing and adapting their practice. From this vantage point, one could consider or emulate facets of teachers who are described as successful, acknowledging that some factors may or may not prove easily transferable among individual contexts, and that no two teachers would be exactly the same, differing in approaches, strengths, and areas for continued growth.

In this review, I examined 24 studies that focused on primary (Kindergarten, Grade One, or Grade Two teachers) literacy teachers that were conducted after the preliminary work by Pressley and colleagues (see Appendix D, Table D1). While I found descriptions of teachers which somewhat fit the previously listed exemplars of effective teachers (Block, Oakar, and Hurt, 2002;

Clark & Walsh, 2002; Gurney 2007), I found no one existing model to be a perfect fit and each somewhat cumbersome as a frame to sort data. In some cases, I felt the available frames should be collapsed to fewer categories, where at other times, I felt their categories were double- or triple-barreled, or could be more aptly described under a broader term.

Complicating matters, each of the studies took different approaches to describe exemplary teachers. The features of exemplary teachers the researchers fixed upon were driven by the research questions and the theoretical positions of the authors. While some factors appeared in many of the studies, others seemed unique to one or two. As I culled through the findings and discussions, it seemed as though the researchers seemed to talk about the exemplary teachers from three viewpoints: what they did, what they knew, and what they believed was most important in literacy instruction. To streamline my profile of EPLTs, I proposed three broad categories of description: actions, knowledge, and attributes. I then returned to the articles to code the emphasized descriptions of teachers within the three overarching categories as a means of sorting through the various conceptualizations of the EPLTs. Through this process, I framed my thinking within the three areas: teacher actions, teacher knowledge, and teacher beliefs.

Research-reported procedures of EPLTs. Teachers' actions, what EPLTs did in the course of teaching literacy, was the most reported aspect within the studies I reviewed. I sorted teachers' actions into 22 examples, which appeared in varying degrees of frequency across the studies.

The specific examples of teachers' actions are described in the following (in order of highest to lowest frequency):

1. *Balance (whole text/isolated skills)* – Teachers were described as purposefully dividing instructional time between working with whole texts or teaching isolated skills in reading and writing, recognizing advantages and disadvantages of either context.
2. *Connection across curriculum* – The EPLTs made deliberate efforts to link literacy skills to other content areas across the school day.
3. *Differentiate teaching purposeful literacy and "tools"* – Teachers made it clear to students when they were reading or writing for a larger purpose (e.g., to learn information about something, to communicate a message to someone) versus when they were learning a skill or component of the reading or writing process.
4. *Effective Classroom Management* – Thirteen of the researchers referred generally to the EPLTs as being excellent classroom managers, justifying such a label by noting students were typically engaged in their work, or the classroom environments seemed well organized. Studies differed in how they explained this attribute. Baker, Allington and Brooks (2001) felt a teacher appeared highly competent in her management because of the highly engaging tasks she gave children: "Management is no problem, because students are involved in their work" (p. 159). Conversely, Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, and Hampston (1998) partially attributed children's success to being in a well-run classroom. "In addition to managing behaviour, the high-achievement teachers were adept at managing time. Transitions in these classrooms were quick; interruptions by other teachers and adults were brief; and time spent engaged in instructional activities was maximized" (p. 121). In this case, the researchers differed in their perception of causal (or possibly reciprocal) relationships between effective classroom management, student engagement, and student achievement in reading and writing.

5. *Encouragement of self-regulation* – EPLTs made efforts to foster their students' capacity to self-monitor, self-correct, and to increase their independence initiating and completing literacy tasks.
6. *Engaging activities* – Teachers offered literacy instructional tasks that students found highly interesting and promoted active participation.
7. *Explicit instruction in reading* – EPLTs gave deliberate, clear directions and explanations of components of reading processes focused on immediate tasks at hand.
8. *Explicit instruction in writing* – EPLTs gave deliberate, clear directions and explanations of components of writing processes focused on immediate tasks at hand.
9. *Extensive student reading* – Teachers provided their classes with large amounts of time and opportunity to practice reading in a variety of formats.
10. *Extensive student writing* – Teachers provided their classes with large amounts of time and opportunity to practice writing in a variety of formats.
11. *Extensive teacher modeling* – EPLTs provided numerous demonstrations of how and what they wanted their students to do in reading and writing.
12. *Formative assessment* – Teachers based instructional decisions on the observed competencies of their students. As opposed to following a pre-set instructional sequence, they followed the lead of their students, providing next logical steps based on their students' immediate needs.
13. *Higher-level questioning* – Teachers asked deeper questions about texts beyond the literal. They invited children to make inferences and think critically.

14. *Integration of Reading and Writing* – EPLTs viewed reading and writing as reciprocally developing processes and often drew links between them. They clarified how knowledge in writing could assist reading and vice versa.
15. *Instructional density* – Teachers provide children a steady diet of rich instruction. They were seen frequently giving clarification and instruction in both group and individual settings. They were opportunistic and took advantage of teachable moments.
16. *Matching text to reading ability* – EPLTs deliberately gave children frequent occasion to read texts that fell within their instructional reading level. They were cognizant not to let children waste time reading only texts that were too easy, or overwhelm them with difficult texts.
17. *Scaffolding varying levels of support* – Teachers were described as masterfully adjusting the level of assistance needed between individual students, and withdrawing support as students become more independent.
18. *Stress creation of meaning in literacy* – Strong emphasis was placed on reading and writing as message-getting and message-sending events. Comprehension and clear communication were portrayed as the defining outcomes of successful reading and writing.
19. *Teaching of skills in context* – Sub-skills of reading and writing processes were demonstrated and explained while working with a whole text, as opposed to drill practice sheets.
20. *Varying group sizes* – Throughout a school year as well as during a teaching day, teachers constantly reorganized the group size according the instructional purpose and the matching needs of children in the class.

21. *Variety of instructional methods* – EPLTs deployed a large repertoire of instructional methods, and were able to selectively switch to alternate approaches to accommodate a broad range of learners.
22. *Variety of texts* – Teachers gave children access to a wide variety of genres, authors, and forms. The classrooms showed diversity of texts in reading and writing.

The actions that appeared with the highest frequencies (two-thirds or more of the studies) included effective classroom management, encouragement of self-regulation, engaging activities, explicit instruction in reading, explicit instruction in writing, extensive student reading, extensive student writing, instructional density, scaffolding varying levels of support, and variety of instructional methods.

While it is helpful to note the actions of the EPLTs, it is important to note the context in which these actions were recorded. Many of the EPLTs were explicitly described as not simply following prescriptive programs, with routinized responses. Instead the EPLTs were seen drawing upon a variety of teaching methods, teaching responsively to the needs of their students (Allington, 2002; Baker, Allington, & Brooks, 2001; Block, 2001; Block, Oakar, & Hurt, 2002; Bognar, Raphael, & Pressley, 2002; Bohn, Roehrig, & Pressley, 2004; Day, 2001; Metsela et al., 1997; Morrow & Asbury, 2001; Medwell et al., 1998; Morrow et al., 1999; Pressley, 2001; Pressley et al., 2001; Pressley, Rankin, & Yokoi, 1996; Ruddell, 1995; Taylor, Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 2000; Wharton-McDonald, 2001; Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, & Hampston, 1998). Day (2001) found trying to categorize the actions of EPLTs initially perplexing, in that they often varied in their instructional approaches and professional development needs and interests, but later surmised:

> What I finally found to be the common thread was that the exemplary teachers used the various methods more strategically, pulling pieces from here and there to match their programs with the needs of their students. Rather than promote a method or pedagogy for its own sake, these teachers began looking at the specific needs of their students. (p. 207)

While the pedagogy of EPLTs should be explored, it will also be illuminating to examine the knowledge and beliefs behind those actions. To better understand EPLTs it will not be sufficient to simply list what they do, but delve into the why and how of their practice.

The knowledge of EPLTs. What do EPLTs know or understand to deeper degrees about literacy instruction than their colleagues? Fifteen of the studies I reviewed isolated factors of the EPLTs' knowledge.

The most commonly mentioned understanding was the EPLTs' awareness of the underlying purpose of their actions (Allington, 2002; Block, 2001; Lyons, 2003; Medwell, Wray, Poulson, & Fox, 1998; Metsela et al., 1997; Morrow, Tracey, Woo, & Pressley, 1999; Pressely, 2001; Ruddell, 1995; Wharton-McDonald, 2001; Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, & Hampston, 1998). Lyons (2003) found EPLTs "building case knowledge about how to teach a specific process to a specific child for a specific reason" (p. 163). The researchers described the EPLTs as very consciously making choices, anticipating their decisions' outcomes, and able to articulate why they selected one approach over another.

Seven of the studies indicated EPLTs held a strong knowledge of literacy development theory (Block, Oakar, & Hurt, 2002; Lyons, 2003; Mather, Bos, & Babur, 2001; Morrow & Asbury, 2001; Morrow, Tracey, Woo, & Pressley, 1999; Pressley, 2001; Ruddell, 1995). Morrow and Asbury (2001) described an EPLT as "well acquainted with the developmental processes of

reading and writing. She knew what her students had to learn in order to become better readers and writers, and she purposefully created many opportunities for discovery and explicit teaching of those necessary skills and strategies" (p. 192). The EPLTs were aware of typical developmental sequences in reading and writing development, and used those expectations as a general guide for some of their instructional decisions.

Related to their purposefulness and literacy developmental knowledge, six studies described EPLTs as aware and able to articulate their theoretical orientation (Block, 2001; Lyons, 2003; Mather, Bos, & Babur, 2001; McCutchen et al., 2002; Morrow, Tracey, Woo, & Pressley, 1999; Wharton-McDonald, 2001). The exemplary teachers knew the ground upon which they stood well, or *knew what they knew*. Pressley's (2001) case-study shared, "I was struck that Barb knew so much about teaching reading skills. . . .This knowledge base reflected her years of experience, and Barbara explained in her interview that before she came to incorporate so much of the whole-language approach into her teaching, her teaching reflected a more traditional skills-based approach" (p. 105). These studies seem to argue that the EPLTs metacognitive self-awareness was foundational to their purposeful teaching – they taught according to conscious beliefs about literacy instruction and learning.

Another six studies spoke of the EPLTs' knowledge of literacy instructional strategies (Block 2001; Block, Oakar, & Hurt, 2002; Lyons, 2003; Morrow & Asbury, 2001; Pressley, 2001; Wharton-McDonald, 2001). While many of the studies listed the actions of the teachers, few were explicit in describing EPLTs from the perspective that EPLTs possessed distinct knowledge of literacy pedagogy.

Other types of knowledge were discussed in fewer studies, which claimed EPLTs:

(a) Had strong diagnostic knowledge of reading and writing performance (Lyons, 2003; Medwell, et al., 1998; Ruddell, 1995)

(b) Had knowledge of English phonology/phonics (Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; Mather, Bos, & Babur, 2001; McCutchen et al, 2002)

(c) Had knowledge of English grammar (Mather, Bos, & Babur, 2001; McCutchen et al., 2002)

(d) Had extensive knowledge of curriculum content/expectations (Medwell et al., 1998)

(e) Were familiar with a wide range of children's literature (Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004)

Although teacher knowledge was the least described in the reviewed studies, I suggest that teacher actions imply the presence of some corresponding knowledge. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) hold that teachers' knowledge and practice both inform and mediate one another. When one states that particular teachers choose specific actions or procedures over others, I would argue that those teachers must also hold a knowledge base to rationalize their choices. For example, teachers who were described as offering students dense instruction based decisions about instructional frequency and intensity upon their awareness of purpose of their actions, the instructional methods in their repertoire, their understanding of literacy development theory, and their stance on theoretical orientation. What teachers believed to be true about literacy instruction would affect the instructional choices they made in their classrooms.

The beliefs of EPLTs. While teacher actions can be observed, and teacher knowledge measured in various forms, it is important to consider what other qualities successful teachers are bringing to the table. "Teaching is more than technical process; it is a complex human process in which the teacher's knowledge of the reading and learning processes intersects with his or her

knowledge of the needs, interests, and individual characteristics of learners" (Farstrup, 2002, pp. 1-2).

How an individual teacher approaches a task of this complexity has been argued as a factor in their overall effectiveness. Amidst the eighteen studies that addressed the EPLTs' beliefs, three appeared the most frequently. The teachers were viewed as holding encouraging and positive demeanor, they held high expectations for all of their students, and many expressed an interest in continuing professional development in literacy education.

A majority of the studies described the highly successful teachers holding visibly positive and encouraging attitudes towards children. "Georgia's belief in a learning environment that encourages respect, kindness, tolerance, sharing, and growth produces a community of learners where virtually all children are engaged in productive academic work all day" (Baker, Allington, & Brooks, 2001, p. 155). Ruddell (1995) described how effective teachers foster higher motivation in their students, and portrayed them as possessing energy, commitment, passion, warmth, caring, sensitivity, and concern for their students. The positive attitude expressed by EPLTs was perceived as highly motivational for their students, and was credited towards the high degree of student engagement often observed in the EPLTs' classrooms.

The EPLTs were also often presented as holding high expectations for all of their students. Lyons (2003) described this as an intangible quality, saying "They convey through their actions and words that these very low-achieving children can and will learn and that they will find a way to teach them" (p. 168). The authors implied two related benefits of the EPLTs' high standards: a) The teachers worked harder to ensure that every child met their goals; b) Children came to see themselves through the teacher's eyes as being capable and, as a result, approached literacy tasks with more confidence and enthusiasm. Bohn, Roehrig, and Pressley (2004) capture

this viewpoint in one such teacher's comment, "If you set the bar high, they can reach it. If you set it even higher, they can still reach it." (p. 280-281). Many of the EPLTs determinedly acted with the belief that all of their students would achieve.

EPLTs were also frequently described as continuing, active learners. They expressed interest in or had completed graduate education, and they regularly self-assessed their needs and attended professional development to enhance their teaching practices (Morrow et al., 1999). Allington (2002) described EPLTs as highly motivated to better craft their practice, and empowered to make professional judgments versus following scripted programs. "These teachers accepted the professional responsibility for developing high levels of reading proficiency but insisted on the autonomy to act on their expertise" (p. 746). The EPLTs were not satisfied with the accumulation of procedural knowledge; they were interested in developing their skills as rational, informed decision-makers.

Less frequently, the EPLTs were described as being reflective of their teaching (Lyons, 2003; Ruddell 1995) or self-aware of their own strengths and weaknesses as a teacher (Cunningham et al., 2004; Day 2001). Both of these qualities may also have been present in the teachers who actively pursued further professional development but, in the studies listed above, the reflective/self-evaluative quality of EPLTs was discussed as an independent facet.

In this study, I am exploring if and how facets of Reading Recovery training are transportable into the classroom setting. That is, do teachers trained in Reading Recovery find application of what they learn from working one-on-one with students in Reading Recovery when standing in a classroom teaching reading and writing. More so, if there is such transfer, are the reported and observable changes to classroom instruction in any way similar to the research-based qualities of exemplary primary literacy teachers? Can it be argued that Reading Recovery

training is useful to classroom teachers in ways that positively enhance the quality of literacy instruction? If so, then there may be merit in exploring if, how, when, and which aspects of Reading Recovery training could be shared with a larger number of teachers.

Research on the Pre-Service Training of Primary Literacy Teachers

In both Canada and the U.S., research has been conducted that examines the structure and effectiveness of undergraduate programs in preparing future teachers – with specific attention being focused on teaching reading. Issues surrounding the content of pre-service teachers courses, standards for evaluating teaching performance, the development of instructional practices, and if and how teacher preparation impacts student achievement have each been part of ongoing discussion concerning the training of future teachers (IRA, 2001).

Historical perspective of pre-service literacy teacher education: Training versus teaching future teachers. Coinciding with shifts in cultural expectations in the U.S. and Canada which began to place more value on higher quality education and better qualified teachers, research examining pre-service teacher training became more common in the latter part of twentieth century (Hoffman & Pearson, 2001). In the 1960s and 1970s, behavioural psychology was a main influence towards pedagogical approaches used in U.S. education and, subsequently, teacher training was viewed in the same light. Hence, teacher trainers during this period developed standardized programs intended to foster specific behavioural outcomes in the teacher trainees (e.g., Cruickshank, 1970; Dodl et al., 1972; Roth, 1976; Sartain & Stanton, 1974).

In the 1980s, teacher training began to consider research from the field that viewed teacher effectiveness as a measurable product reflected in students' learning. While there was overlap from the previous behaviour-centered learning targets, teacher training was now being designed according to practices research had positioned as more productive in terms of enhancing student

learning (e.g., Anderson, Everston, & Brophy, 1979; Brophy & Good, 1986; Duffy, 1981; Griffin & Barnes, 1986; Hoffman, 1986; Rupley Wise & Logan, 1986). In 1990, Cruikshank and Metcalf summarized this line of research, listing the following as the effective elements of teacher education programs:

- Clear performance goals and communicate them to learners.
- Learners are aware of the requisite skill level of mastery.
- Determination of learners' present skill level.
- Introduction of only a few basic rules during early learning stages.
- Building upon learners' present skill level during early learning stages.
- During the initial acquisition stage, a basic, essential conceptual understanding of the skill to be learned – when and why it is used.
- Demonstrations during the initial stage what skill performance should look like.
- Opportunities for the learners to discuss demonstrations.
- Sufficient, spaced, skill practice after understanding has been developed.
- Practice of the skill is followed by knowledge of the results.
- Knowledge of the results early in the learning process.
- Knowledge of results after incorrect performance.
- Delay of knowledge of results when the learner is beyond the initial stage of learning.
- Transfer of training that is enhanced by maximizing similarity between the training and the natural environment, overlearning salient features of the

skills, providing for extensive and varied practice, using delayed feedback, and inducing reflection and occasional testing.

- Full support and reinforcement for the use of skills in natural settings.

More recently, some researchers have suggested that teacher education must be directed beyond the acquisition of skills and move toward the empowerment of teachers who are ultimately in control of their own thinking and actions (e.g., Cochran-Smith & Lytel, 1999; Duffy, 1991; Hoffmann & Pearson, 2000; Richardson & Placier, 2001). Richardson and Placier (2001) developed a theory about the relationship between teacher knowledge and actions. While it was previously held that teachers' beliefs could only be shifted by first changing their actions, Richardson and her colleagues' work showed the opposite. Drawing on a three-year study of 39 intermediate-grade teachers, they concluded that teachers changed their beliefs prior to adjusting their practices or changed beliefs interactively with changes to practice. This work suggested to trainers of teachers that nurturing future effective teachers involved more than training. Ultimately, teachers would instruct according to their beliefs and understandings of how reading develops and how their instruction could affect growth in their students' reading development.

In their discussion of teacher learning, Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) operationalized teacher knowledge as for-practice, -in-practice, and -of-practice. In knowledge-for-practice, teacher candidates are explicitly told knowledge they will need to support their teaching, usually by their professors. Through reflection of their own practice, teachers develop knowledge-in-practice during their experiences in the field. Finally, through deliberate inquiry, teachers develop their knowledge-of-practice by consolidating their experiences with the formal knowledge of the profession. This position supports what Richardson and Placier (2001) later argued regarding the relationship of teacher knowledge and teacher practice.

Critiques of training models in teacher preparation have argued that such programs leave future teachers with fragmented knowledge of a myriad of topics. Goodlad (1990) stated that in programs that seek to train, pre-service teachers are reduced to "filling a large handbag with discrete bits and pieces of know-how" (p. 225). Hoffman and Pearson (2001) relate the training of teachers to learning to read. While some aspects of reading can be trained (e.g., letter/sound information) other, more complex aspects of reading must be taught (e.g., inferencing meaning from a text). In their review, Hoffman and Pearson recommend that the preparation of future teachers of reading continue to train teachers in foundational pedagogy of reading instruction (e.g., how to instruct phonics) but to improve the capacity of teachers, institutions should look at how they are teaching future teachers to be critical and responsive (e.g., how they can adapt programming to a range of students' needs).

Similarly, in a Canadian context, Kosnik and Beck (2009) critiqued current models of teacher education. They argued:

> . . teachers should be free to make many professional choices. However, in teacher education at present, student teachers are neither consistently informed that they have such choice nor adequately prepared to exercise it. As a consequence, when they get their own classroom they are often unable to deal positively with their freedom. Candice, in her first year [teaching], commented: "In September, trying to prepare a year, I felt totally lost." (p. 2)

Kosnick and Beck based this critique on their examination of the Bachelor of Education program at the University of Toronto's Faculty of Education (OISE). They followed 22 graduates during their first three years of teaching in elementary schools in Toronto or the surrounding area. In this study, new teachers from OISE's program were

interviewed twice a year to determine if they felt adequately prepared for the profession after their training in their Undergraduate program. While the interviews touched on all subject areas, the study focused on the participants' assessment of their preparation to teach literacy. In most cases, the participants shared that they were initially overwhelmed by the realities of a teaching position and felt they had to learn much about teaching on the run during their first years of teaching. Kosnik and Beck surmised an overall lack of direction in their program contributed to how most of their new teachers felt unsatisfied with their pre-service education. In their view, teacher education could be strengthened by providing clearer information that matched workplace expectations to future teachers within seven prioritized areas in university programs:

- Program planning
- Pupil assessment
- Classroom organization and community
- Inclusive education
- Subject content and pedagogy
- Professional identity
- A vision for teaching

Additionally, they cautioned against views that would advocate the simple provision of more subject area content or pedagogy into pre-service programs. Within a training model, they warned pre-service teachers may be exposed to a great deal of pedagogy, but if not given the opportunity to question and think about teaching critically, they would likely not be able to take up or understand those teaching methods. Instead of what Kosnick and Beck termed a "we [teacher educators] cover, they [pre-service teachers] select and apply" model of teacher

education, they proposed a "together we figure it out" model of teacher education. In their view, "teaching" (as opposed to merely training) future teachers should be framed around the exploration of their seven prioritized themes. During this exploration, future teachers need to co-construct their understandings and pedagogy with their instructors, to better prepare them for the realities of teaching.

Reading paradigms' influence of teacher education. Simultaneously, ongoing "reading wars" (Pearson, 2004) have divided the field and have segregated views on what is to be considered "ideal" reading instruction in both the U.S. and Canada. This long argued debate between a "science-based" (i.e. sequentially teaching isolated sub-skills that support reading) versus "holistic" approaches (i.e. using quality literature and the teaching of skills in the context of the texts being read) to reading instruction has also entered discussion of the training of pre-service reading teachers.

In 2000, Hoffman lamented how in the U.S., government attempts to reform the U.S. school system led to a "back to basics" approach to reading instruction. At that time, 40 states were considering a mandatory adoption of phonics-led reading instruction, reflecting the *No Child Left Behind* Act (United States Department of Education, 2001). This legislation positioned "science-based" reading instruction (i.e. methods that could present a research base consisting of purely experimental designs) as most valid. This standpoint led to mandated changes to teacher preparation programs to focus on instructional methods to support the development of "basic skills" of reading (i.e. isolated sub-skills that had been experimentally researched). Additionally, teacher tests that espoused similar philosophy were being developed to control entry and advancement in the profession. In Hoffman's view, these tests would similarly pressure teacher-training institutions to follow suit in their curricula.

To illustrate, one early reading assessment, Good and Kaminski's (2002) *Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS)* was widely implemented across the U.S., as it met many states' criteria of a science-based design. Despite scathing critique of this direction in reading instruction by leaders in U.S. reading research such as Ken Goodman, P. David Pearson, Robert Tierney (Goodman, 2006), teacher training had been pressured to follow suit and prepare teachers to implement science-based approaches, such as *DIBELS,* that had been mandated into practice.

Contemporary reviews of the preparation of reading teachers have reflected this ongoing turmoil within the field. Depending on researchers' position in the "science" versus "balanced" approach to reading instruction, some research examining teacher preparation in literacy has called for either the embrace of a skills-based approach to teacher training or a more balanced approach. However, regardless of their stance within the "reading wars", reading scholars have recently found current models of reading teacher preparation in both the U.S. and Canada to be inadequate.

From a science-based stance, Walsh, Glaser, and Wilcox (2006) randomly sampled 72 U.S. teacher preparation programs, and judged that only 15 percent of those schools offered sufficient preparation in preparing undergraduate to teach reading. They based this finding on many institutions' absence of research-proven practices within their syllabi which included: early identification of children at risk of reading failure, daily instruction in phonemic awareness, explicit instruction in phonics and spelling, a structured, sequenced approach to phonics instruction, repeated practice of skills to the point of automaticity, concurrent comprehension and vocabulary instruction, and frequent formative assessment. From their analysis, Walsh, et al., charged that many institutions made surface claims that they offered a "balanced approach" to

reading instruction; that is, an approach that infused what has been deemed strengths of a whole-language approach (e.g., the benefits of using high-quality literature in reading instruction) with the science-based skill development approach supported by others. Walsh and her colleagues contested that despite many institutions' depiction of a balanced approach, the majority of the syllabi showed "a tendency to dismiss the scientific research in reading, continuing to espouse approaches [i.e. whole language philosophy] to reading that will not serve up to 40 percent of all children" (p. 3).

In addition, Walsh, et al., examined the texts used in the undergraduate reading courses. From the 227 reviewed textbooks, Walsh and her colleagues rated only four as "acceptable" for general comprehensive use. They also claimed that most courses reflected low expectations and course assignments required little evidence of practical knowledge towards reading development and instruction.

While other studies are equally critical of teacher preparation, they analyzed teacher preparation from a balanced literacy standpoint. For example, Baumann, Moon Roo, Duffy-Hester, and Hoffman (2000) surveyed members of the Reading Hall of Fame, an independent organization in the U.S. that recognizes leaders in the field of reading education. They asked the organization's identified experts for their responses as to the state of elementary reading education in the U.S. at that time. From those responses, they identified three main themes that applied to the issue of reading teaching preparation:

- The respondents endorsed a "balanced" view of reading instruction
- The current system of pre-service education was insufficient in preparing future teachers of reading to meet the needs of children in classrooms
- A frustration with the faddism and ideological debates in the field

The majority of the responding members of the Reading Hall of Fame (N=41) were categorized as promoting a neo-traditional or "balanced" stance in their view of effective literacy instruction. That is, they felt that traditional goals of reading instruction (e.g., efficient decoding, fluent reading, comprehending at literal and inferential levels) could be integrated with more contemporary goals (e.g., developing critical thinking, engagement, and independence). Additionally, most of the experts in this study argued that reading instruction should balance skill development with the use of whole language and quality literature.

A second frequent area of concern for the respondents was inadequate pre-service preparation. "Leaders were concerned about teachers' general knowledge of teaching reading and writing" (p. 248). Stemming from these concerns, some called for more rigor in the university programs in reading instruction content and improvements to the professional development offered to teachers in the field.

Finally, the respondents reported feeling impatient with what they felt was trendiness in the field and fatigue over long-held ideology debates and intellectual posturing within the field. Leaders expressed concerns over pendulum-type approaches (i.e. the swinging back and forth between traditional and whole language approaches), quick-fix mentalities, and the "one best-way" method (i.e. insistence by some that there is one single method to learn to read). The leaders stated concern that long-debated "reading wars" between zealots from both camps, traditional or contemporary approaches to reading instruction, confused and misled teachers.

In another review reflecting a "science-based" viewpoint, Steiner and Rozen (2004) conducted an assessment and ranking of pre-service teacher literacy training on top-ranked American schools of education. They compared the readings offered in these schools' Language Arts courses to the science-based reading knowledge base identified as critical by the National

Reading Panel (2000) (i.e. knowledge of the development and instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics instruction, fluency, comprehension) and the National Research Council (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998) who stressed all reading teachers' need to thoroughly understand "the course of literacy development and the role of instruction in optimizing literacy development" (p. 329). In their comparison, Steiner and Rozen discovered little agreement. They also noted that it was rare for education students to be asked to demonstrate their acquisition of knowledge pertaining to the development or instruction of reading via performance- or recall-type assessments.

In Canada, Donders and Cowley (2006) surveyed the deans of 21 of the 41 universities that offered the Bachelor of Education degree in English (some Canadian universities offer the degree in French). They selected universities across Canada with the highest enrollments of education students to poll. In this study, they analyzed the deans' responses to gauge the emphasis placed in each program on the development of instruction in reading techniques and if each university's course syllabi would likely provide pre-service teachers with a substantial program of skill development to teach reading. They compared this data with survey responses from Canadian school district superintendents' responses regarding their level of satisfaction with the preparedness of new hires to teach reading in classrooms. From the 14 Faculty of Education Deans that responded, only 6 completed the survey in full and reported the following allocation of time (Table 4.1) to the development of reading teaching skills:

Table 4.1

Required Reading Instruction Course Work in Canadian Universities, 2005

	Average hours of instruction	Percent of total course work	Number of reporting universities
Total course work	466.7	100%	14
Required language arts courses	66.9	14.3%	14
Reading course work	37.4	8.0%	6

	Average hours of instruction	Percent of total course work	Number of reporting universities
Acquisition of reading instruction skills	12.5	2.7%	5

Donders and Cowley concede that this sample could not be interpreted to represent what is happening in all Canadian universities, but in some faculties of education, little time (slightly less than two one-semester courses) was being spent in Language Arts courses and even less time in reading-specific instruction. As well, they argued that it was less clear as to how this limited time was being used. Donders and Cowley analyzed the syllabi of language arts courses of 13 Canadian universities using the ranking system developed by Steiner and Rozen (2004). In Donders and Cowley's study, the analysis of four syllabi was inconclusive, but the remaining 16 Canadian universities' syllabi only scored between -3 and +2, averaging +0.56. Donders and Cowley also temper their findings with the observation that syllabi analysis is not a perfect means of determining the effectiveness of a training program. Short of attending all of the courses, it would be impossible for one to know if what is listed in syllabi is actually taught and how well. They suggest that Canadian "faculties of education should develop objective methods of evaluating their reading instruction programs using student results as the key measurement" (p. 10).

Donders and Cowley concluded that while more research is needed to form a clearer picture of the quality of Canadian pre-service literacy education, their results indicate that at least some of these programs need to be improved. They state:

> . . clearly those responsible for training new teachers must ensure that their graduates are adequately trained in reading instruction theory and techniques. Of course, classroom experience is a necessary part of the development of a good

teacher. However, a solid base of skills and knowledge will enable the new teacher to use that experience to become effective more quickly. (p. 13)

Suggested approaches towards the redesign of teacher education. While there has been consensus of needed reform of training of future teachers of reading, differing views on how such change could be enacted have been offered. In Canada, the central role of the university in teacher education has not been in question (Falkenberg, 2010), where in the U.S., this has not been the case. Hoffman (2004) categorized recent suggested approaches to the redesign of teacher education into three categories: divest, test, or invest.

Divesting from traditional models of teacher education. Some critics of current practice in teacher education have stated that a needed, radical first step in the reform of teacher education is to abandon current models of teacher training and completely redesign how teachers are trained. Reid Lyon, who was currently serving in Washington, DC as the "Reading Czar," was heard to comment in a meeting that the first step in the reform of teacher education was "the blowing up of education faculties" (Lyon, 2002). In 2001, The Abell Foundation released a report titled *Teacher Certification Reconsidered.* Within this report, the authors argued that current models of teacher training housed with universities and colleges were neither efficient nor effective. Additionally, the authors suggested that there was no research supporting that the current model of teacher preparation had positive effect on student achievement. The Abell Foundation report suggested the complete removal of teacher certification as an undergraduate program, and instead suggested that the teaching profession be opened to anyone with a bachelor's degree. Rather than be trained in a university setting, new teachers would be trained and mentored on-site at

schools for a minimal period, two or three months, before assuming full-time responsibilities.

Because of the lower cost and its capacity to quickly address teacher shortages, some school districts across the U.S. have implemented the Abell model. A similar approach to teacher certification was also being suggested for Federal implementation in the U.S. Secretary of Education's 2002 report, *Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge: The Secretary's Annual Report on Teacher Quality.* In the report, current models of teacher preparation were referred to as "broken" (p. 8). The report recommended that student teaching and attending faculties of education should be optional. Instead, teacher preparation should shift focus from pedagogy to the development of verbal skills and content knowledge.

Recent work has contested claims that alternatively-trained teachers are equally effective as traditionally-certified teachers (Hoffman, 2004). Lazco-Kerr and Berliner (2002) compared the student achievement of 109 pairs of alternatively-trained and traditionally-certified teachers. From their findings, they concluded that students from the certified teachers' classrooms outperformed the students with alternatively-trained teachers, making about 20% more academic growth. However, it is worthy to note that the majority of alternatively-trained teachers in the U.S. began teaching in classrooms in high-poverty areas, where student achievement has also been reported as diminished even with certified teachers. Lazco-Kerr and Berliner caution that while alternate teacher education appears as a viable solution to teacher shortages, an undesirable consequence of alternate models of teacher education would be the further underservicing of impoverished children, who would most likely be taught by the less-qualified teachers.

Testing new teachers. There is also a rising belief that the quality of teacher education can be improved by the implementation of high-stakes testing as a pre-requisite for entry into the teaching profession. One argument for the implementation of rigorous professional entry testing lies in the potential for state agencies in the U.S. to seize control of teacher training curricula from colleges and universities (Hoffman, 2004). In their critique of teacher education programs described earlier in this chapter, Walsh, Glaser, and Wilcox (2006) recommended that U.S. states develop strong standards for reading teachers (reflecting the authors' "science-based" stance towards reading instruction) and certify teachers based on testing of those standards. In their view, undergraduate schools unwilling to teach the science of reading should not be eligible for accreditation. Similar to board and bar exams used in medicine and law, Walsh and her colleagues suggest similar profession-administered exams for teachers to achieve "highly-qualified" status. By externally setting standards and the certification process, the authors imply that a more "appropriate" curriculum could become state-controlled.

Another potential application of this model removed the need for faculties of education entirely. As a cost-effective means to address teacher shortages in the state of Texas (Strayhorn, 2003), a professional test was proposed as means of teacher certification. In this model, anyone with a bachelor's degree who passed the entry test could certify as a teacher, despite not having any specific training in education.

Hoffman (2004) argued that there is little research into whether high-stakes testing improves the quality of reading teachers. Instead, he suggested that testing of future teachers was "more about control, conformity, economics, and standardization of experiences than they are about raising achievement standards for [future teachers]" (p. 124). Hoffman questioned if given a choice between traditional certification and test-

certified teachers, which schools would hire test-certified teachers? His concern was that most likely, test-certified teachers would be the affordable option for high-poverty schools where there was less job competition. In his view, an influx of less-trained teachers would not be an effective means of changing the pattern of underachievement in high-poverty areas.

Investing in teacher education. Various reports and research have contradicted claims (Abell Foundation 2001; U.S. Department of Education, 2002) that there is little evidence that teacher education positively impacts student learning. However, in a separate review from the U.S. Department of Education, Wilson, Floden, and Ferrini-Mundy (2001) reviewed 57 studies deemed scientifically rigorous that examined the relationship between teacher training (i.e. hours of course work in teaching reading) and student learning. They concluded that since 1980, there has been research-born evidence of a positive relationship between teacher training and effectiveness.

Similarly, Darling Hammond (2000) examined 50 state policies, school staff demographics, state case studies, and compared these with national student assessments. She found that teacher preparation had the highest correlation with student achievement in literacy, even when she controlled for student poverty status. In a separate study, she also reported how students in Michigan and Wisconsin, states that have more stringent standards of teacher education and certification, outperform students in states such as Louisiana, which accredits less-trained teachers (1997).

In 2003, the International Reading Association formed the National Commission on Excellence in Elementary Teacher Preparation for Reading Instruction. An expert panel was commissioned to identify “exemplary” teaching training institutions in the U.S. In a competitive

process, the panel identified eight exemplary programs among 28 colleges and universities that submitted applications to be considered exemplary. The panel tracked graduates of these eight programs and compared their students' achievement in reading with graduates from other institutions with the same or more teaching experience. The panel concluded: "Teachers who are prepared in quality reading teacher education programs are more successful and confident than other beginning teachers in making the transition in the teaching profession (p. 7). That is, new teachers from highly-ranked programs were more effective, sooner, than teachers from other programs. From their review, the panel identified "eight critical features of excellence" that they suggested be considered in the redesign of reading teacher preparation programs:

- Content: Teacher educators engage pre-service teachers with a comprehensive curriculum and guide them toward the development of a cohesive knowledge base for effective teacher decision-making.
- Apprenticeship: Teacher educators engage their pre-service teachers in a variety of course-related field experiences where they have opportunities to interact with excellent models and mentors.
- Vision: Teacher educators center their program on a vision of literacy, quality teaching, and quality teacher education.
- Resources and Mission: Sufficient resources (intellectual, financial, and professional) to support the mission for quality teacher preparation.
- Personalized Teaching: Teacher educators value diversity and are prepared to offer their pre-service students responsive teaching and an adapted curriculum.

- Autonomy: Teacher educators are active in adapting and negotiating with their institutions to make sure their students receive the most effective preparation possible.
- Community: Teacher educators work to create an active learning community that includes the faculty, their students, and mentor teachers.
- Assessment: Teacher educators continually assess their students, their program, their graduates, and themselves to guide instructional decision making and program development.

Further, the National Commission identified key areas of curriculum they deemed essential to future teaching of reading. This knowledge included:

- Early literacy, including oral language, phonemic awareness, phonics, and word identification;
- Fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension;
- Assessing all aspects of literacy learning; and
- Organizing and managing literacy instruction across grade levels. (p. 40)

Also in 2003, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future raised an addition issue in their report, *No Dream Denied: A Pledge to America's School Children.* Here, the commission suggested that teacher training was not the main issue in U.S. education, rather the retention of qualified teachers. They suggest that U.S. colleges and universities were successful in producing teachers of reading, but poor workplace conditions had led to the attrition of quality teachers at a faster rate than they could be replaced.

From my review of research on pre-service teacher education, I have surmised that the issues debated in teacher education for the past two decades (and continuing in the present) are complex. I acknowledge that I position myself on the "balanced" side of the reading paradigm debate but share in researchers' positions from both "science-based" and "balanced" viewpoints that the pre-service education of future literacy teachers needs improvement. Hoffman (2004) suggested that only deep reaching adjustments that foster thoughtful, responsive teachers are the best hope at lasting improvement to teacher education.

This body of research confirms the utility of this study in that while there has been agreement in the need to improve pre-service teacher education, the pathway to its redesign and improvement is not as clear. In this study, I wish to explore if the knowledge, procedures, language, and beliefs housed in Reading Recovery training have impact to classroom instruction. If so, what the participants express they learned or changed in their literacy instruction may shed light on what they feel was missing or less developed in their professional development prior to their Reading Recovery training. Through such analysis of the findings of this study, I hope to add to the ongoing discussion of possible directions in the redesign of the training of future teachers of reading and writing.

Research on the Effectiveness of Reading Recovery

With this study, I intend to add to discussion of teacher training and professional development in literacy education. Therefore, I wanted to focus my examination upon an early literacy intervention with substantial research arguing its effectiveness. As I am ultimately seeking enhancements to literacy instruction in the general classroom context, it seems sensible to examine a program with a track record of success with struggling, harder-to-teach readers for

mineable qualities that could be applied in a general classroom setting. Because Reading Recovery is widely implemented in Canada and the U.S. and, because of the ongoing political pressure for it to prove cost-efficient, much attention has been given to the program.

Research that argues Reading Recovery's positive effects to children. Recent political turbulence in the U.S. surrounding the withdrawal of federal and state funding attached to the *No Child Left Behind* (United States Department of Education, 2001) movement shifted literacy interventions' research focus towards scientifically proving the effectiveness of their programs. In its review of 153 reading programs, the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) only determined 24 programs provided supportive research that satisfied their criteria for scientific rigor (2007b). The remaining 129 were not reviewed as they could not provide what WWC had deemed as sufficient scientific evidence.

For the WWC (2007b) review, Reading Recovery submitted 106 studies, of which, four studies designed with randomized controlled trials (Baene, Bernhole, Dulaney, & Banks, 1997; Pinnell, DeFord, & Lyons, 1988; Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, & Seltzer, 1994; Schwartz, 2005) met the WWC's evidence standards and one study (Iverson & Tunmer, 1993) was accepted with reservation. While the number of approved studies seems meager, it is noteworthy that WWC approved only 51 studies for the 24[5] programs they reviewed. In Reading Recovery's five approved studies (Table 4.2), the progress of children who participated in Reading Recovery

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[5]In addition to Reading Recovery, the WWC reviewed the following programs: Accelerated Reader/ Reading Renaissance, Auditory Discrimination in Depth/Lindamood Phonemic Sequencing, ClassWide Peer Tutoring, Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition, Corrective Reading, Daisy Quest, Early Intervention in Reading, Earobics, Failure-Free Reading, Fast ForWord, Fluency Forumula, Kaplan SpellRead, Ladders to Literacy, Little Books, Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS), Read Naturally, Read, Write, Type, Start Making a Reader Today, Stepping Stones to Literacy, Success for All, Voyager Universal Literacy System, Waterford Early Reading Program, and Wilson Reading System (WWC, 2007b).

was compared against students who received alternate programming in a comparison group. Based on the five reviewed studies, the WWC found positive effects in alphabetics and general reading achievement. In addition, they found potentially positive effects in fluency and comprehension, which they attributed to children's participation in Reading Recovery. Notably, among all the reviewed reading interventions, the WWC ranked Reading Recovery first in general reading achievement.

Table 4.2

Scientific Studies of Reading Recovery Accepted by What Works Clearinghouse Review

Study	Reading Recovery Group	Comparison Group	WWC-endorsed statistically significant positive effects to:
Baene, Bernhole, Dulaney, & Banks (1997)	N=84	N=84	
Pinnell, DeFord, & Lyons (1988)	N=38	N=53	Print awareness Phonics Comprehension Vocabulary General reading achievement
Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, & Seltzer (1994)	N=31	N=48	General reading achievement
Schwartz (2005)	N=37	N=37	Print awareness Word recognition Fluency General reading achievement
Iverson & Tunmer (1993)	N=32	N=32	Phonemic awareness Print awareness Letter knowledge Word recognition General reading achievement

The most common reasons for the WWC's (2007a) rejection of the remaining 101 studies that argued Reading Recovery's effectiveness were studies whose intervention and comparison groups were not shown to be equivalent at baseline (e.g., Ashdown & Simic, 2003; Briggs & Young, 2003; Center, Wheldall, Freeman, Outhred, & McNaught, 1995; Moore & Wade, 1998; Plewis, 2000; Stahl, Stahl, & McKenna, 2003) or a lack of comparison group in the study (e.g., Deford, 1997; Harrison, 2002; Lyons, 1989; Pullen, Lane, Lloyd, Nowak, & Ryals, 2005; Scull & Lo Bianco, 2008). I present the following four studies (Pinnell, 1989; Wasik & Slaving, 1993;

D'Agostino & Murphy, 2004; Center, Wheldall, Freeman, Outhred, & McNaught, 1995) as examples of additional studies that argue the effectiveness of Reading Recovery, but were not accepted by the WWC.

In 1989, Pinnell compared two cohorts of students: one group who received Reading Recovery and another group who received lessons taught by a trained paraprofessional. In post-intervention measures, the Reading Recovery children outscored the control group in seven of nine diagnostics measures. In subsequent measures at the end of second and third grade, the Reading Recovery-served students continued to outscore the children in the control group in measures of reading.

Wasik and Slavin (1993) compared five reading interventions that offered one-teacher-to-one-student settings, including Reading Recovery. They found Reading Recovery to be the most effective of the five, attributing this finding to the following aspects of Reading Recovery:

1) Reading Recovery draws on a comprehensive theory of reading
2) The tutors worked within the context of a specifically designed program
3) Trained teachers as opposed to paraprofessionals provided the tutoring

Considering the long-term effects of Reading Recovery, Wasik and Slavin found positive effects up to Grade 3, but noted that because standard deviation increased each subsequent year, effect size for each year diminished.

D'Agostino and Murphy (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of 36 studies from a sample of 106 located studies. They compared the reported effect sizes of Reading Recovery students and control groups based on pre- and posttest scores. The assessed Reading Recovery students made larger gains on all post-test scores except standardized tests. When isolating Reading Recovery

students who successfully discontinued from Reading Recovery, this group of students improved on all measures, including standardized tests.

An Australian study by Center, Wheldall, Freeman, Outhred, and McNaught (1995) compared a group of Grade One students who received Reading Recovery (N=31) with a control group (N=39). In both groups, the students attended the regular classroom instruction and the control group received the reading support typically offered by the school. In post-intervention analysis, the Reading Recovery group significantly outperformed the control group in measures of reading both continuous text and isolated words. Statistical significance was not found in measures of growth in phonemic awareness, syntactic awareness, and word attack.

Two reviews of Reading Recovery research. Hiebert (1994) reviewed U.S. research on Reading Recovery and described it incorporating five prominent elements of successful beginning reading instruction: phonemic awareness, deliberate instruction, high expectations with setting and reviewing goals, repeated reading of text, and experimentation with letter-sound correspondences through writing. In addition, she noted the design of the teacher training afforded teachers "an unprecedented amount of guided observation of students" (p. 24). However, she took issue with the data collection procedures in many of the reviewed studies (see next section).

Shanahan and Barr (1995) also conducted a comprehensive review of research examining Reading Recovery to comment on its effectiveness in a U.S. context. They concluded:

> Evidence firmly supports the conclusion that Reading Recovery does bring the learning of many children up to that of their average-achieving peers. Thus, in answer to the question "Does Reading Recovery work?", we must respond in the affirmative. It is clear that many children leave the program with well-developed reading

> strategies, including phonemic awareness and knowledge of spelling. Although some initially low-achieving students will succeed without Reading Recovery, evidence indicates that many who would not succeed do so as a result of this intervention. Multiple assessments attest to the effectiveness of Reading Recovery, whereas many alternative programs have received more limited scrutiny. (p. 989)

Shanahan and Barr tempered their endorsement of Reading Recovery with cautions that the longitudinal effects of the intervention have not been reliably shown to be robust and that other interventions that implement cost-saving measures such as group instruction have shown, while not as effective as Reading Recovery, to also hold promise.

Critiques of Reading Recovery research. Shanahan and Barr (1995) commented that many of the Reading Recovery studies were substantially flawed by their selection design. They question the North American practice of selecting children during the first months of Grade One for intervention. In contrast, in New Zealand where students begin school the month of their 5th birthday, students of similar age receive a full year of classroom instruction before being considered for Reading Recovery. Shanahan and Barr cite research (Barr, 1971) that suggests that some students who begin their year as the lowest achievers do not end the year the lowest, without the provision of intervention. By selecting students before a full year of instruction, Shanahan and Barr suggest that some reported children's progress in Reading Recovery could have been made without Reading Recovery as the students may have made similar gains after spending more time in a classroom program. Because of Reading Recovery's design to work alongside classroom instruction, it is difficult to isolate Reading Recovery and classroom learning. As such, they feel that many reported effects of Reading Recovery are over-estimated.

In their view, the timing of entry into Reading Recovery in the U.S. also contributes to many studies being impacted by "regression to the mean" effects. Regression to the mean is a statistical artifact that occurs when comparative measures of performance are taken multiple times. If there is a large variable found in a first measurement, there is a tendency for that variable to decrease in the second measurement, and more so each subsequent measure. Regression to the mean is applied to describe the phenomenon that the more a subject is measured, the more likely it is that he/she will move towards an average score. Children who enter Reading Recovery early in the school year may score much lower than their peers, but when retested later in the year (after completing their series of Reading Recovery) would be statistically more likely to score closer to average even without intervention. Shanahan and Barr charge that many of the studies of Reading Recovery are overly generous in reporting effects attributed to the intervention because they have not properly factored in regression to the mean effects. While it is possible to mathematically factor for regression to the mean, Kelly and Price (2014) have suggested that the influence of regression to the mean can also be reduced by using more accurate measurement methods or by finding the average of replicate measures. They suggest the best counter approach is the use of a control group and examine changes in measures that occur amidst the control group. Such techniques would be assistive to future Reading Recovery research to avoid similar critique.

Additionally, and more damning to pro-Reading Recovery research, Hiebert (1994) contended that as many as 25-30% of U.S. students involved in Reading Recovery may not be included in data reporting on the program. Hiebert contends that U.S. students who move, or have poor attendance or who do not progress satisfactorily are "dropped" from the program and not counted when considering the number of children who successfully complete the program

and those that complete the program but still require on-going support. As well, U.S. students who begin Reading Recovery later in the Grade One year may not have sufficient weeks in the school year to complete the program and are also not counted in reports of outcomes.

The data collection system and policies of the Canadian implementation of Reading Recovery differ from those of the U.S. All children who begin Reading Recovery in Canada are ultimately categorized into one of the following categories (CIRR, 2013):

- Discontinued (i.e. they have returned to average performance and are expected to continue to make progress in a classroom environment)
- Recommended (i.e. they have made progress but have not developed sufficient skills to work independently in a classroom context and are referred to receive long-term support)
- Progressing but unable to continue (i.e. the student's poor attendance, behaviour, or leave of teacher has been reason to stop providing the intervention)
- Moved (i.e. they left the school before the completion of the program and were not able to finish the lessons at the new school)
- Carry-over (i.e. there have not been sufficient weeks in the Grade One year to complete the program so the lessons will be completed at the beginning of the Grade Two year)

In 2013, the Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery reported outcomes for students who received the intervention in the 2012-2013 school year (Table 4.3). Using this system of categorization, **all** Canadian children who begin Reading Recovery lessons are accounted for and reported. In Canada, low progress is not an acceptable rationale for a student's placement in the "progressing but unable to continue" category. The teacher must provide at least the minimum

number of weeks to all children who begin Reading Recovery and at the end of that period must categorize the student appropriately. Further, a Reading Recovery teacher cannot classify a child as "progressing but unable to continue" and stop providing intervention without the agreement of their Teacher Leader (RRNZ, 2010a, 2010b). This category represents a very small percentage of children (3.8% in the 2012-2013 school year) who begin Reading Recovery lessons in Canada.

Table 4.3

Outcomes for Canadian Reading Recovery Students 2012-2013

Category	Number of Students	%
Discontinued	4172	55.2%
Recommended	1581	20.9%
Progressing, but unable to continue	288	3.8%
Moved	349	4.6%
Carried-over	1169	15.5%

Another very significant difference in implementation from the U.S. is the Canadian practice of "carrying-over" children. Students who begin their series of Reading Recovery lessons later in the Grade One year are carried-over to complete their lessons at the beginning of the Grade Two year and their outcomes are reported when they complete their series of lessons.

While this practice would answer the criticism raised by Hiebert (1994) for Canadian Reading Recovery studies, it also reduces the number of Grade One children served in a year, as any carry-over children from the prior year must first complete their lessons before there is opportunity for a current Grade One child to be selected. However, this practice might partially address the opinion (Barr, 1971) that children should have a full year of instruction before providing intervention, as schools with carry-over children will delay their delivery of Reading Recovery to some Grade One students until the carry-over students are finished.

While the Canadian implementation would seem to address some of the critiques made of studies of Reading Recovery, the lion's share of published research on Reading Recovery to date

is conducted in the U.S. However, as the teachers in this study are Canadian, it is important to clarify the context of how Reading Recovery is differently deployed from the U.S. so that the reader can assess Canadian national outcomes and Canadians' perception of the intervention in that light.

Additionally, American Reading Recovery personnel, mainly Trainers and Teacher Leaders (e.g., Askew, DeFord, Fountas, Lyons, Pinnell, Schwartz) have authored much of research on Reading Recovery from an insider perspective. Although they were arguably working from a position of a conflict of interest, members of the Reading Recovery community have been prolific reporting Reading Recovery's merits and responding to critiques (e.g. Pinnell, Lyons, & Jones, 1996).

An abundance of research has been conducted to explore the effectiveness of Reading Recovery. While critiques have been made of positive claims, Allington (2005) argues that of all interventions, Reading Recovery has withstood the most scrutiny:

> There is a powerful research base supporting the efficacy of Reading Recovery specifically, and for expert, intensive tutoring interventions in general. It is wholly unclear to me, as a Reading Recovery outsider, how so many current state Reading First designs support the use of completely unproven interventions . . . while failing to encourage the use of federal funds to support Reading Recovery. I sense a triumph of ideology over evidence once again. (p. 10)

Despite the critiques that some Reading Recovery research has reported inflated positive effects, there seems to be adequate scientific and descriptive reports of Reading Recovery's effectiveness that warrants further investigation of its potential to inform classroom literacy teacher training and professional development.

Research on Reading Recovery Training Effects to Reading Recovery Teachers

A small body of research[6] has examined how teachers change during their training year in Reading Recovery, and that those changes are attributed to the design of the Reading Recovery professional development and the experiences of the teachers during that year.

Askew and Gaffney (1999) claim that a major component of the intended learning of Reading Recovery training is that teachers develop their understanding of reading and writing processes. By increasing their knowledge of how to support the thinking and problem-solving of novice readers and writers, Askew and Gaffney suggest that Reading Recovery teachers are more effective in how they plan instruction and how they respond to their students moment-by-moment in the course of a lesson.

Lyons (1992, as cited by Pinnell, 1994) through regular discussion with six teachers-in-training and review of their teaching records and student work samples, documented the teachers' growing sensitivity to observable behaviours that imply their students' strategic activity on text, and a corresponding increase in their ability to tailor their instruction according to their students needs.

Wilson (1988) and Rentel and Pinnell (1987) (both as cited by Pinnell, 1994) both reported growth in the abilities of teachers-in-training to ground their decisions based on observed evidence and theoretical justifications. As well, Wilson noted that as the training year progressed, the teachers became more interactive in their conversation and became more likely to challenge

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[6]I also include the following non-retrievable studies (unpublished doctoral dissertations, conference papers, and an Australian regional report) cited by Pinnell (1994), whose participants, methodologies, and summary of findings were sufficiently described by Pinnell for mention in this review: Elliot (1994); Geeke (1998); Lyons (1992); Pinnell & Woolsey (1985); Power & Sawkins (1991); Rentel & Pinnell (1987); Wilson (1988)

one another. From the beginning of the year, when the teachers relied more on the Teacher Leader as a source of direct instruction, the teachers became more constructive of their own knowledge. They would draw examples of working with children and link those experiences to the topic of discussion. Further, they were described as becoming more critical and tentative in their evaluation of their own teaching and open to both suggesting and listening to alternate approaches to teaching problems.

In a comparative review, Lyons, Pinnell and Deford (1993) examined Reading Recovery and three other literacy interventions:

1) Reading Success, an individual tutorial program modeled on Reading Recovery and taught by certified teachers who received a condensed two-week version of the Reading Recovery training;
2) Direct Instruction Skills Plan, an individual tutorial program that used systematic development of essential primary reading skills, taught by certified teachers who participated in an intensive three-day in-service course;
3) Reading and Writing Group, a small group tutorial program that focused on reading and writing activities, taught by teachers who had been trained as Reading Recovery teachers (p. 31)

They concluded that children involved in Reading Recovery made the most progress. They noted that Reading Recovery teachers spent more time engaging children in reading and writing tasks than in the other interventions. As well, they described the Reading Recovery teachers providing a “highly scaffolded instructional setting” (p. 184) in which the teachers and students were highly interactive throughout their lessons. This contrasted another intervention where, primarily, a child’s independent work product was used to shape the next day’s instruction.

Reading Recovery teachers more frequently gave directed feedback immediately, as the student read and wrote texts. They write:

> Reading Recovery teachers . . . were acting on a different theoretical orientation from the rest of the teachers in the study, and they behaved differently. Reading Recovery provides a unique kind of model for teacher learning: Through language, teachers explore concepts together, thinking about theory and checking it with their observations. (p. 188)

Lyons, Pinnell, and DeFord saw definite changes within the actions of the Reading Recovery teachers, but attributed these differences to the teachers' working from a new perspective shaped by their growing understanding of Reading Recovery's theoretical base.

In her dissertation study, Elliot (as cited by Pinnell, 1994) observed and analyzed the decision-making process of one Reading Recovery teacher with a history of particularly successful results as she worked with two children. Elliot described the teacher as "looking for and noticing the *aha* and then taking action on it" (p. 13). She framed the teacher's decision-making as a process moving from observation to conscious awareness and transaction to decision-making to evaluation. She adds that the decision-making of the highly successful teacher she observed was grounded in three knowledge sources: knowledge of child, knowledge of pedagogical content, and knowledge of content in an integrated way during the reasoning process. While this study only involved one participant, Elliot also identified six standpoints that other teachers reported they had developed through their involvement in Reading Recovery:

1) Effective learning depends on the child assuming responsibility for learning.

2) Effective learning is built on the child's current knowledge and skills, and depends on the child understanding what is expected of him or her.
3) Effective learning leads to an awareness of one's mental processes, self-monitoring of the cognitive strategies being employed, and the development of a self-correcting system.
4) Effective teaching depends on accurate observation and sensitive response, within a framework of coherent beliefs and effective practice.
5) Effective teaching depends on the quality of interaction with the child. In particular, it depends on astute questioning, which shows the child how to solve his own learning problems.
6) Effective teaching depends on the teacher's understanding of the learning process, checked against the actuality of children's observable learning behaviours. Only if the teacher really knows how children learn will he or she be able to adapt teaching methods appropriately in response to the children's demonstrated needs. (p. 15)

Each of these belief statements implies some corresponding knowledge of the nature of literacy development and literacy instruction. Elliot suggests working within these beliefs has an effect upon the instructional decisions and the lens of observation taken up by the Reading Recovery teachers. I would argue that similar keystones of effective teaching (and what it depends on) also would also be of interest and application to classroom teachers.

Compton-Lilly (2005) describes teachers-in-training learning how to administer and interpret the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement at the beginning of their training year. In her study, she recorded her participants' comments throughout the training, noting that at

first, the majority tended to be procedural questions. Over time, she viewed her participants as becoming more capable of detecting and articulating finer nuances within the individual literacy capabilities of the children they taught. She discussed the learning of one participant, Sandy: "Thus Sandy's learning is not only a process of internalizing concepts consonant with a particular philosophy about reading instruction; Sandy's learning requires a thoughtful and deliberate dismissal of competing voices, promises, and positions" (p. 15). In Compton-Lilly's view, the Reading Recovery teachers-in-training needed to develop a critical view of the knowledge they were acquiring; it was not sufficient for them merely to learn facts. That is, for teachers to be more capable of appropriate teaching response, they would have to develop the capacity to assess their student's immediate need and drawing on a deep understanding of procedures, justifiably select amidst several possible approaches. She discusses the teachers-in-training's early internalizing of the discourses of Reading Recovery, and becoming members of a Reading Recovery "community" as part of their training year. This study raises questions as to how one could foster a similar diagnostic versus prescriptive approach within classroom teachers. Would there be benefit to classroom teachers similarly developing a more tentative approach to literacy instruction based on the observed needs of students as opposed to following a scripted, sequential program of instruction?

Adding to the discussion of the Reading Recovery learning community, Lyons (1993) observed a Reading Recovery teacher expanding her own awareness of her teaching behaviours through deliberate reflection and discussion with colleagues. Growth in the teacher's effectiveness while interacting with her student was attributed to her increased cognizance of the rationales behind her teaching decisions, and an increasing repertoire of teaching procedures she could draw upon.

Pek, Staff, & Mackrin (2010) examined the nature of self-reflection inherent in Reading Recovery teaching. They advocate that Reading Recovery teachers should be cognizant of the practical theories they use, and question which other theories they can draw upon to challenge their assumptions. As well, Reading Recovery teachers should look for new practical theories that are generated from working with individual students and seek potential applications of these new theories to other students. These authors seem to suggest that effective instruction in Reading Recovery is evolving based upon a teacher's continued learning, open-mindedness to seeking out and trying a new approach when challenged, and the ongoing self-assessment of her own practice. I would argue that ongoing learning and reflection on practice would also hold benefit for classroom teachers.

In their 1996 study, Hobsbaum, Peters, and Sylva analyzed the nature of scaffolding Reading Recovery teachers deployed during the writing section of their lessons. They differentiate between the types of scaffolding required between two types of learning situations: solving an immediate, brief task and gaining mastery of a "messy" set of rules, such as the written form of the English language. The later implies that while a teacher may fade out their support as their student become more competent with a subcomponent of a process, the teacher must remain in control of extending objectives and nudging up the difficulty and complexity of subsequent tasks. These authors concluded that students' accelerated writing learning hinged upon intricate teacher decisions, which were drawn from the teachers' perception of a child's zone of proximal development.

Two studies (Pinnell & Woolsey, 1985; Power & Sawkins, 1991 [both as cited by Pinnell, 1994]) describe Reading Recovery teachers-in-training's navigation of what Schwartz (1998) labeled as a tension between answers and problems. Initially in the training year, the teachers

seemed to be more in search of unambiguous answers from their Teacher Leader, such as technical procedures, and largely, the "mechanics of teaching" (Pinnell, 1994, p. 14). Towards the end of the training year, Pinnell and Woolsey observed that the teachers had shifted in their learning styles, basing their conversation in observations and interpretations of individual children. Schwartz claims these teachers had moved from being absolute truth-seekers to contingent problem-solvers.

In their positive critique of Reading Recovery training, Simpson and Montgomery (2007) argued that Reading Recovery professional development was highly influential to teachers' understanding of literacy development:

> Reading Recovery maximizes the intellectual potential of professionals. Authentic teaching sessions promote rich interactions among the learning community of teachers, teacher leaders, and university trainers. These become the foundation of the evolving literacy apprenticeships. The collaboration of professionals provides an excellent means to expand the collective learning of all participants when discussing topics of teaching, observing, and assessing students within the Reading Recovery intervention. Reflection upon the actions and responses of the teachers and children connects the theories of literacy development to teaching practices, thus investing in the people strategy. (pp. 36-37)

P. David Pearson (Clay, 2005c), a widely respected American authority on literacy education, has applauded Reading Recovery's training of teachers, basing his praise on:

1. How [Reading Recovery teachers] coach children and demonstrate what [they] want [children] to do;
2. How [Reading Recovery teachers] are explicit when talking to children;

3. How [Reading Recovery teachers] support and scaffold; and

4. How [Reading Recovery teachers] gradually pass control to learners. (p. 2)

Pearson's praise and the types of changes to teachers that were reported in the previous studies all seem potentially beneficial to classroom teachers. In particular, the reported growth of supporting knowledge that in turn seems to assist teachers in more effectively scaffolding student literacy learning may hold promise to inform classroom instruction.

Research on the Effects of Reading Recovery Training to Classroom Teachers

While many of the Reading Recovery training-based teacher learning outcomes appear promising towards transfer to a classroom context, none of the previously mentioned studies explored if and how the learning outcomes of Reading Recovery training transfer or are modified by teachers for use in the classroom. These studies only considered teachers working in Reading Recovery, leaving questions of potential transferability of skills and knowledge to classrooms unasked. Only a handful of studies have explored this transfer (Cox & Hopkins, 2006; Pressley, Roehrig, & Sloup, 2001; Smith, 2011) and are described below.

In her doctoral dissertation, Smith (2011) conducted case studies of Reading Recovery-trained teachers in the context of teaching guided reading[7] in their classrooms. She found that those teachers used assessments, materials, and discourse similar to those employed in Reading Recovery. As well, she noted that the teachers planned and carried out instruction in a manner responsive to their students' immediate needs. However, questions of potential transfer to whole class settings or in other types of literacy instruction were left unexplored.

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[7]The teacher coaches students as they read and respond to a text with the intent of supporting and improving their strategic processing as they read. Guided reading is often delivered to a small group of students who may read the same text, but each has their copy. The content of the lesson is often set by the students' responses.

Pressley, Roehrig, and Sloup (2001) observed Reading Recovery-trained Kindergarten through Grade 2 teachers in their classrooms. They noted that all of the ten observed teachers used new, or with more frequency, instructional procedures and teaching strategies that were typical of Reading Recovery. These procedures included:

- Reading Recovery-like lessons for some individual students
- Taking and analysis of Running Records
- Use of leveled books
- Previewing a text with students
- Writing in response to reading
- Transcription of student's responses into conventional spelling
- Use of cut-up sentence
- Emphasis of letter/sound correspondence
- Explanation of how to write individual letters using movement, words, and the visual form
- Use of repetition to remember correct spellings
- Teaching of punctuation conventions
- Giving positive feedback

Pressley and his colleagues noted the following Reading Recovery-like teaching strategies:

- Promotion of self-monitoring and self-correcting
- Rereading to achieve fluency
- Using the word wall
- Searching for multiple decoding cues

- Attending to "chunks" in words during word work[8] lessons
- Stretching words to sound them out in writing
- Making physical movements to support reading (e.g., one-to-one matching of finger pointing to read words)

They argue that these changes enhanced the quality of the observed teachers' literacy instruction.

Cox and Hopkins (2006) found that Reading Recovery training provides teachers with "a conceptual understanding of the literacy process as it develops for diverse children" (p. 263), which, in their view, comprises a critical element to both successful intervention and which held potential transferability to classroom literacy instruction.

While Pressley, Roehrig, and Sloup (2001) and Cox and Hopkins (2006) claim Reading Recovery training held positive influences to classroom teachers, additional research should be undertaken to continue the work of Pressley and his colleagues to more clearly define what specific and positive changes are evident in classroom practice that can be attributed to the Reading Recovery training. More of this type of research needs to be conducted to better determine if and how Reading Recovery training could contribute to primary literacy teachers' training. This study is designed to contribute to this issue.

Those who have begun to investigate Reading Recovery's influence to classroom's settings have expressed interest to further explore if and how Reading Recovery could be deployed towards enhancing teacher training and professional development in literacy instruction. "There is very good reason to expend resources to evaluate the impact of Reading Recovery training as

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[8] Teaching spelling patterns and general ways words are constructed in English.

professional development for classroom teachers" (Pressley & Roehrig, 2005, p. 14). Herman and Stringfield (1997) write:

> The intensity and the methods utilized by Reading Recovery training and the insistence on high level Reading Recovery performance provided an almost singularly attractive model for future staff development efforts, regardless of the program type. As schools systematize and create more opportunities for serious staff development, the thoroughness of the Reading Recovery model seems to be well worth emulating. (p. 86)

I would answer such a call in my dissertation research to better understand if any components of the Reading Recovery training model are, in fact, found to be worth emulating in the context of teacher preparation and if so, how.

Chapter 5: Methodology

Design: Qualitative Descriptive Study

Taking a qualitative descriptive approach to my inquiry (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005), I conducted my research within the stance that there is not a predictable, universal outcome of Reading Recovery training for all teachers. Qualitative descriptive studies gather as much data as possible so that they have representation of all of the elements that come together to make an event what it is. While researchers are in the field, they are obliged to consider all that they observe in the field as data. Because of this, qualitative researchers cannot insulate themselves from their own bias to data as quantitative researchers, who may be working more remotely from the participant and have isolated select variables that will become the focus of a quantitative study.

Historically in research into the teaching of reading, up until the mid-1970s, research that involved direct observation of teachers was sparse (Hoffman, Maloch, & Sailors, 2011). Prior to a period of change which gained the most momentum during the 1990s, the majority of studies on the teaching of reading were comparative studies of various teaching methods focused on identifying "the best" method of reading instruction. While there has been an increase in qualitative studies (both quantitatively and qualitatively orientated) examining reading instruction in recent times, Hoffman and his colleagues cautioned that the number of observational studies remained pitifully small in relation to the formulation of policy that shape school practice.

During the 1970s the United States moved towards developing a research agenda to inform reading instruction. This led to the formation of the Center for the Study of Reading in 1976 (Long & Seldon, 2011) The Center's main priorities continue to be to research and develop

means to assist children struggling to read, increasing our understanding of the development of a reading process, and improving teacher education in reading instruction. However, political and cultural pressure has demanded programs that would show immediate and widespread improvement in national reading scores. To answer this public attention, much research has been undertaken to quantitatively measure outcomes of programs and students' growth in reading levels.

Dyson (as cited by Barone, 2004) argued against taking only a quantitative view of literacy learning:

> What *can* be done with thousands of children but count them? In mass, children – and the challenges they present – are faceless, nameless, and overwhelming. But these massive numbers of children are not isolated individuals; they're social participants included, or so we hope, in particular classrooms and schools, in particular institutions and communities. (p. 7)

Dyson called for the consideration of the context of literacy learning to add to our understanding, something that could not be well understood solely by numerical measurement. Taylor and Dorsey-Gains (1988) added, "Literacy cannot be quantified in numbers, nor is it directly related to the frequency of use" (p. 201) calling for more qualitative descriptions of children's literacy learning.

I would argue that our understanding of the nature of literacy teaching also warrants a qualitative approach, as teaching is a very complex combination of several factors. By isolating those factors and trying to quantify them, one would lose their meaning in the context in which they were observed.

Descriptive studies have been defined as studies which "attempt to describe or enumerate a phenomenon to show or summarize its current nature" (Shanahan, 2002, p. 10) Qualitative descriptive research has been put forward as the method of choice when wanting to describe the *who, what,* and *where* of events (Sandelowski, 2000). Cumming (1994) added that descriptive research strives towards creating comprehensive accounts of phenomena as they are acted out in real life. This type of work centres on broader aspects of language, literacy, and learning. On the other hand, interpretive research is conducted "more for the purpose of interpreting local institutional issues in their cultural contexts" (p. 685). Descriptive studies tend to draw more from tenets of naturalistic inquiry. "Naturalistic inquiry implies only a commitment to studying something in its natural state, or as it is to the extent that this is possible in a research enterprise" (Sandelowski, 2000, p. 337). Merriam (1998) described descriptive studies as being undertaken in more of a "theoretical vacuum" (p. 38) in that they are neither guided by established or hypothesized theory nor motivated by a desire to formulate new theory or generalizations (p. 38). They are useful in providing more information in areas where little previous research has been undertaken.

Sandelowski (2000) defended qualitative descriptive research as a valuable but downplayed research approach. She wrote:

> In the now vast qualitative methods literature, there is no comprehensive description of qualitative description as a distinctive method of equal standing with other qualitative methods, although it is one of the most frequently employed methodologic approaches in the practice disciplines. (p. 335)

In qualitative descriptive research, there is no mandate to produce more than a descriptive summary of an event organized to best represent the collected data so that it holds the most

relevance to the intended audience. Perhaps due to this "simplicity," qualitative descriptive research has been relegated to a lower rung of research credibility, as the "crudest form of inquiry" (Thorne, Kirkham, & MacDonald-Emes, 1997, p. 170). Sandelowski argued that many researchers have misrepresented their work more as "the sexier" interpretive (i.e. grounded theory, ethnography, narrative) in hopes of receiving more epistemological credibility, when, in fact, their studies are descriptive.

I deployed survey and descriptive case studies methods to answer my research questions (Table 5.1). I wished to better understand and to provide a description of a range of responses to the survey questions and what was observable in classrooms amongst participating teachers who trained in Reading Recovery. I took those descriptions and speculated if and how those outcomes might have more widespread implications for teacher training.

Table 5.1

Overview of Research Questions, Methods, and Participants

Research Question	Methods & Data Sources	Participants
1. Do primary (Kindergarten, Grade One, or Grade Two) teachers report Reading Recovery training influences their classroom literacy instructional practices? If so, what influences do they report?	• Survey – online questionnaire	• Canadian primary teachers who trained in Reading Recovery in the 2011-2012, 2010-2011, or 2009-2010 school year
2. If primary teachers report Reading Recovery training as an influence to their classroom literacy instructional practices, what Reading Recovery-like teaching procedures, language, knowledge, or beliefs are observable or reported when the classrooms are systematically observed?	• Survey – online questionnaire • Descriptive case studies	• Three Reading Recovery trained primary teachers who completed the survey
3.What does literacy instruction look like in the cases of three primary teachers who are incorporating Reading Recovery-like practices to their classroom literacy instruction?	• Descriptive case studies	• Three Reading Recovery trained primary teachers who completed the survey

Surveys. Survey research (Andres, 2012; Baumann & Bason, 2004; Guppy & Gray, 2008) has been described as "asking questions of individuals with the intention of extending the results

beyond the individual study respondents" (Andres, 2012, p. 10). Through the use of questionnaires, researchers conducting surveys ask a standard set of questions to a group of participants.

Technology has enabled survey research to be conducted electronically over boundless geographic areas where potential participants have access to the Internet. As well, software tools have been developed that enable researchers to create, distribute, and manage survey instruments online. While web-based surveys are becoming increasingly more popular, participants may be discouraged if they encounter technical issues (Guppy & Gray, 2008) and the present proliferation of e-mail invitations to participate in commercial surveys has increased to the point that most computer users routinely delete any survey requests that do not hold immediate interest.

I countered these difficulties with the following procedures. During my pilot of the survey instrument with teachers in Langley, British Columbia, I encountered a technical difficulty with the active link to access the survey. After correcting that potential roadblock, the rest of the online instrument worked according to my expectations, and the pilot participants did not report any further technical difficulties when completing the survey. As I wanted the survey participants to be able to respond to the survey instrument anonymously, I relied on their being nominated to participate by the Canadian Reading Recovery Teacher Leaders. As part of their support, the Teacher Leaders would inform their teachers that a request to participate in the study would be forthcoming and to encourage their participation. By making the request more personal, via the Teacher Leaders, I'd hoped to assuage the potential reaction of teachers to simply delete the email request if it arrived unannounced or without their having any awareness of the study. As well, having the Teacher Leader briefly discuss the study might encourage the teachers to feel

more part of a group when completing the study, rather than wonder who else was receiving the invitation.

Descriptive case studies. Case studies use multiple sources of data to examine bounded systems, and provide rich descriptions of the object of study from within their natural settings (Barone, 2004). Barone adds that case study, alongside its boundedness, is particularistic, descriptive, heuristic, and inductive. "Everyday teaching and learning are complex social happenings, and understanding them as such is the grand purpose of qualitative case studies" (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 9). Yin (2009) identified the case study approach appropriate for inquiries into contemporary events, where it is either not necessary, desired, or possible to control behavioural events or variables. Within a case study design, the researcher observes and gathers information about natural events within a defined setting in order to provide a description of phenomena – framing that description within the context in which the researcher observed. The researcher's role is not to attempt to control or influence the events or conditions of the settings but, rather, as an onlooker, attempt to unobtrusively record, describe, and draw meanings from the day-to-day happenings of a segment of a society.

While descriptive case study research may use ethnographic-like tools to collect data, it can differ from ethnography (i.e. interpretive) due to the presence of pre-existing categories of interest that will frame the research (Barone, 2004). Ethnography is more broadly exploratory and seeks to answer more general inquiry, such as "What is happening here?" than descriptive case study. Purcell-Gates (2004) described ethnography as research that "seeks to *explain, describe,* and *provide insight* into human behaviour in context" (p. 93).

Descriptive case study research pre-delineates parameters around who and what will be observed and described and how (Yin, 2012). The articulation of categories of interest prior to

data collection both *focuses* and *colours* the lens of inquiry, as the categories of interest are drawn from the researcher's personal experiences and disciplines. The purpose of descriptive case studies is to provide a thick, detailed description or account of a single or multiple cases under study. Interpretive case studies, on the other hand, analyze, interpret, or theorize about a phenomenon (Schwazrer, Bloom, & Shono, 2004).

Compatibility of survey and case study methods. Gable (1994) saw survey and case study research as highly compatible and co-supportive methods. He made the case that the relative strengths of one method compensated for the weaknesses of the other (Table 5.2). Drawing data from both surveys and case study approaches allowed one to consider research questions from two perspectives – that of the participants themselves and one's own as an observer. Through a multiple-methods design, a researcher has the opportunity to look for consistency, variance, or contradiction between what participants report and what is observed in real-world practice. In common terms, one can design an inquiry that may check if the participants "walk the talk", through an assessment of the congruence of what is reported versus what is seen and heard in actual practice.

Table 5.2

Gable's (1994) Relative Strengths and Weaknesses of Survey and Case Study Research Methods

	Survey	**Case Study**
Controllability	Medium	Low
Deductability	Medium	Low
Repeatability	Medium	Low
Generalizability	High	Low
Discoverability (explorability)	Medium	High
Representability (potential model complexity)	Medium	High

Combining the two methods affords participants to report some things that the researcher may not have opportunity to directly observe. Conversely, the opportunity to observe the cases may allow the researcher to discover something previously unreported. Working with both survey and descriptive case study methods allows a researcher to look at his or her research questions both from a deductive and discovery stance.

Through the addition of descriptive case study methods, one can address an issue of survey research. Although survey reliability hinges upon the unverifiable accuracy of the respondents, survey respondents who are selected for case study can be observed and those observations can be used to triangulate their practices against what they have reported.

On the other hand, surveys can be used to gather a larger sample of responses case study research affords. While surveys produce results that are more easily generalizable, case study research provides a much richer description of the context of the case and can explore meaning beyond a surface description of what is reported.

The use of both survey and case study methods might suggest that this inquiry is a mixed methods study. In terms of descriptive studies, such as my own, both quantitative and qualitative approaches may be taken (Sandelowski, 2000). Quantitative description is typically gathered by closed-ended surveys or other pre-structured means. This data is typically subjected to statistical tests and conclusions are drawn from those results. In this type of descriptive study, "researchers leave less room for the unanticipated" (p. 336). Generally, in quantitative descriptive research, pre-set categories of what to describe are determined prior to the collection of data. In purer qualitative descriptive studies, data is coded, but the codes emerge from the data itself.

Merriam (1998) defines qualitative research as having the following four characteristics:

1) The understanding of the phenomenon of interest is undertaken from the participant's perspective, not the perspective of the researcher.
2) The researcher is the primary instrument of data collection.
3) The research usually involves fieldwork.
4) The researcher takes an inductive research strategy, rather than test existing theory.

Following Merriam's description, I saw my own study fitting into qualitative research with multiple methods. While there were quantitative hues to this study, I did not see myself taking enough of a quantitative perspective to consider this a mixed methods study.

In this study, I examined the effects of Reading Recovery training from the perspective of the participants. In the online survey, the participants were asked to report such effects. During the case study phase of the research, much of the collected data was from my perspective as an observer. My observations were tempered by the teachers' perspectives, which were gathered in semi-structured interviews following each observation period.

I approached this study without an intention to test a pre-existing theory. Little research has been conducted to investigate the effects of Reading Recovery training on classroom contexts. I viewed this study as clearly taking an inductive approach. As well, I put forward pre-determined categories of interest for this study, based upon the learning outcomes intended by Reading Recovery training (Stouffer, 2011; see Chapter 4). Finally, I stayed within the qualitative tradition in how I analyze my data. I used language to organize and interpret my data, as opposed to conducting a statistical analysis.

Survey

Survey instrument. The first research question was to be answered through the use of a questionnaire (See Appendix A) that was delivered and responded to by the participants using an

online survey instrument, *FluidSurveys* (2011). The survey could be accessed through an active link embedded in the email describing the study and inviting the teachers to participate. The teachers were informed that they were giving their consent to participate in the study by following the link and completing the survey.

In the email, the teachers were informed that the active link would take them to the survey instrument that would not take longer than 45 minutes for them to complete. They were also told that they would not be identified in the research, or to their employers. Once teachers followed the link, they were directed online to the survey instrument. The survey began by asking teachers to enter their participant number, followed by questions to gather demographic information about the teachers (province/territory, region of province they taught in, gender, years teaching experience, the year they taught in Reading Recovery, the grade(s) they taught classroom English Language Arts).

The teachers were then asked to respond to a series of paired Likert-scale and open-ended questions. The first question, a Likert-scale type, asked the teachers their level of agreement with a statement that indicated a change in their teaching post-Reading Recovery training. If the teacher agreed to some degree to that statement, the next question, in open-ended format, asked them to provide examples of how or what had changed. For example, paired questions #22 and #23 ask the teachers if they agree that their writing instruction has changed, and if so, to provide examples:

22. How much do you agree with this statement?

    I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in writing.

    a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

[If participants responds Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, or Don't know they are moved past Question 23 to Question 24]

23. Could you give examples of how your classroom writing instruction has changed since you trained in Reading Recovery?

The paired questions explored the teachers' perception of change and when they felt change had occurred, to provide examples in the following domains of their language arts instruction: their understanding of how children learn to read and write, their classroom instructional practices in reading and writing, the frequency of their use of "Reading Recovery" language in the classroom, their assessment of children's literacy development, their perception of children learning to read and write, and their effectiveness as a classroom literacy teacher.

Three open-ended questions were asked of all the teachers, regardless of their level of agreement to the Likert-scale questions:

31. Are there any particular situations in your classroom where you feel you are drawing heavily upon your experience in Reading Recovery?

32. If another primary teacher asked you if training in Reading Recovery would assist them in their classroom teaching, what would you say to them?

35. Can you give examples of other professional development experiences (not Reading Recovery) you have had that have impacted your classroom literacy instruction?

At the end of the survey, two final questions asked if the participating teachers qualified for the case study phase of the research (i.e. they taught within 100 km of Brandon, Manitoba) and, if so, would they be interested in being contacted to receive more information to consider participating.

Participants. Potential participants were teachers from 2011-2012, 2010-2011, or 2009-2010 Reading Recovery training classes across Canada who taught English Language Arts in Kindergarten, Grade One, or Grade Two classrooms during the 2012-2013 school year. One or more of the case studies could have centred on a teacher who was in the first year of classroom instruction following the Reading Recovery training year. I limited participation in both the survey and the case studies to teachers who trained in Reading Recovery within the last three years to minimize the effects of teachers' fading recollection of their experiences training in Reading Recovery and their perception of returning to classroom work after being trained.

Because of my past position as a Teacher Leader, I had contact information for the Trainers responsible for each of the divisions of the Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery: Mountain-Pacific (British Columbia, Alberta, Yukon Territories), Western (Manitoba), Central (Ontario), and Atlantic (New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island). I emailed this group to explain my dissertation proposal and request their support. Having the Trainers' unanimous support, in September 2012, through email distributed by the Trainers, I requested the Teacher Leaders from across Canada to identify teachers within their districts who met the criteria for the inclusion in this study and to forward an email to invite those teachers to anonymously complete the survey.

At the onset of the study, I did not know the precise number of potential participants unless the Teacher Leaders communicated that information to me. The Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery does not gather that type of demographic information about Reading Recovery teachers' roles post-training that could have pre-identified the number of potential participants on a national scale. In my initial proposal for this study, I had intended to focus on Grade One teachers only. When I made my initial call for survey respondents in September 2012 to the Teacher Leaders, the response was too low for the study to be viable (i.e. 3 Teacher Leaders responded nominating only 9 potential participants). Because there was no listing or means of knowing the potential number of participants across Canada, I had greatly underestimated the potential number of Grade One teachers who had been trained in the prior three years or the willingness of the Teacher Leaders to assist with the study.

To address this issue, I expanded the study to also include Kindergarten and Grade Two teachers. As well, I attended the Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery's Teacher Leader Professional Development Forum in Richmond Hill, Ontario in November 2012. As all of the Canadian Teacher Leaders attended the Forum, it was an excellent opportunity for me to present my proposed study and to ask for their assistance in nominating potential survey participants. At the end of the presentation, 20 Teacher Leaders who worked in every province or territory in Canada that offers Reading Recovery felt that they had teachers within their Reading Recovery groups that would meet the criteria of the study.

The selection criteria for my inquiry (i.e. primary teachers who trained in Reading Recovery within the last three years) narrowed my selection to a portion of the Reading Recovery teaching community. To increase the reliability of the survey phase of my research, I designed a sampling method that would invite participation from teachers across Canada who

qualified for the terms of this study in hopes of hearing the opinions of teachers who taught in different districts and in different settings (i.e. urban, rural, Northern). By casting a wider net across Canada, I hoped to avoid potential mitigating factors such as only sampling a group of teachers who had completed their undergraduate training at the same university or teachers who had trained in Reading Recovery with the same Teacher Leader.

From the 20 Teacher Leaders who expressed interest in supporting the study, 18 Teacher Leaders concluded that they worked with teachers who met the criteria for inclusion in the study. In total, 83 teachers met the criteria for the study and were invited to participate in the survey. The number of invited teachers and the response rate for each participating province are presented in Table 5.3. Since the fall of 2013, after the collection of year-end national data, the number of teachers who taught Reading Recovery in English in each province became known and was reported to me via the CIRR (personal communication with Susan Burroughs, Executive Director, CIRR, June 30, 2014).

Table 5.3

Summary of Invited, Participating, and Active Reading Recovery Teachers by Province/Territory

Province	Number of Invited Teachers Who Met the Criteria for Inclusion in the Study	Number of Participants (% who participated)	Number of Reading Recovery (English Implementation) Teachers in 2012-2013 (% of total Canadian teachers)
British Columbia	22	15 (68%)	172 (16%)
Alberta	15	11 (73%)	54 (5%)
Manitoba	42	24 (57%)	251 (23.3%)
New Brunswick	4	3 (75%)	13 (1.2%)
Ontario	0	-	519 (48.1%)
Prince Edward Island	0	-	42 (3.9%)
Yukon	0	-	27 (2.5%)
Total:	83	53 (63.8%)	(7.8%)

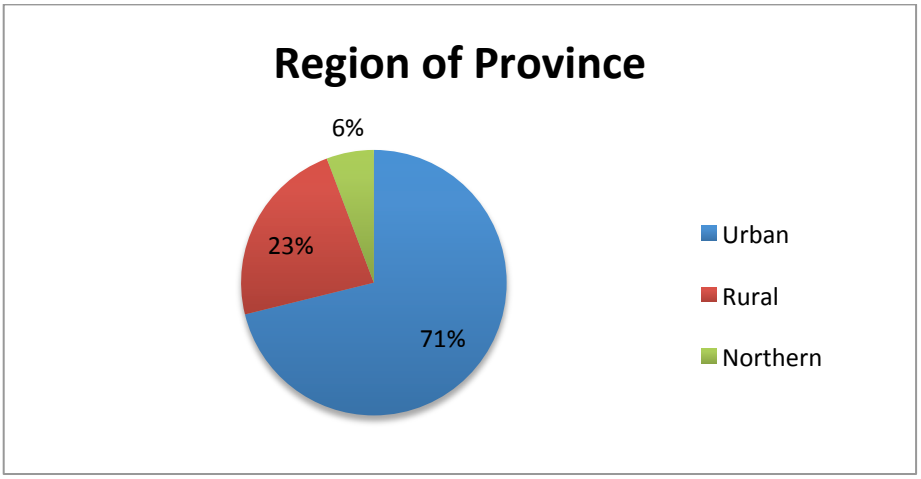
In total, 83 teachers (7.8% of all active English Reading Recovery teachers in 2012-2013) from across Canada met the inclusion criteria for this study. Unfortunately, there were no nominated teachers from Ontario, where the majority of Reading Recovery teachers served. When I initially asked for the Teacher Leaders' support, most of the Teacher Leaders from Ontario reported that none of their active Reading Recovery teachers also taught in classrooms; rather they worked in Resource or reading clinician-type roles. Only Teacher Leaders from two districts in Ontario had potential participants, York and Toronto School Districts, but both districts declined my request to conduct external research with their teachers. During that school year, the province of Ontario had just emerged from contentious contract arbitration with the teachers' union. One of the labor conditions that resulted that year was that Ontario school districts could not request teachers to perform any additional duties outside of teaching. It is possible that my request to survey teachers in the York and Toronto School Districts was deemed as a non-permissible extra duty and was therefore denied. Three other districts, two in Manitoba and one in Alberta, approved my request for external research.

From 83 invited candidates, 53 (63.9%) teachers completed the survey. A demographic summary of all of the survey participants is presented in Table D2 (see Appendix D). The survey participants were asked to classify if they taught in an urban, rural or Northern area of their province. Figure 5.1 represents the areas in which participating teachers were working during the 2012-2013 school year.

At the beginning of each survey, demographic information was collected for each participant, including their gender identification (82 female, 1 male, 0 transgendered), which grade(s) of English Language Arts they taught in the 2012-2013 school year (36 single grade

teachers, 17 multi-age teachers), how long they had been teaching that grade, how long they had been teaching in total, and the year that they trained in Reading Recovery.

Figure 5.1. Regions of Province of Participating Teachers



In Table 5.4, I list the grades taught by the participants. Seventeen of the surveyed teachers taught in multi-age classrooms of two or more grades. Nine of these teachers taught higher grades (Grade 3 or higher) in addition to a primary grade of English Language Arts. While there was representation for each primary grade, there were more teachers in the survey respondents who taught Grade One and slightly more teachers who taught Grade Two.

Table 5.4

Grades Taught by the Survey Participants

Grade	Number of Teachers
Kindergarten	17
Grade One	30
Grade Two	23
Grade Three or higher	9

The responding teachers reported a range of experience teaching their current grade assignment (Table 5.5). More than half of the survey responses indicated that the teachers were in the first five years of teaching in their current assignment.

Table 5.5

Participants' Years of Experience Teaching Their Current Grade

Years of Experience	Number of Teachers
1 - 2	13
3 - 5	16
6-10	8
11-19	11
20+	5

However, when looking at the teachers' total years of teaching experience (including their previous and current assignment(s), see Table 5.6) the majority of the teachers had six or more years' experience, with more than half having a decade or more worth teaching experience prior to their Reading Recovery training.

Table 5.6

Participants' Total Years Teaching Experience

Years	Number of Teachers
1-2	0
3-5	14
6-10	10
11-19	18
20+	11

It was interesting to examine the timing of teachers' Reading Recovery training in comparison to their assignment to a primary grade (Table 5.7); that is, how long they had been teaching a primary grade before they trained in Reading Recovery. While the majority of the survey respondents had been teaching in their current grade assignment three or more years, twenty of the teachers began teaching a different grade(s) after training in Reading Recovery. Eight of the teachers trained in Reading Recovery with a year or two's experience teaching at their current grade level. It was not reported whether the teachers' assignments were altered because of their training in Reading Recovery or in response to other factors in the schools.

Table 5.7

Participants' Years Teaching Primary Grade(s) Prior to Training in Reading Recovery

Years	Number of Teachers
0	12
1-2	8
3-5	14
6-10	6
11-19	9
20+	4

All of the survey respondents had at least three years teaching experience before training in Reading Recovery. Slightly more than half of the respondents had taught more than 10 years, while the remaining participants were in the first decade of teaching.

As teachers are trained according to available positions and school needs, there is no pre-determined number of teachers trained each year in Canada, nor are there mandates governing which school personnel are trained beyond a guideline that training teachers should have primary classroom experience (CIRR, 2006). Within this group of survey respondents, the majority trained either in the 2011-2012 or 2009-2010 school year (Table 5.8). The largest portion of the survey respondents was reflecting on the impact of Reading Recovery training to their classroom practice the year immediately after they had trained.

Table 5.8

School Year That Participating Teachers Trained in Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery Training Year	Number of Teachers (%)
2011-2012	24 (45.3%)
2010-2011	8 (15.1%)
2009-2010	21 (39.6%)

Reciprocity. Following the first round of responses, which were too low in number, I added an incentive for teachers to complete the survey, two children's books (total value $15). In the preliminary information and each of the reminder emails, I described the incentive to complete the survey to potential participants. I included an incentive in hopes of maximizing the

response rate from what was still an unknown number of potential participants. Using the participants' identification number (to keep participants' identities anonymous to me), I sent the corresponding Teacher Leaders enough books to distribute to the teachers who completed the survey as a thank-you for their time.

Data collection. I assigned each Teacher Leader a set of participant numbers that was used to anonymously identify teachers (to track which teachers completed the survey), but Teacher Leaders did not share teachers' names with me (until and only if a Manitoba teacher expressed interest in potentially participating as a case study). Two follow-ups for uncompleted surveys were sent through the corresponding Teacher Leader to forward to the teachers to remind them to complete the survey.

I forwarded information about the study and an invitation to participate in the survey to 69 teachers at the beginning of December 2012. A reminder letter to complete the survey was forward mid-December and the cut-off to complete the survey was December 31, 2012. To gather comparative information about non-responders, I forwarded a final request to only the non-responding teachers in January 2013 but received no additional responses.

Because of additional time needed to process my request for external research, a separate timeline had to be developed for 14 teachers in one district in Alberta. These teachers were invited and reminded to complete their surveys in the same fashion as the larger group in April 2013.

Data management. *FluidSurveys* (2011), the online software used to collect participants' survey responses held completed surveys online in a password-protected format. Accessing my account, I was able to track which teachers had completed the surveys by referencing the list of

participant numbers. All of the surveys were exported into Microsoft Word format and uploaded onto my desktop computer, which is also password secure.

Next, the teachers' survey responses were uploaded into ATLAS.ti (Scientific Software, 2007), a qualitative data management/analysis tool. Each of the survey responses could be accessed and coded separately, but was part of a larger bundle of data collected for this study, which included the surveys, my notes from the classroom observations, and the transcriptions of the interviews.

Analysis. In addition to demographic information about the teachers (gender, province, how long they had been teaching, etc.), the participants' responses to the seven Likert-scale questions (i.e. their agreement or disagreement to statements about the influence of Reading Recovery) were counted using analysis tools provided on the online survey instrument (FluidSurveys, 2011). Additionally, I used the online survey tools to examine the Likert-scale results cross-referencing individual demographic factors (i.e. province, region, training year, grade taught) to explore if different patterns of response emerged within sub-groups of the participants (e.g., Did teachers from Alberta respond differently to the Likert-scale questions than teachers from the other provinces?).

The data generated by the open-ended questions was coded by describing the transfers that emerged from the teachers' responses. All of these examples resulted in a coding manual (Appendix C). As I read through the survey responses, I coded instances where the participants reported a transfer of some aspect of Reading Recovery along six dimensions:

1) **Classroom activity** – a description of the classroom activity that the teacher and/or students were engaged in

2) **Data Source** – whether the data was collected in the survey (later, I added separate codes to distinguish survey data from a classroom observation or follow-up interview)
3) **Group** – the grouping or number of students with whom the teacher was working
4) **Mode** – whether the classroom activity involved reading, writing, or both
5) **Reading Recovery Concept/Principle** – the Reading Recovery-based concept or principle which was transferred
6) **Reading Recovery Transfer** – whether the transfer impacted the teacher's belief, knowledge, language, or practice

Within each of these six dimensions, different examples resulted in the generation of a new code. For example, in the broader category of classroom activity, guided reading and students reading independently were coded as different activities. A complete listing of all of the codes generated from all the study's data appears in the Coding Manual (Appendix C).

How I coded each event depended on its context. For example, (Table 5.9) the concept of "Building on the known" is coded in all four domains in different occurrences. The classroom context or how the teacher described each Reading Recovery concept/principle would in turn drive my coding decisions for each incident.

Table 5.9

Example of Different Occurrences of a Reading Recovery Concept/Principle Coded in Different Domains of Transfer

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle: Building on the known	
Transfer Domain	Example of Coded Response
Belief	My focus is more on what the child knows, rather than what they don't know. I try to build on what each child knows in my lessons. (Kindergarten-Grade Four teacher, urban Manitoba)
Knowledge	I have learned that I need to learn from the child and have them lead me as to where I should start off with teaching them to how to read and write. (Kindergarten teacher, urban Manitoba)
Language	*Where have you seen the word before? What do you already know about the word?* (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba)
Procedure	With my non-readers, at this point, each has an alphabet book where we work on what they know (Kindergarten, urban British Columbia)

As one means of identifying patterns within the survey data, I examined the coded data and observed the frequency of codes within. Frequency analysis was used not as a means to find "a typical response" to Reading Recovery, but more so to give me a sense of what teachers more commonly reported how the training influenced their practice.

A more general approach to the aggregation of the frequency of responses was useful in the discussion of the teachers' responses and fit within the descriptive design of this study. A higher frequency of response reporting the transfer of particular aspects of Reading Recovery training may suggest, at least according to the teachers' perception, a larger degree of transferability. To the reader of this research, a higher frequency may also imply a wider degree of generalizability.

Using ATLAS.ti, I was able to look for co-occurrences between codes. For example, I could examine if teachers reported when they believed Reading Recovery had influenced their belief, knowledge, language, or practice (Reading Recovery Transfer) when they were writing (Mode) in their classrooms.

Coding the teachers' responses also allowed me to later compare the case study teachers' survey responses and their observed behaviours and interview data. Through this comparison, I will examine if the case study teachers enacted, and to what degree, their perceived transfers of Reading Recovery training within their classrooms.

Reliability and validity. The reliability of surveys can be considered through two factors: the contact rate (the percentage of the total population contacted) and the cooperation rate (the percentage of the contacted population who agrees to participate (Langer, 2003). To maximize my contacted rate, I had invited all of the Canadian Teacher Leaders from across Canada, who in turn invited all of their teachers who meet the criteria of this study (minus Teacher Leader error or non-cooperation of Teacher Leader or school district).

To enhance my cooperation rate, I assured the teachers of their anonymity completing the survey and sent follow-ups to encourage greater participation. Further, I added an incentive to complete the survey by offering teachers who completed the survey a thank-you gift of two children's texts.

Baruch (1999) suggests that a response rate of 50% is what could and should be considered as a reasonable response rate to surveys in academic research. In Table 5.10, I describe how the response rate for the survey in this study meets Baruch's criterion in each province where teachers were invited and when considering the total rate of response.

Table 5.10

Summary of Survey Cooperation by Province and Total

Province	Percentage of Cooperating Teachers
British Columbia	68%
Alberta	73%
Manitoba	57%
New Brunswick	75%
Total:	63.8%

As earlier described, to enhance the validity, the survey instrument was piloted with a convenience sample of teachers in the Langley, British Columbia school district. Teachers who complete the pilot were asked to provide feedback on the clarity of the survey questions and the ease of completing the survey online. I examined both the responses of the pilot group and their feedback to validate the survey and was prepared to refine the questions as needed.

To protect biasing of my interpretation of the survey responses, I designed the participant selection process so that I would not know the names of any of the survey participants. Aside from the four volunteers for the case study phase of the research, none of the survey participants were identified to me. There were sufficient participants that I did not feel I could identify any teachers from the demographic information they provided.

To analyze the disposition of the sample (Guppy & Gray, 2008), that is, the number of teachers who responded as well as those who did not, and ensure that the respondents are not largely different from non-responders, I sent one final reminder email after the end of December cut-off. In January 2013, I sent a final call in hopes of gathering comparative data of a few non-respondents. However, no teachers answered this final call.

Another challenge to this survey lies in the potential for the participants to respond in ways that reflect a positive endorsement of Reading Recovery, but not necessarily their transfer of its aspects to their classroom accurately. I mitigated some of those affects in the following ways: 1) Convincingly ensuring the participants' anonymity in completing the survey, 2) Stating the purpose of the survey in general terms, as opposed to specific terms which imply Reading Recovery training should transfer to classroom settings, 3) Placing sensitive questions towards the end of a survey to give participants time to gain confidence in the instrument, 4) The use of less restrictive categories (i.e. Likert-scales versus yes/no) as possible responses to questions of transferability.

Case Studies

My second and third research questions were to be answered by conducting descriptive case studies. In these case studies, I reported my observations of the influence, transfer, or transformation of Reading Recovery pedagogy in the classrooms of three primary teachers.

Case study instruments. During the classroom visits, I relied on the taking of field notes (Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999) on notepaper to record as much of the classroom activity and discourse as possible. To supplement the notes, I recorded each classroom visit (audio only) using my laptop computer so that I could later add more detail or confirm my handwritten notes.

Throughout the school visits, I interviewed teachers using Seidman's (2006) framework of structured interviews, which are composed of the following phases a) focused life history, b) the details of the experience, and c) reflection on the meaning. Depending on the phases, the interviews would be either conducted before or after school (or at another time of the participant's convenience) or immediately following the classroom observation. All of the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. I have included an interview protocol for each of the three phases in the Appendix B.

An initial interview, to gather a focused life history, provided me information on the teachers' background prior to Reading Recovery, as well as their general impressions of the training process. Informal interviews centered on details of an event were employed as needed after each school visit if I required clarification of a classroom event that was observed in each setting. The third of Seidman's phases, the reflection on meaning, was administered at the end of the observation period, to gather more data as to the teachers' perception of Reading Recovery training's effects on their classroom practices.

Sites/participants. At the end of the online survey, I asked teachers to consider participating in the case study phase of my inquiry.

Potential case study participants had to meet the following criteria:

1) They had completed Reading Recovery training in the 2011-2012, 2010-2011, or 2009-2010 school year.
2) They completed the survey instrument of my research and reported influences of Reading Recovery training to their classroom practice.
3) They taught Kindergarten, Grade One, or Grade Two (or in a multi-age classroom with at least one of those grades) English Language Arts in the 2012-2013 year.

4) They taught in a school no further than 100 km from my residence in Brandon, Manitoba.

At the end of December, I had received survey responses from all of the teachers who were potential case study participants (some teachers from Alberta were completing the surveys later, but would not qualify for the case study). From the completed responses, four teachers in Southwest Manitoba had expressed interest in considering participating in the case study research. I requested that the Teacher Leader forward an email to the four potential volunteers, which further described the case study.

After receiving the information, all four teachers indicated that they would be interested in participating and, at that time, I requested the Teacher Leader to identify the potential participants to me so that I could contact them personally as well as to be able to contact their school principals and school districts to obtain permission.

The four volunteers were:

1) Bev[9], a Grade One teacher in Brandon, Manitoba who trained in Reading Recovery in the 2010-2011 school year.
2) Susan, a Grade One/Two teacher in Souris Manitoba who trained in Reading Recovery in the 2011-2012 school year.
3) Nancy, a Grade Two teacher in Brandon, Manitoba who trained in Reading Recovery in the 2009-2010 school year with me as her Teacher Leader
4) Janice[10], a Grade One teacher in Brandon, Manitoba who trained in Reading Recovery in the 2009-2010 school year with me as her Teacher Leader

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[9]The three selected case study teachers, Bev, Susan, and Nancy have agreed and their school districts have given permissions to refer to them by their real name and school
[10] A pseudonym

Looking at the potential case study teachers, I selected Bev and Susan as neither teacher had trained in Reading Recovery with me as their Teacher Leader. I selected Nancy rather than Janice because Nancy taught a grade not already represented by another teacher. As well, Janice was teaching in the same school as one of the other selected teachers.

Both Janice and Nancy had trained in Reading Recovery with me as their Teacher Leader in 2009-2010, and I purposefully did not review any of my records of that training year to avoid biasing my opinion of either. Prior to this study, I had not observed Nancy or Janice in a classroom context, nor did I have an opinion that either was a stronger classroom teacher. In my recollection, both engaged in the training and had success working with children in their training year of Reading Recovery. I was aware that Janice had taken a chair position with the local chapter of the International Reading Association's reading teachers committee, but this fact did not play into my decision.

I initially contacted each selected teacher, then their school principal and division superintendent by email to ask for their participation and acquire permission to undertake this study in the participating teachers' classrooms. I had earlier secured local school divisions' superintendents' permission (in principle) prior to the onset of the study, to support a Board of Ethics application and if it were necessary, to avoid inviting teachers who taught in divisions who were not willing to participate. If one of the three teachers or school divisions were to decline, I would have then invited my fourth volunteer, Janice to participate.

Initial contact was closely followed by surface mail, describing the study as an observation of primary literacy instruction in classrooms of teachers with recent Reading Recovery training, stating my role as an observer, outlining the frequency and duration of classroom visits, and seeking formal acceptance of each teacher, principal, and superintendent.

Once teacher, principal, and superintendent letters were received, an information letter regarding the study for the parents/caregivers of all of the students in the participating classrooms was provided to the teachers for distribution prior to my first classroom visit. The letter explained that while the focus of the study was the teachers, students and/or their work might be sampled or referred to in a non-identifying fashion to add context to the description of the teachers. For two of the classrooms, I arranged for the translation of the parent/caregiver letter into Chinese and Spanish for some homes in Bev and Nancy's classes.

Case study participants: Bev. Bev had been a teacher for 13 years and was currently teaching Grade One at George Fitton, a K-8 urban school in Brandon, Manitoba. The school had 460 students attending the school the year of data collection with mainly single-grade classrooms and a few two-grade multi-age rooms. There were two active .5 FTE Reading Recovery teachers in the school. Five of the teaching staff, including Bev and the principal, were Reading Recovery trained. In addition to Reading Recovery, there was a staffed literacy support program for Early and Middle Years (i.e. Grades Six-Eight) students.

The school population was diverse with 21% of the students described as having English as an additional language (EAL) and 30% of the students whose families identified themselves as Aboriginal. Nearly half of the school children were bussed to school. The school was described in the district as an inner-city school with families predominantly of a low socio-economic status. According to the school principal, attendance was an issue in the school; on average, 8% of the students were absent daily. Transience affected the school as historically 28-29% of the school population left or enrolled in the school partway through a school year.

In this school year, there were students who spoke French, Russian, Ethiopian, Tagalog, Cree, Ukrainian, Spanish, Mandarin, Punjabi and Korean in their homes while attending classes

in English. Because of the high percentage of English language learners in the school, there was an EAL teacher in the school who assisted new EAL students in their transition to the school and provided support for the EAL students' classroom teachers.

During my observations, Bev was teaching Grade One for her ninth year, and had trained in Reading Recovery during the 2011-2012 school year. Bev taught half-time Grade One while she undertook her Reading Recovery training. After her year of training, Bev asked to return to full-time classroom teaching in the 2012-2013 school year. While she felt she profited from Reading Recovery, she reported she did not want to continue splitting her day between teaching Reading Recovery and classroom, preferring to be in a classroom full-time.

Prior to Grade One, Bev had experience teaching in Grade 5, Grade 1, Grade 2, and multi-age Grade 1/2 classrooms. I met Bev in the 2007-2008 as a Grade One classroom teacher when I worked in her school district as a Reading Recovery Teacher Leader. During the 2008-2009 school year, I taught students at George Fitton School Reading Recovery (.25 FTE) as part of my role as Teacher Leader, including students from Bev's classroom. However, Bev trained in Reading Recovery with another Teacher Leader.

Bev had a first-year Education student in a field placement for part of my observation period. During this placement, the pre-service teacher's role was mainly to observe Bev teach and while I was in the class she would assist students during independent work. Bev taught the class for the entire time during my visits and I focused my observation on her.

When I asked Bev about what was involved in her undergraduate training in terms of literacy instruction, she replied "Really for teaching reading, nothing. Sorry, that sounds terrible, but really no" (Initial Interview). She felt that her initial learning in Language Arts instruction occurred when she first took a position as Grade 5 teacher and recalled feeling as though she had

to figure out how to teach reading by herself and through asking colleagues. As a Grade 5 teacher, Bev remembered voluntarily sitting in on a colleague's Reading Recovery lessons as an observer because she wanted to know more about the intervention and how the Reading Recovery teacher worked with children.

Case study participants: Nancy. Nancy had taught for 17 years and was currently teaching Grade Two at Meadows School, a K-8 urban school in Brandon, Manitoba. There were 440 students attending the school that year with three classes of each grade and three multi-age classrooms of Grades 7/8. There were three active Reading Recovery teachers in the school, each working half a day in Reading Recovery. The principal of the school reported she had endeavored over the past years to provide Reading Recovery training to as many of her staff as possible, believing it would have positive influence to the quality of early literacy instruction in the school. That year, seven of the staff including Nancy and the principal, were trained in Reading Recover. In addition to Reading Recovery, there was a literacy support program for Early and Middle Years students that served students from Grade 2 and higher grades.

The school population was diverse with 140 children (31.8%) working in English as an additional language (EAL) and 14 students (10%) whose families identified as Aboriginal. In that year, there were students who were born in 12 countries other than Canada. More than half of the school population was bussed to school. As a result and because of the mixed housing surrounding the school, the entire school population reflected a blended socio-economic status, from very low to very high. The principal reported that attendance and student transience were not major issues, but there were some EAL students who would miss large blocks of the school year when their families took extended trips to visit home countries.

At Meadows, there were students who spoke Gujarati, Tagalog, Japanese, German, Mandarin, Ukrainian, Spanish, Punjabi, Tangalese, Cree, and Ojibway in their homes while attending classes in English. Because of the high percentage of English language learners in the school, there was an EAL teacher in the school who assisted new EAL students in their transition to the school and provided support for the EAL students' classroom teachers.

Nancy was teaching Grade Two for her ninth year, and trained in Reading Recovery during the 2009-2010 school year. Of the three case study teachers, Nancy was the only teacher who trained in Reading Recovery with me working in the role of Teacher Leader. Nancy taught half-time Grade Two while she undertook her Reading Recovery training. She taught Reading Recovery for a year after her training, but returned to full-time classroom teaching in the 2011-2012 school year, when her principal continued her trend to have additional staff members trained. Because of a medical condition, Nancy reduced to half-time this school year. Nancy taught only in the mornings. The majority of her half-day was spent teaching English Language Arts, but after the morning recess she usually had either a period of Social Studies or a period where her students attended Phys. Ed. or Music.

Nancy felt as though there were large gaps in her undergraduate training in literacy instruction. She recalled:

> *I don't remember a lot of instruction in doing guided reading groups. I don't remember a lot of instruction specifically in teaching literacy strategies and things like that. Like, that was a big thing that was missing when I took my training. And I basically did all my training in that kind of stuff after I graduated through workshops and various programs and things. . . . Well they did talk about choosing books for kids. They talked about elements of a literacy program, but not really specifics. It*

was more of a general overview. And I really wished when I got out into the classroom I thought "How come nobody did this other stuff with me?" [laughs] (Initial Interview)

Case study participants: Susan. Susan had been a teacher for 25 years and was currently teaching Grade One/Two at Souris School, a K-12 rural school in Souris, Manitoba. There were 487 students attending the school. That school year, there were two Kindergarten classes, and from Grade 1-5 one single grade and one two-grade multiage classroom (i.e. Grade One, Grade One/Two, Grade Two, Grade Three, Grade Three/Four, Grade Four, Grade Five, Grade Four/Five). Susan was the .33 FTE Reading Recovery teacher for the school. While Susan was the lone Reading Recovery teacher that year, the school's guidance counselor had previously been trained in Reading Recovery. In addition to Reading Recovery, there was a literacy support program for Early Years students in Grade 2 and 3.

The school population was composed of mostly bussed students from surrounding farms. The community's economy was dependent on agriculture in the immediate area. Annually, there were a handful of families who moved to the area to work in the agriculture sector who spoke Tagalog or Spanish at home. However, the principal reported that most of these children came to school with enough proficiency in English so that additional programming was not required. Less than 5% of the school population identified as aboriginal. As well, the principal felt attendance and transience were not significant issues in the school.

Prior to training in Reading Recovery, Susan taught Grade One for 14 years and Kindergarten for 10 years near the beginning of her teaching career. Susan worked in early year's literacy support in the school while she undertook her Reading Recovery training. After the previous year of training, Susan's school assignment was .33 FTE classroom teaching, .33

Reading Recovery, and .33 Literacy Support. In her classroom assignment, Susan taught the Guided Reading component to the school's Grade One/Two classroom.

I met Susan in the 1993-1994 school year when I began my teaching career as a Middle Years teacher at Souris School. Prior to becoming the area's Reading Recovery Teacher Leader, I taught Grades 2 and 3, Music, Reading Recovery, French, and Resource at Souris, with Susan as a colleague when she taught Kindergarten and later, Grade One. As a Teacher Leader, I trained another Souris teacher in Reading Recovery, who taught students from Susan's classroom. Susan, however, trained in Reading Recovery with a different Teacher Leader in the 2011-2012 school year.

For part of the observation period, Susan was co-hosting a pre-service teacher with the teacher who taught the rest of the day to the Grade One/Two class. When I visited the pre-service teacher mainly observed Susan teaching the whole class and assisted students when they worked independently at their centres. Towards the end of April, the pre-service teacher was taking some guided reading groups, but on the days of my visits, Susan taught all of the guided reading groups and the whole class activities as per her usual routine.

As an undergraduate, Susan specialized in early childhood education with a physical education and movement focus. She did not recall taking any courses on literacy instruction as part of that degree. After teaching Kindergarten and then Grade One for several years, Susan felt confident teaching guided reading:

> *What was challenging? Well, in all honesty, I didn't find anything challenging because you know, when you do something for a lot of years, I never – you're just not aware that there's a better way to do it, you know. So you're kind of going – and I'm not saying that what I was doing wasn't good, it's just I feel like I*

understand how kids learn to read more in-depth now [post Reading Recovery training] than I did before. (Initial Interview)

Data collection. In this phase of the study I collected direct observations of the participating teachers in their classrooms, semi-structured interviews, and some photos of the classrooms to assist me in mapping each teacher's classroom (see Appendix F).

I implemented direct observation of the participants (Yin, 2009) to record the participants' behaviour and discourse with their students while delivering literacy instruction. From March – May 2013 weekly observations were conducted in each classroom during each teacher's literacy instruction block. The weekly observations were scheduled different days of the week but were almost always first thing in the school day, as all three teachers requested I come at that time when they had scheduled to teach Language Arts. If a teacher was working in a different subject area during my visit (e.g., Social Studies, Science) I planned to continue my observation and note any occurrences of Reading Recovery-like behaviours or discourse. For example, in Nancy's classroom, she regularly began her morning with a calendar-based activity that focused on numeracy skills before moving into her scheduled Language Arts time.

On rare occasions, I was unable to make my regular visit at the scheduled time (e.g., teacher was ill, teacher away at a funeral). In those cases, I scheduled an additional visit the next week. I was successful in finding times for make-up observations in all instances but one.

As a visitor to the classrooms, I mainly sat in a chair at the back of the classroom for most of the time. I only moved when the teacher moved to an area of a room where I could not see or hear her from the back of the class, in which case I moved myself as close as needed to observe. During small group instruction, such as guided reading, I placed myself on the perimeter of the group so that I could clearly see and hear the children, the materials, and the teachers' responses.

During my observations, I recorded field notes (Schensul, Schensul, and LeCompte, 1999) to chronologically capture the events of each classroom observation session and to record instances of observable Reading Recovery-like teacher actions or language and the context in which they occurred. During observations, I recorded as much of the classroom activity as possible, as I was not certain where or when I would find evidence of transferable teaching procedures and teacher language from Reading Recovery training.

If a student approached me in the classroom, I reminded them that my role was that of an observer and redirected them to the classroom activity. A small number of times, students asked what I was doing or writing. I replied that I was working.

I had planned that should one of the participating teachers ask me my opinion of a classroom activity, I would remind her of my role as an observer and defer responding to those types of questions until after the completion of the data collection. During the observation period, none of the teachers asked me to assess their teaching directly.

I also audiotaped the observations using my laptop computer. These tapings would not be transcribed in their entirety, but used as a means to follow up each classroom observation to confirm or add to my field notes. Often, I could not write down the entire conversations that occurred between the teacher and students during my field visits, so I relied on the recordings to transcribe relevant exchanges.

I had planned to use the first one or two (or more if needed) of the weekly visits as a period of acclimatization rather than data collection. During these first visits, I positioned myself in the classroom and recorded the events as I would throughout the remainder of the visits. My main goal during these initial visits was to provide the three case study participants and their students time to get used to my presence in the room and my writing down notes during their classroom

activities. As well, I was able to rehearse my taking of field notes as well as learn the regular activities that took place in each classroom. None of the teachers seemed uncomfortable with my presence, nor did any teacher's behaviour seem to change significantly over the visits.

Throughout the school visits, I interviewed teachers using Seidman's (2006) framework of structured interviews. Depending on the phases, the interviews were either conducted before or immediately following the classroom observation. All of the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

I also took some photographs of each teacher's classroom when the students were not in the room. I used the photos to map each classroom (Appendix F) and to capture how the teachers had organized their classrooms and what was on display on the classroom walls.

Reciprocity. As a means of thanking the case study participants, I agreed to provide each teacher with a $250 gift card for Scholastic Books (a children's and teachers' book club common in Canadian schools), whether they completed the case study or not. Each of the case study participants received their gift cards at their final classroom visit.

Data management. After each observation session, I revisited my recording of the observation and using my written field notes completed edited field notes as a Microsoft Word document. These notes were not to analyze or interpret, but rather to record, as accurately I could, a record of the day's events and the discourse that I had observed in each classroom visit.

The recordings of all of the interviews were transcribed and also saved as Microsoft Word documents. Interviews and classroom files were dated as part of their file name and were all saved on my password-protected desktop computer. When all of the field notes and interview transcriptions were complete, they were also uploaded into the ATLAS.ti bundle that I had previously created, alongside the survey responses.

Analysis. Similar to my coding of the survey responses, I examined each of the field notes and interview transcriptions, looking for examples of observable behaviours (teaching procedures or discourse) that resembled Reading Recovery, or a teacher's reference to a procedure, language, knowledge, or belief that she attributed to her Reading Recovery training. I coded each of these incidents using the framework I had applied to the coding of the survey responses, along six dimensions: classroom activity, data source, group, mode, Reading Recovery concept/principle, and Reading Recovery transfer.

I created new codes to distinguish between observations of each teacher by adding the teacher's first initial after the code (e.g., DS: Observation(B) refers to a classroom observation in Bev's room). I similarly added additional codes to distinguish the follow-up interviews by teacher.

For the classroom observation analysis, I added an additional code [MOD: Yes], which I applied to cases where it appeared that the teacher was using a Reading Recovery-like procedure or language, but had modified it someway to fit the classroom context. Later, I could return to re-examine the modified procedures and consider how and when teachers were transforming some Reading Recovery concepts versus those that they transferred intact. I continued to use the codes that were drawn from the survey responses and remained open to adding additional codes as needed as I worked through the case study data.

As I examined the codes across the documents for one teacher, I wanted to construct a profile for each reflecting how Reading Recovery training had specifically influenced each of Bev, Nancy, and Susan's classroom practices. While I could comment on the procedures I had observed them use or Reading Recovery-like language I had heard them use with their students, I also wanted to consider their responses to the follow-up interviews to gain a sense of how they

felt Reading Recovery training had influenced their beliefs and knowledge towards literacy instruction.

I took an aggregation approach to the analysis of the case study data as well. LeCompte and Schensul (1999a) recommend that patterns in data can emerge via declaration, frequency, omission, similarity, co-occurrence, corroboration, sequence, or *a priori* hypothesizing with factors in the data. For each case study participant, I first constructed listings of all of the observed procedures and language that appeared similar to those used in Reading Recovery. In each case, I wanted to build a sense of how and when they used Reading Recovery procedures (i.e. during which classroom activities; during reading or writing; with their whole class, small groups, or individual students).

However, some of the Reading Recovery-like teaching procedures may have been already incorporated in classroom teachers' practice prior to training in Reading Recovery. For this reason, I also looked to the follow-up interviews for teachers' reports as to the source of classroom literacy procedures that resemble Reading Recovery's. Additionally, as individual cases, I recognized each participant would differ in their level of mastery of Reading Recovery procedures while working in Reading Recovery. I anticipated that the teachers could also vary in how they modified different Reading Recovery procedures or incorporated them differently within varying activities (e.g., a teacher read-aloud[11] versus guided reading) in their classroom. A descriptive approach is appropriate in this case, as I would be approaching the research questions considering the case teachers' context and acknowledging their individual means of transferring aspects of Reading Recovery training to their classroom.

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[11] The teachers reads a texts to the students

For language, I judged it impractical to question the case study participants about every single prompt that could have stemmed from Reading Recovery (e.g., I heard you say "X" – did that come from Reading Recovery?). I believe the teachers would be able to speak about changes in their prompting in more general terms and might recall a few prompts that were new to them, but it did not seem plausible that teachers would recall specific shifts in their language for every prompt they used.

I followed Gable's (1994) line of thought towards the compatibility of survey and case study methods in that, for these three teachers, I wanted to explore if the facets of Reading Recovery that they reported they transferred in their surveys could be observed in their classrooms. Prior to going to their classrooms, I avoided looking at the three case study teachers' survey responses so as not to bias my observations of their classroom instruction. As I began my analysis, I made a listing of observable procedures and language that each teacher mentioned in their survey response. I also listed the beliefs and knowledge that they stated had shifted in their surveys, to explore if any of the teachers commented further on those shifts or added to their description of their import of Reading Recovery to the classroom.

To consider Reading Recovery influences on each of the case study teachers' knowledge and beliefs, I reviewed each teacher's survey responses and the data from their classroom and interviews that I had coded within each of those domains. After compiling all of these comments and sorting them according to Reading Recovery concepts/principles, I examined the frequency of their mention or importance that each teacher assigned to different concepts when constructing my profile of a teacher.

Cross-case analysis. Finally, I wanted to examine the data across the three teachers. For the observable procedures, I aggregated the findings between cases to explore commonality

among the three case study teachers' adoption of Reading Recovery procedures to their classrooms. I compared all three teachers' adoption of Reading Recovery procedures into their classroom practice. Because my observations of the teachers were opportunistic, some procedures may have been observed in some cases but not others, depending upon the activities the teacher had chosen on the days of my visits. Bearing in mind the nature of how I collected data, I wished to explore similarities and differences among the three case study participants.

To explore commonalities in the language that the three case study teachers appropriated from Reading Recovery, I looked across the three cases for similar-sounding prompts. I compared prompts used by two or all three of the case study teachers to the prompts suggested by Clay (2005b) in the Reading Recovery training. I also examined each teacher's discussion of if and how they felt Reading Recovery had any impact on how they spoke to their students when teaching reading and writing looking for any common themes between two or more of the teachers.

To compare shifts in knowledge and beliefs that the three case study teachers reported, I employed Stake's (2006) suggested methodology of cross-case data analysis I determined if there was commonality of themes amidst the three case study teachers. As I examined the teachers' responses to if and how they felt their knowledge or beliefs about literacy instruction had shifted, I looked at how often a teacher mentioned a particular theme or if they made a statement that something they felt they had taken up from Reading Recovery training was "key" or "important" to their classroom literacy instruction.

Reliability and validity. Stake (1995) suggested the use of *member checking* as means to triangulate data. In this procedure the participants are:

> requested to examine rough drafts of writing where the actions or words of the actor are featured, sometimes when first written up but usually when no further data will

> be collected rom him or her. The actor is asked to review the material for accuracy and palatability. The actor may be encouraged to provide alternative language or interpretation but is not promised that that version will appear in the final report. Regularly, some of that feedback is worthy of inclusion. (p. 115)

To check the reliability of my case study findings, I sent each case study participant a draft of their case study with the instruction to inform me "if they felt I had written an accurate representation of them teaching English Language Arts in their classrooms" and that I was open to rewording or editing their case study as they felt would result in a truer reflection of each teacher. In all three cases, the participants responded stating they agreed with my recount of my observations and did not request that I make any changes to their chapter.

When making interpretations from collected data, triangulation is required to preserve the validity of those inferences. Two recommended protocols for increasing the validity of case study research apply to this study: data source triangulation and methodological triangulation (Stake, 1995).

Through data source triangulation, I will examine if phenomena remain the same in different times and spaces. For example, if I interpret a teacher has placed great importance of developing her students' independence, does this hold true for more than one student, in reading, in writing?

Methodological triangulation examines data from different methods to confirm or reject interpretational hypothesis. In this study, data from the surveys, classroom observations, and interviews can be triangulated to support my analysis. For example, for each case study, I compared what teachers reported in their surveys to what was actually observed in their classrooms.

I was also careful in my selection of participants so as not to undermine the validity of the case studies. Up to the point where I had to contact the volunteer teachers, I did not know their name or school from their survey responses. Once I had a choice among the four volunteers, I selected two teachers, Bev and Susan, whom I had not trained myself in Reading Recovery. It was my preference to select as many teachers as possible that I had not trained, as I would not have knowledge of their experience during the Reading Recovery training year. While I had previously met and worked in the same schools as both Susan and Bev, I had not observed either teaching. While it would have been preferable to observe teachers whom I had not met, the reality of my work experience as Teacher Leader in a small-urban and rural setting where Reading Recovery was widely implemented was that I was introduced to many of the primary teachers in schools where I was supporting Reading Recovery teachers as Teacher Leader.

The third teacher, Nancy, I had trained, so I had to weigh selecting her against another teacher I had trained the same year who taught in the same school as one of the other selected teachers. Having an equal impression of them from the training year, I felt Nancy was a stronger choice for the validity of the study, because she taught a different grade and in a different school than the other two participants.

Cross-method analysis. Following Gable's (1994) description of the compatibility of survey and case study methods, each method added its own type of descriptive answer to my research question. As previously described, as part of the case study for each teacher, I compared their survey responses to what was observed in their classrooms. I wished to gather a sense, for these three cases, how closely what the case study teachers reported in their survey responses they appropriated from Reading Recovery actually matched to what they did and said in their daily practice.

I then compared the survey results with the three case studies to determine if there were commonalities between the two data sets. Also, I examined if and how each method contributed additional facets to consider in the light of my questions.

By the nature of its design and the larger number of participants, I viewed the findings of the surveys as more generalizable. I looked to my comparison of the surveys with case studies to see if the general findings from the survey participants held to what I observed in the case study teachers' classrooms. As well, the case studies, because of their longer time span and more intensive observation, afforded more discoverability. I verified if additional findings were present in the three case studies beyond those commonly brought up in the surveys. If the case study teachers differed from the general findings, I wanted to explore how each teacher had personalized their transferal of Reading Recovery learning.

Finally, I compared the common findings from both the survey and cross-case analysis to the research-based characteristics of exemplary primary literacy teachers (EPLTs; see Chapter 4). I looked for themes within the participants' transferal of Reading Recovery learning that matched up to qualities that were commonly found in recent researchers' descriptions of EPLTs. By comparing my findings with the recent research describing EPLTs, I wished to compare the participants' reports of Reading Recovery's influences to research describing EPLTs.

Safeguards Against Researcher Bias

From my personal experience working in Reading Recovery, I have placed value on the knowledge and skills I gained and respect for its model of apprenticeship training. My experience has led to my forming a hypothesis that Reading Recovery training carries positive effects for classroom literacy teachers. Of course, this positive valuing of Reading Recovery training must be acknowledged as a bias I hold. To guard against this bias influencing me throughout this

study, I have taken the following measures in addition to the reliability and validity measures explained earlier in this chapter:

- Reviewing research that both advocates and critiques Reading Recovery
- Not indicating my history as a Teacher Leader to the survey participants and extending my selection pool beyond the region of Manitoba where I was known in Reading Recovery roles
- Maintaining the anonymity of the survey participants, including their schools and districts
- Providing evenly scaled Likert-type survey questions that allowed survey participants to agree, disagree, or express uncertainty towards the influence of Reading Recovery to their classroom literacy practices
- Asking survey participants who reported Reading Recovery had influenced them in some way to provide examples
- Asking survey and case study teachers about additional sources beyond Reading Recovery that have informed their classroom instruction
- Recording as many events and discourse from the case study observation as possible, including those that did not appear to reflect Reading Recovery
- Selecting, as much as possible, case study participants whom I had not trained or worked with as Continuing Contact Reading Recovery teachers
- Selecting case study participants, as much as possible, from different schools and school districts
- Including interviews to the case study data collection so that I could ask the case study participants if observed Reading Recovery-like procedures and language were, in their opinion, brought about by the Reading Recovery training or by something else

- During interviews, being cautious to take the role of listener and not assume or supply answers that would be typical in a Reading Recovery setting
- During observations of classrooms, not providing feedback to the survey participants, even if requested
- Being cognizant of my role as a researcher and observing, analyzing, and discussing my findings with a neutral voice

Chapter 6: Results: Survey

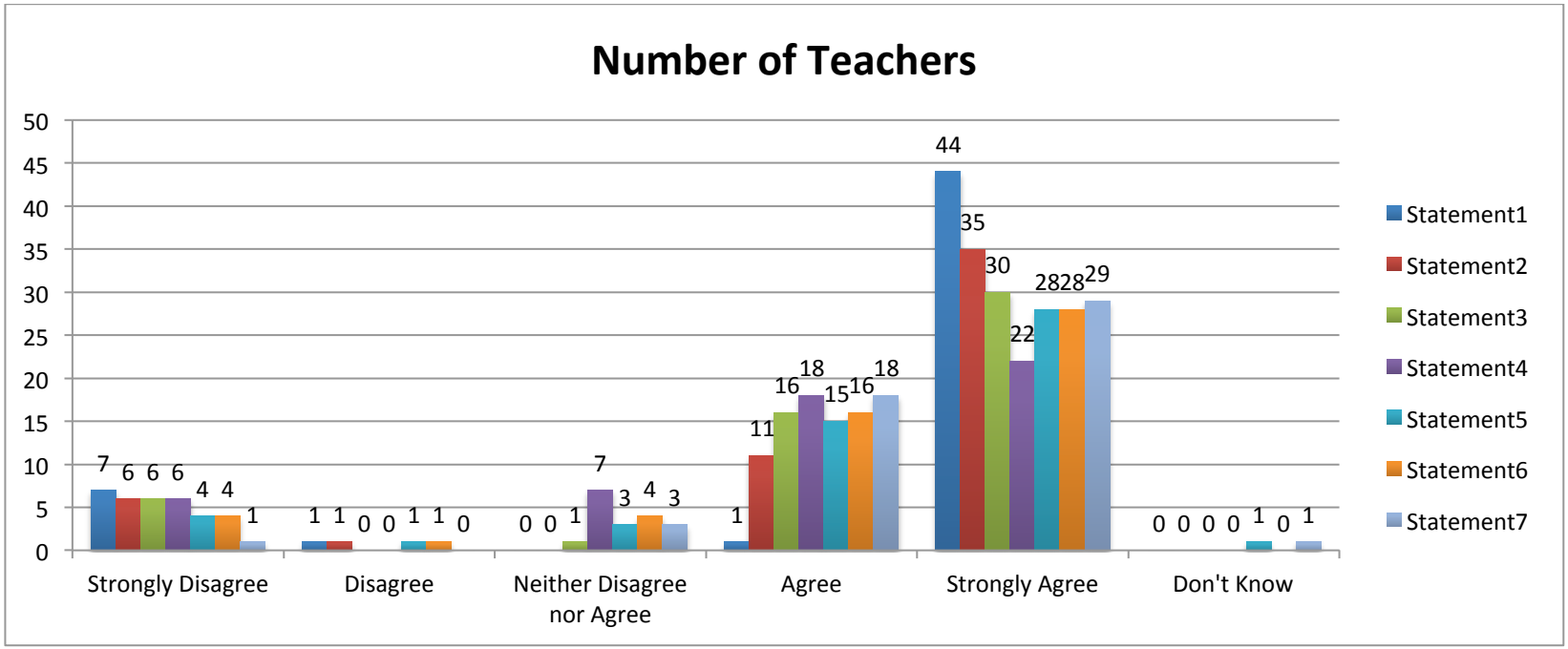
Responses to Likert-Scale Questions

The participants were asked to respond to eight Likert-scale type questions. Seven questions asked the teachers their level of agreement to statements exploring their perception of impact Reading Recovery training held to their classroom practice and one question asked teachers to reflect on the frequency of their use of Reading Recovery-like language in the classroom. The following presents the responses to those questions.

Participants' rating of the classroom utility of Reading Recovery training. In each of the Likert-scale questions that explored teachers' level of agreement, the majority of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that since Reading Recovery training, they had changed aspects of their classroom literacy instruction. Additionally, when asked post-Reading Recovery training if they felt their effectiveness as Reading Recovery teachers had changed, most of the teachers, regardless of their grade, felt that their effectiveness had changed (see Appendix E, Figure E1). When asked in the following open-ended question how their effectiveness had changed, all of the respondents responded that Reading Recovery training, in their opinion, had increased their effectiveness as a Reading Recovery teacher. (e.g., "My students are far more successful in reading and writing than they were before I was trained." [Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba]).

To each of the Likert-scale questions, there were a small number of teachers who disagreed or strongly disagreed that the Reading Recovery training had changed their classroom practice (Figure 6.1). To better understand the rationale behind each outlier's disagreement with

Figure 6.1. Summary of Responses to Likert-Scale Agreement Statements in Survey



The eight Likert-scale statements posed to the teachers were:
1. How much do you agree with this statement? Reading Recovery training added to my understanding of how children learn to read.
2. How much do you agree with this statement? Reading Recovery training added to my understanding of how children learn to write.
3. How much do you agree with this statement? I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in reading.
4. How much do you agree with this statement? I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in writing.
5. How much do you agree with this statement? I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I assess children's literacy development differently.
6. How much do you agree with this statement? I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery my perception of children who are learning to read and write has changed.
7. How much do you agree with this statement? I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, my effectiveness as a classroom literacy teacher has changed.

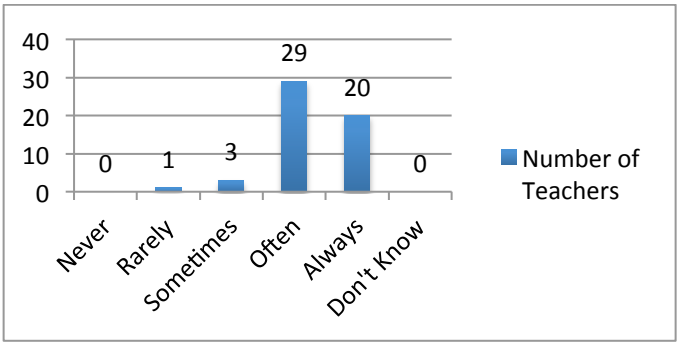
the Likert-scale statements, I examined the rest of their survey responses. Most of the outliers consistently responded with the same level of disagreement throughout all of the Likert-scale questions that explored change. As a result, they were moved past the subsequent open-ended questions that asked them to provide examples of how they had changed.

To explore if there were different patterns of responses amidst sub-groups in the participants, I cross-referenced individual demographic factors (province, region, training year, and grade) with the responses to each of the seven Likert-scale questions (see Appendix D, Table D3). Cross-referencing the Likert-scale responses with demographic factors (i.e. province, region, training year, and grades taught by participants) revealed a consistent pattern of response between most sub-groups and the entire group. The three sub-groups that varied the most from the whole group response were small in number (i.e. New Brunswick: N=3; Northern: N=3; Teachers who taught Grades Three and higher: N=9). In these sub-groups the small number of teachers in the sub-groups (particularly the New Brunswick and Northern sub-groups) meant that single responses made up a third of the total group. The sub-group consisting of teachers who taught Grade Three or higher showed slightly less agreement with all of the Likert-scale questions than the entire group of participants. Participants from the province of Alberta tended to have a slighter higher rate of agreement with the Likert-scale questions than the whole sample, but their open-ended responses did not vary greatly from the rest of the participants'.

In Figure 6.2, the only Likert-scale question that examined frequency, the majority of teachers responded that they used Reading Recovery-based language often or always. Later, in the open-ended questions, it was revealed that the majority of the language they reported using

was Reading Recovery-like prompts used to guide readers (see forthcoming sections in this chapter).

Figure 6.2. Summary of Responses to Statement, "How often do you notice yourself using 'Reading Recovery' language in the classroom?" from Survey



Responses to Open-Ended Questions

When teachers agreed or strongly agreed to one of the Likert-scale questions, they were asked in a follow-up, open-ended question to provide examples illustrating when or how Reading Recovery training influenced their classroom practice. For example, in Questions 10 and 11 in the survey instrument (Appendix B), teachers were asked about their classroom practices in reading:

> 32. How much do you agree with this statement?
>
> *I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in reading.*
>
> a. Strongly disagree
> b. Disagree
> c. Neither disagree nor agree
> d. Agree
> e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

[If participant responds Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, or Don't know they are moved past Question 33 to Question 34]

33. Could you give examples of how your classroom reading instruction has changed since you trained in Reading Recovery?

The responses to open-ended questions, such as Question 11,were coded along six dimensions: classroom activity, data source, group, mode, Reading Recovery concept/principle, and Reading Recovery transfer. From all of the survey responses, 1,312 examples were coded. A summary and analysis of those responses follows.

Classroom activities reported to be influenced by Reading Recovery. The teachers reported Reading Recovery training influencing their teaching in a classroom context in 23 different coded classroom activities (Table 6.1). Most commonly, the teachers reported drawing on some aspect of their Reading Recovery training when they were teaching guided reading. When teachers were reflecting on their own practice or their identity as teachers, they often referred to Reading Recovery's effect. As well, it was often reported that the teachers had adjusted some aspect their guided writing[12], individual assessment, and explicit instruction.

Reading Recovery application within various classroom groupings. In this study, I wanted to explore if principles and practices of Reading Recovery, which is delivered in a one-teacher-one-student format, had application in the context of a classroom, or if it could be modulated for use in group or whole class contexts. For each survey response that seemed to indicate a Reading Recovery transfer, I coded the number of students that a teacher was working

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[12]The teacher coaches students as they write and revise text with the intent of supporting and improving their skills as they write. The content of the lesson is often set by the students' ideas and responses.

with. In different cases it was implied that a teacher was working with the entire class, a small group (e.g., When I teach guided reading), or they specified when they were working with one or two children. A summary of the grouping is presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.1

Types of Reported Classroom Activities (Frequency of Response)

Classroom Activities (Frequency of Response)		
Composing own writing (2)	Individual assessment (135)	Teacher assigned reading (7)
Demonstration (26)	Literacy centres (11)	Teacher read-aloud (14)
Discussion (4)	Planning (19)	Teacher/student conference (16)
Explicit instruction (48)	Reader's theatre (1)	Word Work (21)
Guided reading (397)	Reflecting (322)	Work at desk (2)
Guided writing (134)	Self-selected reading (4)	Writer's Workshop (5)
Home reading (6)	Shared reading (24)	Unspecified (76)
Independent writing (18)	Shared writing (22)	

Table 6.2

Varying Group Size in Classroom Reading Recovery Transfer

Group Size	Number of Responses
One	210
Small group	103
Two	4
Whole class	994
Unspecified	11

Finding examples of whole class, individual, and small group transfers, I looked at co-occurrences within the survey responses to understand how the teachers were grouping students as they applied Reading Recovery concepts/principles in reading versus writing. As well, I wanted to explore what had changed for teachers in various group settings: their beliefs, knowledge, language, or procedures (see Appendix E, Figure E2). For both the modality (i.e. reading, writing, or both) and the teacher's attribute (i.e. belief, knowledge, language, or procedure), it was most frequently reported that facets of Reading Recovery were transferred into a whole class context.

The survey participants reported that Reading Recovery training had mostly influenced their whole class instruction (and to a lesser degree, their work with small groups) in both reading and writing. The teachers reported incorporating Reading Recovery into shared and demonstration reading and writing when working with their whole classes. For example, a Kindergarten teacher from urban British Columbia described how she demonstrated self-monitoring to her whole class, "when reading a story, I may make a mistake and ask if that makes sense." In whole-class shared writing[13]another teacher explained, "We practice saying words slowly, and I use the term sound boxes" (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba).

As well, they reported more observable changes to the procedures and language they used when teaching their whole class. Among the examples, a teacher described how she had come to teach to opportunities that arose from the texts they were using. "My focus is on using the text/story to build those skills instead of teaching the skills in isolation" (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba). Another teacher described changes to her whole-class writing:

> *My writing has changed mostly in the way of connecting writing to their reading[14]. I have many more strategies through the training that I implement with all of my students in the classroom. Sound and letter boxes are great! Clapping the word into syllables works well. Saying the word slowly and modeling the correct way to say a word. These are all classroom strategies that can be used as a whole group and, during conferences, individual strategies are used with specific students. Scaffolding the amount of support needed is also something I am always aware of when working in the classroom.* (Kindergarten/Grade One teacher, rural Manitoba)

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[13] The teacher writes a text with students

[14] An example of this would be having the students write a response to a text they have read

This same teacher went as far as to incorporate Reading Recovery as part of the experience she shared with undergraduate teachers in training by inviting the pre-service teachers to come watch her during the time of day she was out of the classroom teaching Reading Recovery: "I have in the last 2 years had my pre-service teachers observe my Reading Recovery lessons and then use the strategies in the classroom."

Reading Recovery's reported influences to reading versus writing instruction. The survey responses were also analyzed according to the type of literacy activity the class was involved in when the teachers reported incidents of transfer. The modalities that were coded included reading, writing, reading/writing, and unspecified (Table 6.3). Most frequently, the teachers reported Reading Recovery training influenced their classroom practice when they were reading or doing a reading and writing activity with their classes.

Table 6.3

Modalities of Reading Recovery-Influenced Literacy Instruction Reported in Survey Responses

Modality	Number of Responses
Reading	724
Writing	235
Reading/writing	337
Unspecified	21

I also investigated how, according the participants, Reading Recovery influenced their reading and writing instruction by my attributes of learning (i.e. beliefs, knowledge, language, procedures) (see Appendix E, Figure E3). During reading instruction, the teachers reported shifts in all four attributes, but most commonly in language and procedure. In the survey instrument, one of the questions asked the teachers to provide examples of "Reading Recovery-like" language that they were using in the classrooms. The majority of the survey respondents provided several examples of different prompts that they would use when reading with children.

The teachers reported that the classroom procedures they used in writing were also influenced post-training. Most commonly, the teachers described using the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure to assist students' attempts to spell words in the classroom context.

When the teachers spoke about reading and writing activities, they commonly mentioned a new or heavier emphasis on the importance of linking reading and writing in their classrooms:

> *The strong connection between reading and writing instruction. The connection between reading and writing is essential. When I first started teaching I concentrated on reading, quite honestly I didn't really emphasize writing until after Christmas when I thought the children had enough reading skills and letter knowledge that they could independently write.* (Grade Two teacher, urban Manitoba)

Looking across the survey responses in different modalities of literacy instruction, it seems as though the impacts felt by teachers was not as simple as shifts in procedures or language – that is, it was not merely a "do-this" or "say-that" approach. While the teachers provided many examples of transferable procedures and language, they also described supporting knowledge and shifts in belief as parts of the influences of Reading Recovery training.

Reading Recovery-influenced dimensions of teachers' learning. As described earlier (see Figure 1.1), I wanted to unpack the transfer of Reading Recovery training in classroom settings by looking at this transfer along four dimensions: beliefs, knowledge, language, and procedures. For each coded incident, I included a code titled "Reading Recovery Transfer" which I coded amongst the four listed possibilities, deciding in each incident to which dimension the teacher was referring. A guiding question for me during the coding process was, "What changed for the teacher? Her belief, her knowledge, her language, or her procedure?"

Table D3 (see Appendix D) lists all of the codes used for the survey responses and the frequency of their co-occurrences within the domains of Reading Recovery Transfer (belief, knowledge, language, or procedure). A simple count of the Reading Recovery Transfer codes indicated: belief-139, knowledge-260, language-450, and procedure-470. However, it more interesting as I analyzed other codes to look for cross-occurrences between Reading Recovery Transfer and other codes to better understand what specifically had shifted or been transported to classrooms in terms of teachers' beliefs, knowledge, language, and procedures.

Within the survey responses, the teachers reported 80 different Reading Recovery concepts that they transferred to their classroom literacy instruction. Within each of the dimensions of transfer, there were some concepts that were reported more commonly.

Commonly reported influences to participants' procedures. The teachers who completed surveys reported Reading Recovery-influences to classroom procedures most frequently (N=470). In their examples, they regularly discussed 18 procedures (Table 6.4) that they incorporated into their classrooms when asked if and how Reading Recovery had influenced their classroom practice.

Table 6.4

Commonly Reported Reading Recovery-Influenced Procedures

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)	I have many more strategies through the training that I implement with all of my students in the classroom. (K-One teacher, rural Manitoba) I follow the teaching model of Reading Recovery when I take small groups for guided reading as well. (Grade Two, urban British Columbia)
Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure	When I model writing, I think out loud to show the various strategies such as clapping syllables and pushing sounds in boxes. (Kindergarten, rural New Brunswick) Rather than give them the spelling, I encourage hearing and recording sounds in sequence much more than in the past. (Grade One, urban British Columbia)
Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability	I spend more time working on strategies. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba) I focus on strategies they are using, not necessarily the level of the text. (Grade two

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
	teacher, urban Manitoba)
Designing individual instruction	I now do small-group instruction based on strategy needs as opposed to leveled groups. I also look for opportunities to read more frequently with those students requiring additional help. (Grade Two, urban Alberta) I noticed that not all children learn to read the same way. I have to change things around for the struggling readers. (K-Four teacher, rural Manitoba)
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	I use running records as tools to guide my instruction. I can see where each child is at and what strategies they are led by. I use this info to choose prompts. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba) I DO something with my running records. I don't just use them for a report card mark. I use them to determine what to teach next to an individual student. (Grade One, Northern British Columbia)
Fostering learner's independence	I scaffold each child as much as possible toward increased independent problem-solving. (Grade One teacher, urban British Columbia) I gear my reading lessons toward developing strategic activity and independent problem-solving. (Grade One teacher, urban British Columbia)
Providing large number of experiences with text	Making sure we do writing every day. (Kindergarten teacher, urban Manitoba) More guided reading, more reading overall. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba)
Early teaching of concepts of print	I teach all of the pre-reading skills much more explicitly such as what is a letter/word/number, left to right, return sweep, etc. (Kindergarten teacher, urban British Columbia) I stressed the importance of the early reading behaviours and directionality throughout all lessons. (Grade One/Two teacher, Northern British Columbia)
Practicing a word so that it is added to known vocabulary	We write sight words until we know them. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba) Learn to only read high frequency words but to write high frequency words such as "can", "like", etc. (Kindergarten teacher, urban Alberta)
Taking a running record of children's reading	I take running records more frequently to monitor growth and determine what kind of instruct each student needs. (Grade Two teacher, urban Manitoba) I notice that I take running records more frequently. (Grade Two/Three teacher, rural British Columbia)
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	Include a writing part to the guided reading lessons now to make connections between the two. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba) I incorporate reading, word work, and writing in all my guided reading lessons. (Grade One teacher, urban British Columbia)
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	Morning messages - how we make our reading sound with different punctuation. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba) I insist on having kids read more fluently before moving them up. (Kindergarten teacher, urban Alberta)
Solving words through analogy to known words	I find myself using a lot of analogy for helping students learn to write unfamiliar words. (Grade Two teacher, urban Alberta)

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
	We work with words we know to write new words as a class, in smaller guided reading groups, and with individual students. (Grade One teacher, urban Alberta)
Selecting texts based on children's instructional need and knowledge	I take more time choosing appropriate books for students. (K-One teacher, rural Manitoba) My training has really made me choose books that meet the needs of my students. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural British Columbia)
Analyzing a running record	My focus used to be on accuracy rate. I did not spend much time analyzing running records to see what information was being used or neglected. (K-Two teacher, rural New Brunswick) I also used to look for just the level on a PM Benchmark to record a reading grade and now I notice more about strategies and processes and the child's attempt to make meaning and that's what I report on. (Grade Two teacher, urban Manitoba)
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	If the child needs a larger piece of paper, then allow the child to use a larger piece of paper! (Kindergarten, urban British Columbia) I am much more clear and concise about what I want students to focus on during whole group teaching, and I look for immediate feedback to assess their understanding. (Grade Two teacher, urban Manitoba)
Orienting children to a new story before reading	I spend more time building a background and language prior to reading a story. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba) Do an into book talk/picture walk when we look at a new story, look at the structure of language that is new for a Grade 1 student. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba)

While many of these procedures could be based in other professional learning, the participants brought these procedures forward when asked to specify what influences Reading Recovery had on their classroom practices. In some cases, the participants mention how they had modified procedures or in other cases, new procedures that they imported from Reading Recovery to their classroom. One teacher described how, as a result of her Reading Recovery experience, she was more purposeful in her selection of activities:

> *Efficiency and urgency are necessary in Reading Recovery given the limited amount of time you have with these students. This urgency has come with me into the classroom. The activities we do are purposeful, since we cannot waste time with activities that are not directly supporting our literacy goals.* (Grade One teacher, urban Alberta)

Another teacher's comments suggested that while she felt the Reading Recovery training had made her a more effective teacher, she had difficulty incorporating those principles into a classroom setting.

> *I wanted to add that as much as Reading Recovery has enhanced my classroom instruction it has also created a great amount of anxiety and stress in me as a teacher. It doesn't matter how much Reading Recovery "talk" I use or what strategy I've carried over, I am in constant reminder that I can only accomplish a fraction of what I could as a Reading Recovery teacher. It is a perpetual reminder that I have the tools to get my students there, but not the time. It's defeating.* (Kindergarten teacher, urban Alberta)

Commonly reported influences to participants' language. Different language participants used when teaching reading and writing was the second most reported influence of Reading Recovery training in the survey data. Of the 450 coded examples of Reading Recovery-like language that teachers reported using in their classrooms, 12 categories of prompts (i.e. prompts that encourage children to undertake specific action in reading or writing) were most common (Table 6.5). In the survey instrument, teachers who reported that they noticed using Reading Recovery-like language in their classroom instruction where asked to provide specific examples. Most of their examples seem to be prompts teachers would offer during reading instruction.

Table 6.5

Commonly Reported Reading Recovery Language Used in Classrooms

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
Using prompts from Reading Recovery	I use many of the Reading Recovery prompts during guided reading time. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba) I use specific language when modeling reading and writing strategies. (Grade Two teacher, urban Manitoba)
Calling for a search of visual	*What do you see that you know?*

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
information to solve a word	*What's the first sound?* *Look at the rest of the letters.* *What can you see that would help you?* (Various teachers)
Calling for a search of visual information to check a word	*Does that look right?* *What would you expect to see?* *Can you do a slow check of that word?* *Does it look like "went"?* (Various teachers)
Fostering self-monitoring	*Were you right?* *Was that OK?* *Where is the tricky part?* (Various teachers)
Using the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure	*Say it slowly.* *What sound do you hear?* *Push up the sounds into the boxes.* *Write what you hear.* (Various teachers)
Fostering self-correction	*Try that again.* *You made a mistake, check that again.* *Try that again and make it look right.* *Try that again and think about what would make sense.* (Various teachers)
Calling for a search of meaning to check a word	*Does that make sense?* *You said…does that make sense?* (Various teachers)
Fostering learner's independence	*You try.* *You did some good thinking here.* *What do you think?* *What can you try?* (Various teachers)
Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word	*Does that sound right?* *Can we say it that way?* *You read…do we way it that way?* (Various teachers)
Fostering cross-checking of information	*What would make sense and look right?* *It could be that but…* *Are you seeing what you are hearing?* (Various teachers)
Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word	*Look at the picture.* *What would make sense?* *What is the story about?* (Various teachers)
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	*Read it so that it sounds like talking.* *How did that sound?* *Put it all together.* (Various teachers)

Commonly reported influences to participants' knowledge. While the participants most frequently reported shifts to their procedures and language, they also discussed how Reading Recovery training shifted, or in some cases, developed their knowledge of children's literacy development. From the 260 mentions of Reading Recovery's influence to teachers' knowledge, nine themes appeared the most frequently (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6

Commonly Reported Reading Recovery Influences to Teachers' Knowledge

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	I have a better understanding of how the reading process works and how a child learns to read. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba) I feel I now have knowledge and a foundation that I can confidently draw on to help me instruct reading and guide new and struggling readers that I didn't have before Reading Recovery. (Kindergarten teacher, urban British Columbia)
Designing individual instruction	Knowing when and where to give help to my struggling students as well as push my capable students forward (Grade One/Two teacher, urban British Columbia) Each student learns in their own way and as a teacher I have to draw on the experiences of the child and observe them, being flexible and planning individualized instructional reading and writing opportunities based on their needs. (Kindergarten teacher, urban Manitoba)
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	That reading and writing are truly interconnected and we need to focus equally on both. (Grade Two teacher, Northern British Columbia) Another important thing I learned from Reading Recovery was the direct correlation between writing and reading. I was amazed at all you could teach by having a child write. (Grade One teacher, urban Alberta)
Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text	I have a much better sense of where kids need to be and where they are at. (Grade One/Two teacher, urban British Columbia) Knowing how they made their mistakes helps guide me to what to teach them and where to go next. (Kindergarten teacher, urban British Columbia)
Analyzing a running record	I feel that the way I take my running records have changed. They are much more detailed as far as what I am noticing about the child's reading behaviours. I have a better understanding of how to analyze the child's errors using meaning, structure and visual information. I also now will take a more in-depth look at their self-corrections to see what kinds of information they are using and what they are not using, but need to use. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba) I had used running records for many years prior to my training, but since my Reading Recovery training I am able to assess my students reading on a much deeper level. (Grade Two/Three teacher, urban British Columbia)
Basing forthcoming instruction on running record analysis	I also have a better understanding of the information gathered on the running records that help guide my instruction during small and whole group activities. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba) I am able now to check more carefully what strategic activities a student is using. I can assess an error for MSV and what the student is using/neglecting. I am also more aware of fluency (not just speed, but intonation, expression, etc.) I can use this information more intelligently in how I will plan lessons and activities to aid a particular student and the class as a whole. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba)
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	I know that I am a much more competent teacher. I am a more knowledgeable teacher. I am a teacher always learning. (K-One teacher, rural Manitoba)

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
	I have a Master's degree in elementary literacy and feel very strongly that I learned more from my Reading Recovery training than I did in the entirety of my after-degree. (Grade Two teacher, urban Alberta)
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)	I feel I have more effective strategies to share with the students. (Kindergarten teacher, rural New Brunswick) I think I have a greater repertoire of ideas to help students to read. (Kindergarten teacher, urban Alberta)
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	I think that I can make much quicker assessment of how children are learning to read and adjust their lessons on the spot in order to help them grasp new reading skills. (Grade Two/Three teacher, urban British Columbia) Yes, I think I know more clearly what to look for in students who are struggling and can more adeptly choose a teaching direction to support those children. (Grade Two teacher, urban Manitoba)

The participants regularly indicated that their knowledge they brought to their role as classroom teacher had changed since their Reading Recovery training. A key benefit of Reading Recovery training, according to many participants, was their development of a broader and deeper understanding of how children learn to read and write. They saw this is very useful information to support their classroom literacy instruction:

> *I am more aware of the process children are working through when they are learning to read. I understand that students are driven by certain sources of information when they read, and this is individual. I am better able to "understand' their errors and why they might be making them. I also now understand that as a child starts to use a new source more regularly, other sources may seem to be neglected as it is integrated in general.* (Grade One teacher, urban Alberta)

The survey respondents also commonly reported that because of their enhanced knowledge stemming from the Reading Recovery training, they felt more confident as classroom teachers:

> *At first, I was overwhelmed but as the [training] year progressed and we met in our contact group, it became easier as we all had our own experiences and difficulties*

were trying to work through. It was so beneficial to watch other teachers complete lessons with their students. I am much more confident in my ability to help all students to learn to read. There is a lot of pressure on Grade One teachers to get their students to an end-of-Grade One level and I feel the Reading Recovery training will assist me in getting more of my students to that level. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba)

I think that training in Reading Recovery has only made me a better classroom teacher. It has really changed the way I think about teaching student to read and write, as well as how I deliver my instruction in the classroom. Reading Recovery meetings continually challenge my thinking and helps me to better understand the way students learn. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba)

Commonly reported influences to participants' beliefs. Finally, the participants also gave examples how, in their view, they had shifted in some of their beliefs about literacy instruction and learning because of their experiences training in Reading Recovery. From the 139 reports of shifted beliefs, Table 6.7 lists three themes that were brought forward most often by the participants.

Table 6.7

Commonly Reported Reading Recovery Influences to Teachers' Beliefs

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	My students are far more successful in reading and writing than they were before I was trained. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba) Yes, I feel I am a much more effective literacy teacher. I am more thoughtful about what is important and I take a closer look at the student and what they can do. (Grade One/Two teacher, rural Manitoba)
Fostering learner's independence	I am also better at building students confidence and independence in reading and writing. (Grade Two/Three teacher, rural British Columbia) With writing I want students to feel brave and take chances now, not feel inhibited by the feeling that they may spell something incorrectly. (K-Three teacher, rural British

Reading Recovery Concept/Principle	Sample Comments
	Columbia)
Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	I used to think some students were not ready to learn to read or write but now I know they can be assisted no matter what level they are at. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba) It has changed because now I see all children as being capable of reading and writing. (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba)

Participants' valuing of Reading Recovery's model of professional development. When asked what advice they would give to colleagues who were considering training in Reading Recovery, a few of the respondents mentioned the ardor of the training year:

> *I would say that it is a lot of hard to work to go through the training, but that it is worth it 100%. I feel as though it has made me a better teacher. I have always told colleagues it was by far the best training I have ever had! It has really impacted my teaching and understanding how kids learn to read and write.* (Grade One teacher, urban Manitoba)

> *Yes indeed but the program is very demanding and many people support this. Therefore not everybody is interested in taking it. It would be different if we could have it offered after school over a longer period of time to help cut expenses. Overall the training is great but the paperwork is something else.* (Grade One teacher, urban New Brunswick)

While some commented on a heavy workload during the training year, the majority of survey respondents replied that they would recommend colleagues undergoing the training:

> *Absolutely, yes. I wish I had learned Reading Recovery when doing my teaching degree.* (Grade Two teacher, urban British Columbia)

100% While only [being in my second year of teaching Reading Recovery] I feel the experience has been so valuable to my teaching and most of all my students. Specific techniques and strategies when teaching reading have given me confidence in my teaching. Every teacher should have his opportunity when teaching a primary grade. (K-3 teacher, rural British Columbia)

I have already suggested [getting trained] to a first grade teacher. I have told her that it will help her teach/understand how students read and write. I have said I don't know how I did it prior to taking Reading Recovery. (Grade One/Two teacher, urban Manitoba)

Many justified this suggestion by stating they felt aspects of Reading Recovery training would have application in other teachers' classroom. Some also shared a feeling that Reading Recovery had enhanced their effectiveness as classroom teachers as a reason for additional teachers to train. There were participants who felt the training should somehow be extended to all primary teachers or made part of undergraduate training.

While all of the survey respondents indicated at some point in their responses that they believed the training held value and that it had improved their literacy instruction in the classroom, one teacher's comments were particularly passionate in describing a transformative effect she had experienced training in Reading Recovery:

I now believe that all children can learn to read and write. Every student has a different journey…I am ashamed to say that I used to have the outlook that if a student did not respond to my instructions in class then they needed to go out and receive support somewhere else. How wrong is that?!? I am the expert and I need to adjust my instruction based on their needs. Reading Recovery has given me the tools

to identify strengths and weaknesses and then act with explicit and intentional teaching. I am drawing on Reading Recovery theory and practice in all aspects of my literacy program. This is something that is a part of me as a teacher and always will be. I have had so much more success with all my students once I was trained and implemented this into my class. I am not sure what else could replace it. I pick a few new ideas here and there but this is the foundation of who I am as a teacher. (Grade One/Two teacher, Northern British Columbia)

However, not all of the survey respondents unanimously agreed that Reading Recovery had influenced aspects of their classroom programs. For each of the Likert-scale questions, there was a small percentage of the survey participants who disagreed or strongly disagreed that Reading Recovery training made a difference to their classroom practice (see Figure 6.1). I initially interpreted their disagreement to the Likert-scaled statements to indicate one of the following:

1) The teacher disagreed with the tenets of Reading Recovery and therefore did not apply them to classroom instruction.
2) The teacher agreed with the tenets of Reading Recovery in the context of the intervention, but did not find Reading Recovery applicable to the classroom context.
3) The teacher already held tenets in agreement with Reading Recovery prior to training in Reading Recovery and, continued to teach post-training with those same tenets.

When I looked at comments these teachers provided later to open-ended questions in the survey addressing their overall impressions and if they would recommend Reading Recovery training to other teachers, they all endorsed Reading Recovery training as valuable professional development or stated that they felt they were more effective classroom literacy instructors post-training.

In all of the outliers' later responses to open-ended questions, they made comments that suggested they viewed Reading Recovery as helpful to classroom practice although they had earlier indicated that they had not changed their classroom practices, for example:

> *I would say that Reading Recovery is the best professional development that I have participated in and has made me a better teacher.* (Kindergarten teacher, New Brunswick)
>
> *You begin to see students through a different lens. I find it easy to pick out teachers with a Reading Recovery background. They teach differently, and they are often more effective.* (K-4 teacher, Manitoba)

These comments seemed to contradict their earlier responses that Reading Recovery had made no impact to their classroom instruction, but I could not explore this further as I did not have any post-survey contact with the respondents other the case study participants.

Reported influences to participants' classroom literacy instruction apart from Reading Recovery. In an open-ended type question, the teachers were asked to provide examples of other areas of professional development in literacy that had impact on their classroom instruction (see Appendix D, Table D3). Most commonly, the participants listed Regie Routman as an influence to their classroom writing and mentioned having training in *The Daily 5* (Boushey & Moser, 2006), an organizing system to support guided reading instruction and students' independent practice reading and writing. While some of the participants mentioned professional development surrounding general reading development and guided reading, they did not specify a particular program or author. Teachers provided examples of different modalities of professional development. Most frequently, these included examples of traditional in-service sessions or referencing

professional texts. Additionally, they described consultation with colleagues either in discussions with other teachers, or in more formal settings such as classroom visits, book studies, working with a literacy coach, or in staff meetings.

Across the survey responses, the participants have provided many examples of how they have transferred Reading Recovery procedures and language into their classroom literacy instruction. Additionally, many shared how the training added to or developed their understanding of children's literacy development. Many of the participants also described feeling as though some of their beliefs regarding literacy learning and instruction shifted due to their experience training. Next, in the case studies, I examine if potentially transferable aspects of Reading Recovery are observable in trained-teachers' classroom instruction and if and how these three teachers describe Reading Recovery's influence to their classroom practice.

Chapter 7: Results: Bev's Case Study: "I am much more confident in my ability to help all students learn to read."

Three of the survey participants who taught within 100 km of Brandon, Manitoba (where I live) volunteered and were selected for case study. As described in the earlier methodology chapter, these case studies were constructed from data collected during weekly visits to each classroom over a three-month period, March-May 2012 (excluding one week when schools were closed for Spring Break). In the few cases when I could not visit a classroom at the regularly scheduled time (e.g., One teacher was away attending a funeral) I made arrangements for a make-up visit the following week.

For each case study, I first offer a narrative depicting a typical observation (reflecting regular events I witnessed during several visits and quoting discourse) in each teacher's classroom before presenting the results of my case study data to support my description of each teacher's transferal of Reading Recovery learning. As part of my case study results, I provide a complete set of tables for the first case study teacher, Bev in Appendix D. I include these to illustrate how, for all three case study teachers, I categorized and sorted case study data for analysis. For each of the case studies, I will present and discuss my findings alongside examples from the data gathered in the classroom observations, follow-up interviews, and the case study participants' survey responses.

The first case study participant, Bev, had been a teacher for 13 years and was currently teaching Grade One at George Fitton, a K-8 urban school in Brandon, Manitoba.

A Morning in Bev's Classroom

I watch as Bev's 15 students, nine boys and six girls hang their coats on hooks in the hallway and put on their inside shoes before entering the classroom to start the day. Two of the girls chat in Spanish to each other before switching to English to answer Bev's hello and wondering how they are this morning. Bev said, "Good morning Victor[15]" to her Russian-speaking student before he took his seat at one of the hexagon-shaped tables in the middle of the room (see Appendix F, Figure F1).

Bev has devoted most of each morning to literacy instruction. After *O Canada*, the school announcements, and a math calendar opening activity, Bev began the day working with words. Today, she called the students over to the large carpet at the side of the room. She asked each student to bring a small white board and a dry-erase marker from the bins at the front of the carpet. Students also brought a sock from their desk used to erase their work. Bev referred to the teacher's guide of a published Word Work program, asking the students to write each word on their white board, turn the board and show her, and then asked one student to come up and assemble the word on a pocket chart at the front of the carpet using large letter tiles from the program.

One student, Carrie, a selectively mute student arrived late. Bev looked up and saw Carrie standing motionless in the door and quickly invited her in. "Good morning Carrie, how are you? You know what to do, come in and get your inside shoes on." Carrie doesn't answer Bev but slowly moved to her desk and started to put her shoes on. Bev then asked her to get her writing materials and join the rest of the class on the carpet.

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[15] All of the students have been assigned pseudonyms

Throughout the Word Work activity, Bev prompted the students to perform a sound analysis of the words: "Say it slowly. What can you hear? Write the sounds you hear. What else can you hear?" She also reminded the class to use the previous word to solve the new word through analogy (e.g., "If you can spell 'like' than you can make 'bike').

After word work, Bev gathered the class on the carpet for whole-class instruction in either reading or writing. Depending on her agenda for the day, Bev sometimes read a story aloud to the class, completed demonstration writing[16] as a sample of piece the class was later going to write themselves, or worked on shared writing with the whole group. Today, Bev read some of the poems from the collection, *Alligator Stew* (Lee, 2005). The students laughed at some of the silly language in the poems.

Bev set the book aside and said, "I will read some more tomorrow, but right now I want to try writing a poem. You're going to write a poem too. It's easier to write a poem about something you know about. I'll write about Mulligan. You guys know Mulligan was my dog and he passed away this year. I really miss him. To start my poem, I'll put Mulligan's name in the middle, and I'll write some happy memories around his name."

Bev started a new page of chart paper and wrote Mulligan with a circle around the name in the middle of the page. She thought aloud about some memories (what he liked to do, what he looked like, a story when he tried to hide when he thought he was in trouble) and webbed them to the name. Bev tore the page of her ideas off the chart pad and attached it to a white board next to her chair at the front of the carpet.

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[16] The teacher composes and/or transcribes a piece of writing in front of students with the purpose of teaching them about the writing process.

Bev picked up a marker and said to the whole class, "I'm going to talk out loud so you can hear what I'm thinking. You have to think when you write." As Bev selected some of her ideas to put into free verse poetry on the whiteboard she talked through her ideas and reread the poem several times, sometimes changing a word or the sequence of the ideas. She asked the class, "Is it ok to go back and change your mind? Yes, that's what writers do, they change their mind. I'm going to change this part to make it better." Bev crossed out the word 'loved' and changed the line to read 'miss playing with him.'

At one point, one of the students raised his hand and suggested Bev add a comma to improve a sentence. Bev added the comma and then questioned, "What do we do when we're reading and we come to a comma?"

One student answered, "Take a pause."

Bev continued, "Right you pause; let's read this part and see if sounds better with a comma."

The class read the section and Bev commented, "Yes it does; I like that."

Once Bev finished her demonstration, she asked the class to pick something that they all knew a lot about so that they could write a poem together as a class before they tried writing their own poem. She suggested something at school: "Why don't we write a poem about gym? All of you know a lot about gym. What are some of the things you do in gym?"

After Bev listed all of the students' ideas, they began to write their poem together. Bev made a suggestion, "How could we start? Sometimes a poem can start with a question. I know there's a question you guys ask me all the time when you come to school. Do we…"

One students exclaimed, "Do we have gym today?!?"

Bev laughed, "Yes. Do we have gym today? You ask me that all the time. Do we have gym **today**? Look at the schedule – yes, we have gym today after last recess. We could start our poem that way, *Do we have gym today?*"

Bev moved back to the pad of chart paper and asked the students what a good title might be for the poem. The students gave some good suggestions, but Bev decided, "I'm going to wait until later to pick my title. It might be easier when I've written more of my poem. Do you ever wonder what Mr. C. will have for you to do when you're walking down the hall to the gym?"

Bev wrote on the chart paper near the top, *I wonder.* The students were quick to pull ideas from the chart to finish lines of the poem. The class read through the poem several times as the poem developed.

Before the students returned to their desks to get started on their own poems, Bev had each student turn to their neighbor on the carpet and tell them what they were going to write about. Bev asked the class who had told their neighbor their idea to go to their desk to start writing their idea in an exercise book they used for writing. A few students had not shared an idea. Bev had a short conversation with each of the remaining students, asking them about their family or what they liked to do. As each student responded to Bev, she said, "That's a good idea – that's what you could write about" and sent them to their desk to get started.

Once the students began their own writing, Bev circulated from desk to desk prompting them to reread their stories to make sure they made sense, encouraged them to say unknown spelling words slowly and record the sounds they heard, occasional drawing sound boxes[17] to

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[17]As part of the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure, teachers draw a series of Elkonin boxes (i.e. one box for each phoneme in a word) to support a student's attempt at isolating and then selecting letters to represent the sounds he hears in a word to be solved in writing. (Clay, 2005b)

support these attempts. Bev also referred students to look for unknown words in books that they had read. On some writing days, the class reviewed an editing checklist (capital at beginning of sentence, punctuation at end, spaces between words, neat printing) and she asked the students to score their own pieces with 1-4 stars for each item on the checklist they felt they completed.

At the recess bell, Bev announced, "That's a great start you guys. We will continue to work on this tomorrow. Please put your writing scribbler [exercise book] away in your desk and then you can grab a snack and head outside."

On some days, the students moved from the carpet to guided reading, but usually, the guided reading instruction occurred after the end of writing and the recess break. During Bev's guided reading, she organized literacy centres[18] that the class worked on in small groups while she took one small group to the guided reading table at the back of the classroom. During the centres, students were reading independently, doing more Word Work or practicing spelling words, completing work sheets, or playing word games.

As Bev reviewed the directions for the literacy centres, I noticed an open binder on the side of the guided reading table at the back of the classroom. The binder was sectioned and there were completed Running Record forms and the letter identification task from *The Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement* (Clay, 2002) and the Burt Word Reading assessment in the front sections of the binder.

The first group came to the table; one student was away, so there were only two boys at the table. Once they sat down, Bev reminded them, "You guys have been working on your fluency while you read, making your reading sound like talking."

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[18]Independent literacy activities which student undertake, usually during periods when the teacher is working with small groups or one-on-one with students

Bev selected a text, *The Little Red Hen* (Giles, 1997a), a text that is on the Reading Recovery booklist. She asked the two what they know about the story. Neither boy had heard this fairy tale before, so Bev told them it was about a little red hen who made bread and that it was a lot of work. The hen asked her friends for help, but no one wanted to help her. Bev flipped through the story with the boys and talked about the steps the hen went through making the bread. On each page, Bev used a language structure from the book, "Who will help me?" as she explained each step of the bread-making process. Bev didn't show the students the ending, but asked, "I wonder what will happen when the bread is finished? Let's read and find out."

Each boy opened his own copy of the text and began reading quietly out loud. Bev listened alternately to the two, reacting to either boy's reading. Because of the interactions, the two boys were soon in different places in the text. When one finished, Bev asked him to practice reading the text from the beginning while she finished listening to the other. While I observed Bev work with the two boys, I heard her prompt the boys in different ways:

"Take a look at that."

"I like how you fixed that"

"Get your mouth ready."

"Do you see a part that you know?"

"You made a mistake in this sentence. I want to see if you can find it."

(Student reads pool for pond) "Do you see an 'l'?"

"Is there a part you know? [on] in pond. "I see that too, use it."

(Student reads forest for field) Student: I hear a 't'. Teacher: Do you see a 't"?

"Use all the letters.

(Student reads so for soon) "That doesn't look right. How do you spell 'so'?"

"What does 'oo' say?"

Bev pulled out a small whiteboard and asked one boy to practice writing the word 'soon' several times.

"What was the Little Red Hen doing?"

"I want you to use your finger."

(Student stops at the word 'began' and makes no attempt) "Break it into parts." Bev covered 'gan' with her finger and exposed 'be'. "What would this part say?" Student then solves the word when Bev uncovered the rest.

"Look at the sounds, but it has to make sense."

"Does that make sense?"

"What does the Little Red Hen have to do?"

"Here's grunt – now we add the ending" Bev drew her finger under the 'ed' at the end of 'grunted'. Student solved the rest of the word.

"Try that again – see how that word is dark? How would you say it? When it's bold, how should you read it?"

As Bev worked with the two boys, she'd occasionally jot down a quick note about an error or self-correction they had made on a lesson record form she had created in the binder. She used the notation system from Running Records to record the example, and sometimes add a quick note beside one.

After the two boys both finished the text, Bev talked to them about the ending. She asked the boys if they thought it was fair that the other animals wanted to eat the bread when it was finished.

"NO! They didn't help."

"They were lazy."

Bev added, "So what did the Little Red Hen say when the other animals wanted to help eat the bread?"

"I made the bread so I will eat the bread."

"I'm going to eat it myself."

Bev and the boys discussed the ending further; Bev probed their understanding of how the Little Red Hen must have felt. She extended their vocabulary when the boys only offered that she was sad or that she felt bad by asking them how they would have felt if they had done all the work and someone wanted what they had made for free. The boys then came up with the word *mad*. Bev explained, "Yes, I would be mad too. I think I would find it annoying. That would bother me if I did the work and someone wanted it all for free. I would be annoyed."

Bev asked the boys to take the Little Red Hen and add it to their book bags at their desk. She told them they could practice reading it until she saw them next time. Bev wrote down a note about the conversation she had with the boys following the story on her lesson record.

Before sending the class to gym, Bev had time to see one other guided reading group and one of her Spanish-speaking EAL students on her own. While she ran the second guided reading group in a similar fashion, I noticed with the EAL student, Bev started the lesson reading a text that the student had already read in a previous session before starting a different text. In the new text, Bev spent additional time orienting the student to the vocabulary and some of the English structures found in the text before she began to read.

Bev's Transferal of Reading Recovery Procedures and Language

I observed Bev using procedures and language that appeared similar to those used in Reading Recovery during many different classroom activities (see Appendix D, Tables D4 & D5). Bev stated, "But I feel, yes, I am using different strategies and techniques that I learned in Reading Recovery in the classroom" (Interview, May 27).

During my observations, Bev most frequently used Reading Recovery-like procedures when she was teaching her entire class (Whole class=17, Small group=11, One=13) but equally between reading and writing activities (Reading=15, Writing=15, Reading/writing=11). Nine of the procedures appeared in multiple contexts such as different classroom activities or with different groupings of students.

As described in Table D5, Bev made both *low road* and *high road* (Schunk, 2004) transfers of Reading Recovery procedures. That is, at times it appeared that Bev directly imported a procedure from Reading Recovery and deployed an unaltered version of the procedure with her class (low road). At other times, it seemed as though Bev had thought about both the procedure and the classroom context and had modified the procedure to fit into the classroom (high road).

I noticed Bev using direct, or low road type transfers of several procedures. For example, during her guided writing with her classroom, Bev had her students write on unlined paper and for some students, had them write with a dark marker. Bev recalled suggesting another teacher have one of her students write with a marker in class, to assist him making his print more legible. Bev had also transferred the conventions and procedure of taking a Running Record and recorded students' reading behaviours in guided reading. Bev commented that she no longer relied on having a pre-printed copy of the text to follow as she took the Running Record; instead, she now preferred to sit next to the student and follow along their copy of the text as they read and record her conventions on a blank sheet of paper as advocated in the Reading Recovery training[19]. She regularly took Running Records of student's reading and was not limited to packaged assessments. "One thing since Reading Recovery, before I needed to have the words [a

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[19]Standardized reading assessments provide teachers pre-printed copies of leveled reading selections that students read while the teachers write their conventions and notes on prepared forms. [e.g., Fountas & Pinnell, (2011); Nelley & Smith, (2000)].

pre-printed copy of the text]…now I cannot do a Running Record on one of those at all because there's no room. I prefer just the blank paper. I can do it on anything" (Interview, May 1).

Bev also mentioned that she had taken up the Reading Recovery-like approach to book selection for guided reading lessons. Rather than follow a prescribed book sequence, she was selecting texts based on her observations and judgment of the students' strengths and needs. "Another thing too with Reading Recovery, I'm really trying to pick books better for the students and like really looking" (Interview, May 31).

I also observed Bev stop in the middle of guided reading lessons and whole class Word Work and have students write a word several times on a whiteboard with the intention of adding the word to the students' vocabulary of known words. Bev felt that she had previously used this procedure on the advice of another Reading Recovery teacher but, since training herself, now used the procedure more frequently.

With other procedures, it seemed to me that while Bev had incorporated the essence of a procedure into a classroom, she had made some modification so that it would fit into different classroom contexts. Schunk (2004) described this type of transfer of learning as a high road transfer.

Within her guided and shared writing, Bev often connected reciprocal reading and writing knowledge. Bev thought that she was more aware of this connection since she trained in Reading Recovery, saying that, "I probably didn't put it together as much" (Interview, April 3).

Several times, I observed Bev refer a student to a text they were reading in order to help them spell an unknown word in their own writing, rather than just provide them with the spelling or ask them to sound it out. She often seemed aware of what books the students were reading and

when they had a book at their desk that would likely have a word they were wanting to use in their own writing.

On another occasion, Bev reread a piece of shared writing after a student suggested adding some punctuation to see if it sounded better. When I asked her about that teaching moment, she thought, "Mind you we always did punctuation, but I think it's just making them more aware of why the punctuation is there" (Interview, May 31).

Bev recalled abandoning whole-class, patterned writing (i.e. the teacher provides a sentence framework and the students fill in the endings of sentences) the year she trained in Reading Recovery and now preferred to teach writing around each student's ideas. Bev adopted the practice of drawing on a conversation with a student to assist them in composing their own message for writing. During guided and shared writing, Bev modeled thinking aloud and said what she wanted to write before touching pen to paper. When working with her full class, she asked them to turn and talk to a neighbor before they moved off to write independently. For students who were slower or unable to come up with an idea, she kept them at the carpet longer and initiated a conversation with each one, not satisfied until they had told her what they were going to write. She mentioned, "I try to get the kids to talk and that's from Reading Recovery too. And I do try to make sure that everyone has a chance to talk more and share" (Interview, April 3).

Bev drew upon words that students were working on in both reading and writing as a source of words that would be helpful for them to learn. I observed Bev in guided reading and writing ask students to practice writing a word several times on a small whiteboard so that they could remember the word. Bev made this a regular practice in her room, "I did a little bit before but the reason I did it before was because Reading Recovery teachers had told me to do it. So, I

do it a lot more now that I've had Reading Recovery, that's why I always have my whiteboards here and their socks" (Interview, April 29).

To check and extend writing, Bev often asked her class to reread their written work. "I know I reread a lot more now since Reading Recovery too. And even sometimes if you only have a part sentence" (Interview, May 14).

During Word Work and guided writing, I observed Bev use analogy to solve words. She attributed Reading Recovery to her increased usage of this strategy, "I used analogies before, too…but I know it has. I do that more now" (Interview, April 3). Bev had modified this procedure to be used in different ways. With her whole class, she added the word 'end' to the word wall and very explicitly stated she put it on the word wall so that students could refer to it to solve other words. In guided reading, she would write a known word that resembled an unknown word in a text to help the students to use their previous knowledge to solve the new word.

As well, I frequently observed Bev using the Hearing and Recording Sounds procedure to solve words in her writing instruction. While the prompts associated with this procedure where often heard in Word Work, Bev asked students to say words slowly and record the sounds they heard in shared and guided writing times as well. I also watched Bev draw sound boxes to scaffold an individual student's hearing and recording sounds when she circulated from student to student as they wrote in guided writing times.

Bev incorporated the Reading Recovery practice of students writing with dark marker on white, unlined paper into her classroom, more so at the beginning of the year, but also for students who struggle printing legibly. When she was teaching Reading Recovery, she suggested another classroom teacher also adopt this practice in her room.

Bev also reported she had altered some of her reading instruction after training in Reading Recovery. Bev reported now being focused on teaching concepts of English print more explicitly early in the Grade One year. "Other years I haven't worried so much about it really being that clear. But they need to know that we start on the left, we go to the right" (Interview, May 31).

I watched Bev orient children to texts in guided reading in a manner very similar to Reading Recovery. Rather than do only a brief walk through of the events of a story, Bev also selectively introduced vocabulary and structures of language that she judged would be troublesome. Rather than use a stock, scripted introduction, she tailored the orientation to the new story according to strengths of the group that was going to be reading.

In an interesting example in guided reading, Bev had her selectively mute student, Carrie, point at the text while Bev read the text aloud. Usually, this procedure in Reading Recovery is only used to develop self-monitoring based on one-to-one word matching in the early stages of reading development (i.e. asking the student to check if they read all the words or inserted extra words as they read). Because Carrie would not read aloud or speak to anyone while at school, Bev had modified the procedure so that she could observe what Carrie was looking at while Bev was reading. Carrie's mother recorded Carrie reading at home so that Bev could listen and assess the reading. Bev credited Reading Recovery towards coming up with this individualized programming, "I don't even know if I would know how to read with her if I didn't have Reading Recovery training. I would have no idea where to even go with her" (Interview, May 31).

On one visit, I observed the school's current Reading Recovery teacher come into the classroom to speak to Bev about one of her students. Bev reported discussing both Reading Recovery and classroom students' progress with other Reading Recovery-trained staff in the school. "I think it's a huge strength because, the thing for all of us, we can talk, and if I have a

problem with someone, I can go to another one and say this is what the student is doing" (Interview, May 31).

Bev made a small modification, using letter tiles in place of magnetic letters, but doing word-making and -breaking activities similar to Reading Recovery: "The Word Work and breaking words in Reading Recovery. I mean, we do that" (Interview, May 31).

Bev was also observed using language similar to prompts used in Reading Recovery in her classroom (see Appendix D, Table D6). I heard Bev providing Reading Recovery-like prompts during several activities in her classroom (demonstration writing, guided reading, guided writing, literacy centres, shared reading[20], shared writing, teacher/student conferencing, teacher read-aloud, word work, and work at desk). These prompt were used in reading, writing, and reading/writing activities. Depending on the activity, Bev incorporated Reading Recovery-like prompts when instructing her whole class (e.g., shared writing), small groups (e.g., guided reading), and when working with individual students (e.g., teacher/student conferencing).

During the interviews that followed observation sessions, Bev spoke about her perception of the influence of Reading Recovery training to her language in the classroom (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1

Bev's Interview Comments Regarding Reading Recovery Training's Influence to Language

Comment	Date	Reading Recovery Concept/Principle
Reading Recovery helped me a lot with the prompts for kids.	Initial Interview	• Using Reading Recovery Prompts (unspecified)
Joseph Stouffer (JS): I noticed you saying a lot to the kids, "Say it slowly" Bev: Yeah. And I mean even more so with Reading Recovery. I do that more.	March 22	• Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words
And I know talking to the Reading Recovery teacher this year, she said it helps because I use the same language she does. This is her training year, but she said it's so helpful. Especially with the boy she just had, he really needed consistency and for him it	March 22	• Using Reading Recovery Prompts (unspecified) • Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers

[20]The teacher reads a text with students

Comment	Date	Reading Recovery Concept/Principle
really, really helped. And she told me that lots. Because she'd say something and he knew it, so that was good.		
Well I just find, talking to the Reading Recovery teacher and I know I've said this too, because I'm saying it and she's saying it with the kids she's working with. They know what she's talking about. So, that's one nice thing now because I know what's happening in the Reading Recovery room. And, just to keep talking to the Reading Recovery teachers [about] the students they're working with – try and do the same in here.	April 29	• Using Reading Recovery Prompts (unspecified) • Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers
JS: I'm wondering if you can talk a bit today about when you're teaching in front of the whole classroom, do you notice that's Reading Recovery influence? Bev: A lot with morning messages, like "get your mouth ready", "What sounds do you hear?", "What do you think it could be?" "Did that make sense?"	May 2	• Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word • Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words • Fostering learner's independence • Calling for a search of meaning to check a word
I think too that's from Reading Recovery because I mean, you work so much on the punctuation. I always have. I've always said ok, you need a period or you need an exclamation mark, or what do you need? But I think Reading Recovery has made it so that I can explain it better to them.	May 3	• Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written
JS: Even that conversation you had with the Reading Recovery teacher, it's interesting, you were both looking at a Running Record and it seemed you were speaking the same language. Bev: Yeah. That I think is huge and [the Reading Recovery teacher] has told me so many times that it's easy, not that it's easier to work with my students, but just because we do use the same language. Whereas, if there's a teacher that doesn't have Reading Recovery they know but they may be saying it different or it's not the same language. And that's why I'm thinking we're lucky in our school because we have so many Reading Recovery-trained teachers in our school. They are all through all levels. I mean we've got on in Grade 2/3, one in Grade 2, Resource, the principal and there's our Literacy Support teacher. I think that's a huge strength because the thing for all of us, we can talk, and if I have a problem with someone, I can go to another one and say, this is what this student is doing…So I think that is a strength because there's someone we can go to for help.	May 3	• Using Reading Recovery Prompts (unspecified) • Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers
JS: So what spinoff does that understanding then have in your classroom teaching? Bev: I think it changes how I'm teaching them. Like my teaching to them it's making it so, maybe I'm making it more clear to them so that they're able to pick it up. I mean, some kids just pick it up, but some don't and even my lower ones are getting it. I've seen progress in everybody this year, including [the selectively mute student]. So, I think that's helped me a lot.	May 3	• Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training.

From her comments, Bev recognized and valued the common language she shared with several other Reading Recovery-trained teachers in her school. She saw advantage not only to the children served in Reading Recovery, who would benefit from familiar terms being spoken in

both settings, but also in being able to work collaboratively with other teachers. Bev felt as though she was more capable and likely to discuss the progress of Reading Recovery students from her class and other children from her classroom whom she is finding more difficult to teach with other staff.

Bev attributed an increased use of Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words prompts to her Reading Recovery training. She also felt she could more clearly prompt and explain literacy concepts to her class. She credited this shift in her language as one factor to improved literacy outcomes of her classes since she trained in Reading Recovery. "I think it changes how I'm teaching them. Like my teaching to them it's making it so, maybe I'm making it more clear to them so that they're able to pick it up. I mean, some kids just pick it up, but some don't and even my lower ones are getting it" (Interview, May 3).

Congruence of Bev's survey responses and classroom observations. In her survey response, Bev reported Reading Recovery influenced her classroom literacy instruction during different activities, and that she felt she had imported various Reading Recovery procedures and language. In Appendix D, Tables D6 and D7 present Bev's survey responses compared to data collected during observations in her classroom.

With the exception of home reading[21], I observed Reading Recovery-like procedures and/or language in all of the classroom activities Bev mentioned in her survey. In her survey, Bev noted that post-Reading Recovery training, she was more cognizant of the reading level of texts that she sent home with her students for practice. I did not have opportunity to observe this procedure during my classroom observations. While there were many confirmations of the

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[21] Teacher-assigned or student-selected texts that students take home to read

classroom activities Bev listed in her survey response, I also noted the influence of Reading Recovery in several additional classroom activities that Bev did not mention in the survey.

In her survey, Bev also indicated that she believed Reading Recovery training had influenced both teaching procedures she used and the language she used in literacy instruction. In Tables D8 and D9 (see Appendix D), I compare Bev's survey responses with the procedures and language that I noted during the classroom observations.

Comparing data sets, I witnessed nearly all the transfers of procedure and language that Bev first reported in her survey. While I did not observe Bev in the process of designing individual instruction, I did observe her implementing a Guided Reading program that she designed specifically according to the needs of her selectively mute student. Similarly in terms of language that fosters learner's independence, I did not hear Bev make a prompt that called children to take action independently, but did hear her praise children immediately after they made what Bev considered a strong independent effort. The classroom observations (Tables D6 & D7) also contained many additional transfers that Bev had not mentioned in the survey.

Reading Recovery's Influence to Bev's Knowledge and Beliefs

In her survey responses, classroom observations, and interviews, Bev discussed how she felt Reading Recovery training had influenced her knowledge of how literacy develops and instruction that supports that growth (see Appendix D, Table D10).

Bev reported Reading Recovery training affected her knowledge of literacy processes and instruction in different ways. It seemed Bev drew on her understanding of Clay's general theory of literacy (e.g., "I have a better understanding of how to each students reading skills" [Survey]) and applying that knowledge to support her instruction in reading and writing (e.g., "It's really

showed me a lot more than modeling, to take things apart and show them from the beginning on, of where to go with writing or reading"[Initial interview]).

For example, since Reading Recovery training, Bev felt not only more competent in taking a Running Record, but that she better understands how to analyze Running Records and infer a student's current approach, strengths, and weakness in problem solving when reading a text. "Because before, I mean, MSV [i.e. meaning, structure, visual information sources available to readers], it's like confusing and sometimes still you have to really think, 'What are they using and where are they going?' Reading Recovery really helped with that." (Interview, May 1).

She described being more capable to deliver appropriate instruction to a group of students in guided reading, "I always spent some [time] in guided reading but I find I did a lot more one-to-one reading. Where now I find I can manage a group of two or three students, listening to them all, even if they're on different [pages] or working different strategies for the words" (Interview, May 27).

Further, she stated that she better understands and has a larger repertoire of approaches to take when planning and as she teaches reading moment by moment. She described, "And I think that's a big thing too with the kids, 'OK, now what's my next step, where do I go from here with them?' Whereas before I was kind of like, 'Yeah they read that and it's easy, or it's instructional, or oh no, it was too hard.'" (Interview, May 10).

In Table D11 (see Appendix D) I list comments from Bev from her survey response, classroom observations, and follow-up interviews I coded as her reporting shifts in her beliefs about literacy instruction. Bev reported that her beliefs about how students learn to read and write and how she delivered literacy instruction had shifted. After Reading Recovery training, Bev described seeing the potential of children differently: "I used to think some students were

not ready to learn to read or write but now I know they can be assisted no matter what level they are at" (Survey).

She was confident that she has become a better teacher since her Reading Recovery training:

> *I have more – I know my guided reading is stronger since Reading Recovery.* (Interview, May 27)
>
> *I have a small class, but I have more kids at level than I've ever had. And so I'm attributing that to what some of the Literacy Centres are doing and my teaching. I mean, some kids just come in reading, but I didn't have any kids come this year that were really strong readers. So I think I'm putting it, that's my teaching too that's helping them and to get to that. And even their writing.* (Interview, May 31).

Bev also mentioned using her time more efficiently and placing more importance on developing the independence of her students than in the past. Bev felt that her all of her students were making better progress and she also saw herself as more capable of teaching to a wider range of learners. "I feel I am better able to differentiate instruction to assist all of my students" (Survey).

Bev's Integration of Reading Recovery Learning into her Classroom Literacy Instruction

I observed and Bev has reported shifts in each of the four dimensions that I consider overlapping components of a teacher's learning: knowledge, beliefs, procedures, and language (Figure 1.1). From my viewpoint, Reading Recovery had the most impact to Bev's classroom instruction in the following ways:

1) She had a deeper understanding of how children learn to read and write according to Clay' theory (2005a, 2005b) presented in the Reading Recovery training.

2) Drawing on this knowledge to inform her selection of procedures and language, in her opinion, made her a more effective literacy teacher.

Bev attributed her change in confidence stemmed from a deeper understanding of children's literacy development. Drawing on this knowledge, she reported she felt she made better use of her teaching time by selecting activities that would move her students forward and not just fill time. Bev described feeling more capable of delivering differentiated instruction because she also felt more confident assessing children's reading and matching subsequent instruction to her inferences drawn from her analysis of Running Records. She also stated that she thought that this knowledge and practice made her more skillful at responding quickly and appropriately during interactions with students in Guided Reading.

She also shifted in her beliefs away from a readiness-type theory of reading development towards an emergent theory advocated by Clay in Reading Recovery. Because of this shift, she examined her choices of classroom activities. She often worked in open-ended contexts (shared and guided reading/writing) that allowed her to react to students' individual responses and choices as they worked with texts. During my observation period, I observed only one occasion where students completed a worksheet (writing a summary of facts from a non-fiction text Bev had read to the class). Normally, the students read or wrote different texts from one another. The only practice I observed that seemed to conflict with this viewpoint was her choice of using a structured Word Work program, which she used with the intention of fostering stronger word-solving skills in her class. While Bev frequently used the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure and prompts from Reading Recovery while doing this activity, this bottom-up approach (i.e. Teaching sub-skills in reading in isolation) seemed to conflict with her approach to

guided reading and writing, where she regularly taught skills in the context of the texts the students were reading and writing.

Bev believed it important to teach children multiple strategies to solve words. While Bev followed a structured Word Work program, she also taught children to hear and record sounds and encouraged students solve words through analogy to known words.

I heard Bev using many prompts that resembled those used in Reading Recovery in Guided Reading and across many other activities (e.g., shared reading, shared writing, Guided Writing) in her classroom. Bev incorporated Reading Recovery procedures into her whole class instruction (e.g., Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words) and infused Reading Recovery prompts into her class discussion.

Bev described her transferal of her Reading Recovery learning as "hard for me to pinpoint it just because you just do it…. I think it is autopilot, but I think there's influences there that push me to think, okay now I need to do this, now I need to do that" (Interview, May 27). It appeared Bev didn't consciously separate when she was drawing on Reading Recovery. More so, she reported she felt what she had learned in Reading Recovery was so well established in the background it readily came into play when she felt it made sense in the context of a teaching moment in the classroom.

Chapter 8: Results: Nancy's Case Study: "What can this child do and how can I help him move on to the next part? I think that's a crucial thing in everything that we do with our kids."

Nancy had taught for 17 years and was currently teaching Grade Two at Meadows School, a K-8 urban school in Brandon, Manitoba.

A Morning in Nancy's Classroom

A few moments after the bell, I watched the first of Nancy's 15 students come into the classroom. As they entered the room, most of the students sat in groups of four or five at the tables in the middle of the room (see Appendix F, Figure F2) but two boys had their own desks towards the perimeter of the room. There were definitely more boys than girls in the class this year, ten boys and five girls. Two of the girls spoke Spanish and the class was excited because a new boy, Li, joined the class today. Nancy gave Li a spot beside Chen, who also spoke Mandarin. Nancy asked Chen as he was sitting down if he could help Li and when needed, explain classroom procedures or other things he didn't understand. Chen immediately started to speak in Mandarin to Li, pointing at different things in the classroom, the teacher, and their table.

As the students entered, Nancy circulated from student to student and checked if anyone had a message from home written in their agenda and if they'd completed their home reading record. Occasionally, she sent a student to refresh their selection of home reading books from the numbered book files on a shelf right of the door. She reminded each student which files they could choose from. (e.g., "Number 11 or lower"). The numbers on the files referred to the reading levels of the texts and I later learned that Nancy had leveled the books for home reading according to Reading Recover levels (which uses a number system rather than letters). Each morning, there was a 10-15 minute time before the playing of *O Canada* and the reading of the

school's morning announcements. Nancy took this time to check her students' home reading and agendas, check her attendance, and enter it into the school's computer system. Nancy reminded the class, "OK guys, until *O Canada* starts remember you can read or draw at your own desk."

Once she completed these administrative tasks, she took the remaining time to read with at least one of her EAL students. Today, she sat beside Chen and wanted to listen to him read one of his home reading books. She invited the new student, Li, to listen to Chen read and follow along in the book. Chen took out the text *Oh No Bingo!* (Giles, 1999) from his home reading bag and started to read. Nancy prompted:

Sam's all wet, so mom gets a towel so Sam can get…
Chen: Dry

What's he (Bingo) going to do?
Chen: chase
Right he's going to chase Sam.

Good reading, good job. You can take this book home again.

Nancy asked Chen to explain to Li in Mandarin how the home reading record worked but added Li would not start taking books home until next week. Chen started to speak to Li in Mandarin as both boys looked at Chen's journal and his book bag.

After completing regular morning calendar activities (numeracy skills), Nancy handed out duo-tangs[22] she had assembled with copies of poems for a shared reading activity. Nancy sometimes chose the particular poems or asked someone in the class to select a familiar poem for the class to read together. If it was a new poem, Nancy read the poem to the class while they followed along with their copies. Today there was a new poem by Shel Silverstein. Nancy asked the class about what kinds of poetry Shel Silverstein wrote. The class thought his poems were

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[22]A cardstock folder used to bind multiple sheets of paper by bending embedded brass fasteners, used in Canadian schools as a less expensive option for a three-ring binder

funny, rhyming, and silly. After she read the poem, she asked the class to find compound words in the text (e.g., afternoon, inside, handwriting) and to find words in the poem that rhymed with 'near'.

Today, students wanted to reread "Boogie Chant" and "Wet Feet" from their familiar poems. Many of the poems had corresponding actions or particular changes in expression or volume. These two poems seemed well known by the class. Throughout the reading of the poems, Nancy was encouraging and praising fluency and very expressive reading. Each day, they occasional talked about vocabulary, rhyming words, or different ways they could read the poems. Once the shared reading was completed and the duo-tangs put away, Nancy called the class to join her on the carpet. She told the class that today was a reading day, as on alternating days, she saw guided reading groups or ran Writer's Workshop[23].

Once the class has sat down and she had their attention, Nancy showed them that she had typed and printed the class' Mother's Day poems onto bright stationary. She called up two students to read their poems to the class and then asked the class if they could think of more adjectives to describe mothers. As the students made suggestions (e.g., joyful, caring, loving, beautiful, wonderful, nice helpful, great, funny), Nancy recorded them onto a piece of chart paper next to her chair. As Nancy recorded the words, she made different prompts to the class:

(loving) "E runs away from the ING brothers"

(beautiful) "BE – A – utiful"

"Nice- should be a word you just know"

(wonderful) "Say it slowly. What do you hear?"

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[23]Writer's workshop is a classroom instructional framework for teaching writing. Students work independently composing and writing their own pieces, while the teacher intermittently provides mini-lessons and holds teacher/student conferences

Nancy then read the story *Pinkalicious* (Kann & Kann, 2006) to the class. Nancy stopped at different points of the story and asked the class:

Do you think she's had too much sugar?

What is a pediatrician?

Do you think she should have more pink cupcakes?

What are some foods that are green?

Did you notice the author says "pink tails" instead of "pigtails for her hair-do?

What happened to the rest of the pink cupcakes?

When she finished the story, Nancy pointed out that there were three other books from that series in the classroom, "If you want to read the rest of the books in this series, they are on the bookshelf."

Before she started guided reading, Nancy reminded the rest of the class what they should be doing independently. They could choose amidst self-selected reading[24] or working on their writing from Writer's Workshop; some students had a worksheet (writing directions and drawing a map for a treasure hunt) to finish from yesterday.

Nancy called one of her Spanish-speaking EAL students, Leira, to come to the guided reading table by herself. Nancy had selected a new book, *Coco's Bell* (Kelly, 2000), a text that may be used in Reading Recovery. Nancy oriented Leira to the new story by discussing the characters' names, showing Leira how the cat caught a bird in the story, and checked that Leira understood what a box and a towel were in English. Nancy asked Leira how she thought the people in the story would take care of the injured bird. Leira asked Nancy to confirm what she understood about the words 'paws' and 'claws' in English. As she spoke, Leira correctly showed

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[24] Students select texts and read them independently

Nancy what she thought both words meant with her hands. As Leira started to read the story, Nancy prompted her:

"What's that first sound?"

(Leira read 'win' for 'wing') "Can you show me the 'ing' part? Now say the 'ing' part.

(Leira read 'He' for 'We')"Does that look right?"

"Look at that first sound."

(Leira read 'fly' then 'flied' for 'flew' then self-corrected) "Good fixing."

After Leira finished reading the story, Nancy asked her if she thought the bird was going to be okay. In the story, Coco's owners bought the cat a bell that they put on its collar. Nancy talked with Leira about why they would do that. Leira understood that the bell would warn birds of Coco's approach. Nancy then asked Leira, "What could we write about this story today?"

Leira started to talk about how Coco first caught and killed a bird. She said, "Dad and Rosie were sad that the bird was dead."

Nancy immediately said, "Yes, they were sad. Let's write that."

Nancy took a small exercise book with Leira's name on it from the shelf behind the guided reading table. There were other sentences in the book, one or two on each page. Nancy turned to a new page and asked Leira to say what she was going to write again and then handed Leira a pencil. As Leira wrote out the story, she knew how to write most of the words. Nancy helped her with the words 'were' and 'because' but then had Leira practice writing those two words several times on a small whiteboard, telling her, "I want you to remember how to spell this word. That's a word you'll need to write all the time."

Once Leira finished writing the sentence. Nancy had her reread it out loud as she copied it onto a small strip of construction paper. Nancy then took a pair of scissors and cut the sentence

into individual words and also cut the period off so it was on its own piece of paper. Nancy mixed up the sequence of words and then passed them to Leira who immediately began to reassemble the sentence correctly. When she finished, Nancy asked her to reread it one more time to check that she was correct. To finish the lesson, Nancy told Leira she had done a great job and sent her back to her desk with *Coco's Bell* to practice during her self-selected reading time.

Next, Nancy called a group of three students to the guided reading table. One of the students was away from school the last day the group met, so Nancy asked the other two to talk about the non-fiction text a book about African animals they had finished last time.

Nancy had a new non-fiction text today about how chalk was made. To introduce the text, Nancy told the group that the book gave directions for how to make chalk. She wanted everyone to read the text and then tell her how someone would make chalk.

As the students all began reading their own copy of the text, Nancy got up and walked around the outside of the horseshoe table. She looked over each student's shoulder, one at a time as they read and prompted them:

(utensils) "Say the sounds" "What are utensils?" (Student doesn't know, Nancy told him)

"Spatula – That's a cool word."

"What colors would you make?"

"Why would have to wash the plastic container in between?"

When all three students finished the text, Nancy got them to discuss how to make chalk and asked them some additional questions:

"What were the ingredients?"

"Do you know what plaster of Paris is?"

"What two colors would you mix to get orange…green…purple?"

"What would you mix to get pink…brown?"

Nancy called one more group of four students to the guided reading table. She started with a new text about tree kangaroos. Nancy talked about the text before the students began reading. She asked the group if they thought this text would be fiction or non-fiction. She pointed out that non-fiction often has photos and diagrams. She also explained about text bullets, "These green dots are called bullets. They are listing information in point form. They use a bullet for every different point."

This group each read their own text, but Nancy stopped them at the end of each section (usually one or two pages) to talk more about the information and vocabulary on each page. On one page they discussed a picture of a baby tree kangaroo in its mother's pouch. Nancy added, "It's a marsupial. Marsupial is a kind of mammal. It means the mother has a pouch to keep her babies in."

Nancy checked if the group understood the word 'appearance' and asked the students where the text told them where tree kangaroos lived (map) and how far that was from Canada. She demonstrated how tall 50 cm was by showing the group with her hands the approximate height from the top of the table. Just before the students left for recess, Nancy asked them if the tree kangaroo was a carnivore, herbivore, or omnivore.

On just over half of my classroom observations, Nancy's class was scheduled for Writer's Workshop, which Nancy offered on alternated days with guided reading. On those days, when the class gathered on the carpet after the opening calendar activities and the daily shared poetry reading, most of Nancy's teaching centered on writing.

During one visit on a writing day, Nancy's class had just received a package of butterfly chrysalises that they were going to hatch in the classroom. Once the class settled on the carpet, Nancy took out a fresh sheet of chart paper and asked the students for ideas that they could write about the shipment. As the students gave ideas, Nancy wrote them down, sometimes asking for clarification or extension and sometimes discussing how she would solve a word. She suggested to the class that 'few' rhymed with 'new' which was a word many of them knew. She also asked the students to clap as they said longer words (yesterday, special, delivery, Styrofoam, inside, caterpillars, sunshine) so that they could isolate the syllables. Then she asked the class to say each syllable slowly, listen for the sounds they heard, and suggest letters she could write to represent those sounds. Nancy took a similar approach to the words 'touch' and 'bright', asking the class to do a sound analysis by first saying the words slowly and then suggesting how she could spell them. Sometimes Nancy would supply the correct spelling or ask, "What other letters could make those sounds?"

Nancy announced that two students had completed pieces of writing in Writer's Workshop and she asked them to read their finished stories to the class. One student wrote about a hockey game, and the other student's story was about his dog and a trick he had learned. The class applauded after each reading but, unlike other writing days I observed, Nancy didn't invite any feedback from the other students about the stories.

Before they headed off, Nancy reminded each writing group what stage of writing they were working on. One group was drafting ideas, two groups were drafting, she would see one group that was revising and editing, and another group was working on publishing. Once the

groups were started, Nancy called one student to come to the horseshoe table to conference[25] with her about the piece he was writing. Nancy asked him to read her his story. Nancy complimented him on his good idea and showed him how to write the word "said". She asked him to practice writing it himself in the margin of his writing exercise book, where he had written his draft. She then asked him for more detail about one of the characters, "What did this other boy look like?"

When the student answered her question, "He was tall and skinny", Nancy immediately said, "That's a good idea, you should write that down" and sent him back to his desk to work on adding more details to the rest of the story.

With the second student, Nancy spent most of the conference showing her how to use quotation marks and start a new line for dialogue between the characters. She told her the spelling of 'afraid' and corrected the last part of 'introduce.' Nancy praised the work on that word, "You did a great job of sounding out that word – let me show you what the ending looks like."

Nancy called a third student, and while he got ready and came over to the horseshoe table, Nancy took a moment to record some notes about what she talked about during the conferences with the first two students in a binder she had next to her on the table. Nancy had a section in the binder for each student with a form she had made to record the events of a writing conference. Nancy began by having the third student read his story to her as well. As he read, Nancy prompted:

"You have great ideas here."

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[25]The teacher meets with one student to discuss, assess the student's progress, or set goals around a read or written text.

"In this word, 'welcome', 'come' is just like 'some'."

"You are doing much better with leaving spaces between your words."

"What did you miss?" (student has 'creeps' for 'creepers')

"That was very close." (student has 'bilt' for 'built')

"Say it slowly and try to write it." (student wants to write 'skeleton')

After she finished the three conferences, Nancy circulated around the room and asked some students to read what they had so far. Sometimes, she talked to a student and asked them to extend their idea, saying, "Tell me more about that" or "I have a question about what you told me so far." As the recess bell rang, Nancy announced, "Great work today everyone. Put away your writing and you can get ready for recess. After recess, come in quickly because you have gym."

Nancy's Transferal of Reading Recovery Procedure and Language

I observed Nancy using both procedures and language that appeared similar to those used in Reading Recovery. Nancy felt that she had appropriated procedures from Reading Recovery training and was applying what she had learned as she taught Language Arts in the classroom. "I started working with students even outside of Reading Recovery in a different manner because I was applying all of those things to all the students I was working with" (Initial Interview).

I observed Nancy employing Reading Recovery-like procedures within different contexts in her classroom (whole group=28; small group=15; one student=31) and as she taught both reading and writing (reading=40; writing=26; reading/writing=4). Additionally, Nancy adopted 21 procedures during multiple classroom activities (e.g., I observed Nancy using the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure during demonstration writing, teacher/student conferencing, shared writing, and guided reading).

Some of the procedures that Nancy used appeared to be directly transferred, without modification, from Reading Recovery. Schunk (2004) described this type of learning transfer as *low road*, meaning that a learner directly imports a skill from the original learning milieu and reproduces an intact procedure in a different context. In Nancy's classroom, she had applied assessment techniques: the Concept about Print task from the Observation Survey (Clay, 2002) and the taking and analyzing of Running Records following the conventions used by Reading Recovery teachers. Nancy reported that she took Running Records with all of her class, but more frequently with her EAL students, as she felt she had to keep a more detailed tracking of their reading development (March 22 Interview). Nancy felt that the Concepts about Print assessment was ideal for any new EAL students (who understood enough English to complete the task) so that she could assess their understanding of the rules of English print. During my observations, Nancy had a new Mandarin-speaking student join the class and Nancy was curious to explore his experience and knowledge of English print, knowing it varied greatly from the Chinese system of writing.

Nancy had also incorporated more of an individual approach to both her reading and writing instruction. She had made hearing her EAL students read to her one-on-one a priority in her daily routine. As well, she described taking a more individualized approach when teaching her whole class writing:

> *One of the things that's definitely changed is the writing is much more individual. Rather than having a set thing that everybody's going to write about, most of the time the kids choose their own topics and decide to write about something that they want.* (April 11 Interview)

Nancy held the perspective that Reading Recovery had shifted her away from instructing the whole class the same lesson, towards smaller group and more personalized programs. "So there's a lot more diversification in my teaching methods with individual students and a lot more individualized stuff that I do with the kids, right across the board" (May 30 Interview).

Nancy also had adopted the practice of drawing on a conversation with a student to generate ideas for writing from Reading Recovery. Nancy stated:

> *That's definitely from my Reading Recovery training because [Reading Recovery students] do that little piece of writing and you have to talk first and get a conversation started so that they'll something that they want to write. And that's definitely something that I do with all the kids. Even the kids before they leave the carpet, they have to tell me what [they] are going to write about.* (April 4 Interview)

I observed Nancy use this procedure during shared and demonstration writing in front of the whole class, when she conferenced with individual students in Writer's Workshop, and when she added a writing component (similar to a Reading Recovery lesson) to individual guided reading lessons with EAL students.

During guided reading and teacher read-aloud times, I watched Nancy orient children to a new text and wondered if that procedure also stemmed from Reading Recovery. I asked her if she had changed her approach to how she introduced new books. She reported that she now previewed texts to "specifically look at things that might be difficult for [a] group of readers" (March 22 Interview). Now, Nancy tailored her introductions of new texts saying that she would "point out anything if they [she thought needed] scaffolding into text."

Nancy felt that she had taken up a Reading Recovery-like approach to teaching her students how words work and drew analogies between words to help her students apply their known vocabulary to solving new words in both reading and writing activities. She explained:

> *And we would do the kinds of things where you change the initial sound and say what other words look like this that we can think of, and we do all that kind of stuff, which is the same kind of thing that I would with Reading Recovery with my kids in one-on-one.* (March 22 Interview)

In guided reading and writing, Nancy was more deliberate in teaching students a variety of means to solve words (May 30 Interview). She often drew their attention to different approaches they could take:

> *So when I'm listening to them reading out loud I can see what kind of word solving strategies they're using and then – sometimes at the end of a lesson there's something that two or three of the kids have said that was a tough word. Then we'll talk about solving that one word. "How did you solve that word? What strategies did you use?" And we'll work on that and specifically talk about that. Kids often, when they're reading don't think about how they're reading a word. So actually talking with them about that I think is a very useful thing to do.* (April 17 Interview)

I also watched Nancy incorporate the cut-up story procedure in a guided reading lesson with one of her EAL students. In Reading Recovery lessons, the teacher wrote out a sentence that the student has just written about a text onto a strip of paper. The teacher then cut the sentence into individual words or word parts and had the student reassemble and reread the scrambled message. To me, it appeared that this practice directly replicated part of a Reading Recovery lesson and I asked Nancy about this:

JS: *Is that something you did before you trained in Reading Recovery?*

Nancy*: No, never. Never. No. That's something that I learned when I was doing the Reading Recovery training. I thought this is a wonderful idea to do that cut-up, because they really have to focus on the aspects of the text. . . so doing that cut-up thing is something I've been doing with them for a while. And that is definitely from my Reading Recovery training.* (April 17)

Nancy also used children's books from the approved list of Reading Recovery materials. She selected certain texts that she felt were a good fit to her students' experiences for guided reading (March 22 Interview) and had file folders with many Reading Recovery texts from which the class selected books for their home reading. I noted and Nancy verified that the outsides of the file folders were labeled with Reading Recovery book levels (i.e. a numbered system as opposed to letters). Nancy had organized many of the texts into the files by following the text level suggestions in the Canadian Reading Recovery booklist[26].

Nancy commented that in her opinion, some Reading Recovery procedures could be adapted for use in a classroom setting. "So that kind of stuff would come from the thing that I did with the Reading Recovery children, which is not quite the same as the large group, but still the same principles can apply for working a larger group" (May 30 Interview).

For example, Nancy often had her whole class practice writing a word with the intention of adding it to their known vocabulary. While Reading Recovery teachers keep ongoing records of

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[26]Refers to the listing of texts approved for use in Reading Recovery. The Canadian Reading Recovery approved booklist differs from its American counterpart in that it is not available for purchase or free viewing and is only distributed to active Reading Recovery personnel through the Canadian Institute of Reading Recovery. The U.S. version is available to view online by paid members of the Reading Recovery Council of North America. (www.rrcna.org)

their students' known vocabulary in both reading and writing, Nancy did not feel this was practical in a whole class setting:

> *And that's another thing from Reading Recovery is developing that bank of known words that I want all my kids to have. And so if they come across a word in their writing that I find that they don't know – and it's a word that they should know like 'was' or 'has' or 'have' or 'want' or one of those words they use all the time – then we practice that word so that they'll be able to access that more easily the next time. And that's definitely from my Reading Recovery training where we have that bank – now I don't keep for my kids, because I have the whole class full here, I don't keep for them each a word bank where I've written down the words that they've mastered, but from looking at their writing I can see the ones that they've got.* (April 11 Interview)

I also observed Nancy use Clay's (2002) conventions for taking a Running Record as she administered Fountas and Pinnell's (2011) *Benchmark Assessment System*, using one of the pre-printed teacher forms. Nancy recorded her conventions overtop of the provided pre-printed copy of the text. On the day I observed her, Nancy imported a Reading Recovery practice into the reading assessment. Before having the student start to read, Nancy took time to orient the student to the book. This action broke from the instructions of the assessment. According to the directives, for each text, the teacher provides a very short, standard introduction that is printed for the teacher on the assessment form to every student. I chose not to question Nancy about her decision to add a Reading Recovery-like orientation to this standardized assessment as I did not want to affect her future teaching when I was present or lead her to think that I was evaluating her.

Nancy felt that other Reading Recovery procedures had a less obvious presence but nonetheless influenced what she did in her classroom. For example, she noted that post-Reading Recovery training, she was more likely to model reading expressively and fluently with her whole class (May 30 Interview). Similarly, due to Reading Recovery, she thought she took a more conscious and structured approach to developing students' independence in writing:

> *We have to do this and do this together. We have to get ready to do it, go off and do it independently. And that was something that I incorporated in this thing too. When I'm doing my writing I don't just write and then, "OK, now you guys go write." I have to talk about, I have to remember I need a capital, I have to leave a space here. How would I solve this word? And all of those strategies are things that I've pulled out of the Reading Recovery training.* (April 4 Interview)

Nancy also credited her training to building one of her EAL student's confidence writing in English. Incorporating a writing component into her guided reading lessons, mirroring the Reading Recover framework, Nancy believed, made a great impact:

> *She [an EAL student] found, like she was reading fairly well because she had really good decoding skills, but she didn't have the confidence to do any writing on her own. And since we started doing this she does a lot more writing independently and doesn't, like before she was just scared to try anything because she didn't think that she could do it. But, that is definitely from my Reading Recovery training, doing that kind of stuff.* (May 9 Interview)

Nancy also described another less obvious shift in her method of Language Arts instruction in that she now endeavored to provide all of her students, especially EAL and struggling students, as many opportunities as possible to read and write. "That is definitely the carry-over

from the Reading Recovery training, because of course, that's a big part of Reading Recovery is doing the daily writing with kids." (April 4 interview)

She no longer took a "Round Robin" approach in guided reading, but now had every student read the complete text. She recalled, "When I first started doing guided reading often I would have the kids read sections rather than have all the kids read all the book, which is what I do now." (Initial Interview)

Part of Nancy's daily routine always included the shared reading of poetry. Each day, she or the students would select familiar poems to read again as part of the whole class reading time. She supported this practice saying:

> *That's one of the reasons we do the poetry every morning is because we're all reading the same thing. If you are maybe not sure about some of the words you can just listen to what your neighbor is saying and you get that repetition, and it's a very non-threatening kind of situation for it.* (May 30 Interview)

As I listened to Nancy teach, several of the prompts she offered her students and the language she used when discussing her students and literacy in general (e.g., Nancy quoted part of Clay's definition of reading during the May 16 interview) reminded me of Reading Recovery. I heard familiar sounding prompts during Nancy's guided reading, shared reading, teacher read-alouds, individual assessment, shared writing, Writer's Workshop, and teacher/student conferencing. Nancy infused Reading Recovery language into her discussion and directions in front of the whole class and small groups. She also used Reading Recovery-like prompts when she spoke to individual students. I heard Nancy use these types of prompts in both reading and writing activities with her class.

During the follow-up interviews, Nancy did not speak a great deal about the influence of Reading Recovery training to the language that she used in her class (Table 8.1). In the interviews, Nancy described taking a different approach in how she spoke with students to generate ideas in writing (April 4 and May 30 Interviews). Additionally, Nancy seemed certain that prompts she was using in reading instruction stemmed from her experience in Reading Recovery (Interview March 22). Nancy also reported using prompts during guided reading, shared reading, teacher read-alouds and her writing instruction in her survey response. When asked to provide examples, she listed several prompts that could be used in a guided reading context.

Table 8.1

Nancy's Interview Comments Regarding Reading Recovery Training's Influence to Language

Comment	Date	Reading Recovery Concept/Principle
JS: I noticed lots of the prompts that you were using with the students today sounded really familiar. They sound like Reading Recovery language. Nancy: Oh definitely, definitely. I'm using that in the guided reading.	Mar 22	• Using prompts from Reading Recovery
JS: [you said to the student] "You just said this about your puppy. Write that." Nancy: Yeah and that's definitely from my Reading Recovery training.	April 4	• Drawing on a conversation for student's idea in writing
One is – and well, to use Reading Recovery language, one is a message getting system and one is a message delivering system.	May 16	• Referring to Clay's definition of reading/writing
If you're working one-on-one with Reading Recovery kids, of course, you can have a little conversation with them. So, I do the same thing with the big group. I have a conversation and say, "Well, I need to write this morning and I'm not sure what I'm going to write about, so let's talk about that."	May 30	• Drawing on a conversation for student's idea in writing

Congruence of Nancy's survey responses and classroom observations. In her survey response, Nancy reported nine different classroom activities in which she felt she had incorporated Reading Recovery's procedures or language. I observed examples of Nancy's use of Reading Recovery procedures in all nine of the contexts she mentioned in her survey response. I also heard examples of her using Reading Recovery language in most of the reported

classroom activities, with the exceptions of demonstration, home reading, and self-selected reading.

I also compared the Reading Recovery procedures and language that Nancy reported she now used in her classroom with those that I actually observed. I checked Nancy's survey responses to those that I had opportunity to observe. I witnessed nearly all of the procedures and language that Nancy stated she had made a part of her classroom practice. Many of these appeared in two or more different classroom activities. Additionally, I observed other aspects of Reading Recovery not reported in her survey.

Reading Recovery's Influence to Nancy's Knowledge and Beliefs

In the online survey and the post-classroom observation interviews, I asked Nancy to reflect on if and how Reading Recovery training had impact on her knowledge base supporting literacy instruction and the beliefs she carried about how to teach children to read and write.

Nancy spoke about several ways in which she thought Reading Recovery had enhanced her knowledge of literacy development and instruction. In her survey response, Nancy described a deeper, global understanding stemming from her exposure to Clay's (2005a. 2005b) theory of literacy development: "I am more aware of the development of the reading process…. I am more aware of how to approach different problems and what strategies need to be developed in effective readers."

Nancy found the opportunities to teach for her colleagues behind the glass very favorable to her developing a greater understanding how children learn to read and write and broadening her repertoire of teaching responses:

Having input from other people on what I was doing was very, very useful. Because me by myself, I am not going to think of all the things, and I'm not going to see all

the things that other people are going to. So that experience of being able to take a student behind the glass I found that very, very useful. (Initial Interview)

Having this knowledge, in Nancy's view, was particularly helpful for working with struggling students and something that she felt lacked from her earlier training:

But those kids that were really struggling, I didn't have a really good grasp of what exactly they were trying and what strategies I needed to work with them for. So the Reading Recovery made a huge difference in that. . . .Because it's so specific about the development of those reading abilities and those strategies that kids need to develop to become readers. And a lot of those were things that I hadn't really thought very much about before. (Initial Interview)

She later shared that she viewed literacy development theory as a core understanding for Grade 1 teachers, but also saw application of this knowledge across grades – even beyond primary ages:

Oh, I think I would probably use it in whatever grade that I was in. . . because you're always going to have those students that are going to be struggling. So, being able to identify what the problem area is and help them with that I think is really crucial…Certainly Reading Recovery for Grade 1 [teachers] – I think it's really important, lots of those kids in Grade 1 are learning to read, and in Grade 2 again, most of them are still learning to read. By Grade 3 you'll still have lots of kids that are still developing those basic strategies. It's not really solid with them yet. But even in the higher grades, we have kids in grade 7 and Grade 8 that are not competent readers, and so to have that Reading Recovery training I think would be a help in any of those grades. (May 30 Interview)

Nancy felt that an enriched understanding of literacy development better equipped her to design individual instruction (Survey). Having this understanding "that different students require different instruction to meet their needs" led Nancy to move away from having students take turns in guided reading and led her shift her attention from student to student and respond to them individually as they all read a text simultaneously (March 22 Interview). Additionally, she felt Reading Recovery training developed "doing a book introduction, doing the scaffolding process with the kids" and to consider the structure of language found in texts and bridge the text to the discourse spoken by the students.

Nancy also described how she felt she had improved in her capacity to analyze Running Records and apply that analysis to her teaching:

> *I think definitely that's something that I didn't do before I did the Reading Recovery. It was sort of, you know, you had your groups to read with, but those struggling students I certainly couldn't analyze their problems the way that I can now.* (March 22 Interview)
>
> *Well, I think one of the really big things definitely was analyzing reading strategies using the Running Record with the kids. . . . I think that was really key because now when I read with students, even if I'm reading with them in a group, I'm listening to them individually, and I can identify the strategies that they're using and identify strategies that they need to develop. And if I had not had the Reading Recovery training I certainly would not be doing that with my reading students. So, that's my huge, huge thing.* (May 30 Interview)
>
> *I mean I sort of do that in my head as I'm going along anyway, but because I'm noticing, "Oh yeah she self-corrected here, oh she's just looking at the beginning of*

the text here, she's using meaning here but not those other things." So I kind of do that in my head all the time just as a regular habit even if I'm not writing it down. (March 22 Interview)

Nancy also felt that Reading Recovery changed her understanding of writing instruction and she saw application of that knowledge in the classroom. "But the Reading Recovery training has helped me to stop and think about what the kids are seeing when they're doing their own writing. What is it that I do automatically that they're still learning to do?" (April 4 Interview). Nancy described now recognizing the reciprocity of reading and writing processes:

I didn't focus so much on the connection before I did the Reading Recovery training. And when I did that, I realized that – and for a lot of kids, that's something really helps develop their reading skills – is to actually use those words in the writing of those words and suddenly it makes them more aware of the print and the text. So, they're able to pick up more easily on cues in the text of what they're reading – if they've been actually using those same kind of things in their writing. (May 16 Interview)

Nancy described replacing sequenced programs to an approach with a new driver. "I know that with every child you need to start with what they know, and work from there" (Survey). Nancy felt that Reading Recovery had imparted the skills she needed to be able to deliver differentiated writing instruction to a class of wide-ranging backgrounds and abilities:

The other thing, I think, is in taking students from what they already know and helping them move on to things that they don't yet know, especially with the writing part because I have writers of all different abilities in here. Some of them don't have a lot of English to start with. Some of them just find it very difficult to

formulate sentences in their head to get them down on their paper. So, starting with something that they can do and helping them to work on the things they they're developing is another strategy that I picked up from the Reading Recovery that I think is key... (May 30 Interview)

Nancy's commentary in her survey and interview responses suggested that she attributed changes in her beliefs about literacy instruction to having trained in Reading Recovery. Nancy described the Reading Recovery training as intensive but, in her opinion, worthwhile because it had improved her effectiveness as a literacy teacher. In her initial interview, Nancy spoke about feeling she had grown as a teacher:

I think being committed to doing the best that I could for all of my students was always a strength that I had, although I may not have had particulars for the strategies that I could identify in each student to help them on. I feel that I'm much more competent at that now since I've had my Reading Recovery training.

When I asked her what it was in particular about Reading Recovery training that made it beneficial to her, Nancy replied:

So, that part was very useful from the Reading Recovery training. And having that time to work one-on-one with kids and see them develop and see them grow and watch those different strategies come into place…because if you can't work one-on-one with kids you don't really have a chance to develop those things. (March 22 Interview)

And that constant input and a chance to talk to other people that are also doing that program was just invaluable. Because you can do reading on your own, and you can

> *do stuff on your own, but it's the group support and the input from other people that really developed the growth in the program.* (April 11 Interview)

After training, a keystone shift, according to Nancy, was moving away from the notion of following a prescribed sequence of learning for all learners, and taking up a more formative stance to designing literacy instruction. In her May 30 interview, Nancy described this shift towards building on the known as influential to her approach across all subject areas:

> *So, starting with something that they can do and helping them to work on to the things that they're developing is another strategy that I picked up from the Reading Recovery that I think is key, and not just in reading and writing, but that transfers to math. It transfers to things that we're doing in science, all the things that we're doing.*

Nancy continued to say that this viewpoint led her to look at student difficulties in a new light:

> *I think it's more of a mindset thing because one of the key things of Reading Recovery, of course, is that every child can learn more than they know right now, and I don't think I really thought about things that way before I had the Reading Recovery training. . . Because you always identify kids that have problems, you know, kids that are struggling. But to, you sort of view it from being a problem. It's a different thing from saying, OK now, what can this child do and how can I help him move on to the next part? That's, it's like a different, a different view of how to address things, and I think that's a crucial thing in everything that we do with our kids.*

Rather than centering on the difficulty as a deficit within the child, Nancy had shifted her focus to what all of her students were able to do. She now chose to worry less about what was wrong with a student, and to concentrate on what she could to do next to assist:

> *So, think I focus more now on not, "Oh this child can't do this. I would give this to him," right, to, "OK, what part can this child do?" OK And I can help him get on to these other parts. . . And to be able to think, OK, what not, what can this [student] not do, but what can this student do and be able to work from there. I think is a really, really, important attitude.*

Looking at her students through a more diagnostic versus a prescriptive lens went hand in hand with Nancy's newfound tendency to consider her class, especially struggling students, more individually and look for different ways to engage different learners:

> *But before I took the Reading Recovery training a lot of it was like, this what we're writing about today, or this is a set piece, or this is whatever and not so much their own writing and their own stories. And that really changed after I did the Reading Recovery because if kids, especially kids that are struggling writers, if they can come up with their own story that's much more powerful for them and much more useful for developing their writing skills.*
>
> (April 11 Interview)

When working with struggling students, Nancy adopted a Reading Recovery mindset in terms of prioritizing daily instruction and feeling a sense of urgency to provide her lowest students with as many reading opportunities as possible:

> *I know that it's important, especially with my lowest readers, to read with them every day, especially if I'm not sure that they're having anybody at home that's really reading with them.* (March 22 Interview)

Perhaps because she felt Reading Recovery training benefitted her practice, Nancy recommended training to other primary teachers (Survey) and advocated that Reading Recovery training (or at least some components) be included in undergraduate teacher training:

> *One of the things certainly at [the primary level], the literacy is such a huge part of teaching at this age, because they're still developing those skills. So, one of the things that I really hope [student teachers] will have is some idea of how to help the kids develop those skills. . . And if I had not had that Reading Recovery training I certainly would not be doing that with my reading students. So, that's my huge, huge thing. And if I were to have a recommendation to our people at university for training for our primary teachers coming out, is that they really get thoroughly trained in taking and analyzing a Running Record. I think that's probably one of the key things and one of the most important things.* (May 30 Interview)

Nancy's Integration of Reading Recovery Learning into Her Classroom Literacy Instruction

Nancy greatly valued her experience training in Reading Recovery, describing it as "extremely helpful," "very useful," and that she "would recommend it for all primary teachers" (Survey; May 30 interview). In Nancy's case, she attributed two major shifts in her approach to classroom literacy instruction to her experience training in Reading Recovery:

1) She strongly agreed with Reading Recovery's premise that all children were ready to learn more than they presently knew and could do so if provided appropriated instruction (i.e. Building on the known).
2) She developed a deeper understanding of how, according to Clay (2005a, 2005b), children emerge into literacy and how teachers can support their construction of reading and writing processes.

Enacting the tenet of building on the known and drawing upon a deeper knowledge of literacy development led Nancy to repurpose many procedures and language from Reading Recovery and steered her overall design of her Language Arts program. Working with slower-progress and EAL students more frequently and individually, providing many opportunities for her whole class to read familiar text, and read and write texts in student-centered environments (i.e. guided reading, Writer's Workshop) all reflected Nancy's Reading Recovery-influenced gravitas on designing appropriate, individual instruction.

Nancy believed that her deeper understanding of literacy development changed the way she thought as she listened to students read. She described thinking as though analyzing a Running Record as each student read, which she thought made her more effective in her interactions coaching children. Drawing on Clay's theory, she felt better prepared to address the learning needs of a wider range of learners.

Nancy found many of the procedures and prompts used by Reading Recovery teachers compatible or adaptable within a variety of classroom activities. While Nancy tended to look for as many opportunities as she could to work individually with her class, especially her struggling and EAL students, I observed her infuse procedures and language from Reading Recovery into her whole class and group instruction. Many times during small group and individual interactions

in guided reading, I heard Nancy offer prompts mining the language suggested by Clay in the Reading Recovery training.

Nancy acknowledged that working in a classroom was different than working with children one-on-one in Reading Recovery, but felt she could apply procedures and language by preserving the underlying principles (i.e. Clay's theory and rationales behind the procedures) and modifying some procedures so that they could function in a group or whole-class setting. At other times, Nancy directly transferred a Reading Recovery procedure seamlessly into a reading or writing lesson. When asked about her application of procedures, Nancy often commented she had appropriated the facets of Reading Recovery that she felt would be useful to all of her students. She thought the intensity and the year-long Reading Recovery training had afforded her the opportunity to build competence and automaticity using many procedures. She described the experience of working one-on-one with children in Reading Recovery as potent to her own learning, because it allowed her to witness literacy development in Reading Recovery children in far greater detail than a classroom teacher can experience. Back in the classroom, Nancy felt teaching Reading Recovery children clarified what she should look for as other children constructed literacy processing systems and helped her pinpoint misunderstandings that some students develop.

Nancy felt that many of the procedures and their underlying theories had application across grades and subject areas, arguing that all teachers have students who struggle in literacy. She endorsed Reading Recovery training in particular for primary teachers and also felt that aspects of the training would be beneficial for future teachers in undergraduate programs.

Chapter 9: Susan's Case Study: "You're constantly observing and you're constantly processing what you see and then making the next steps and doing it immediately."

Susan had been a teacher for 25 years and was currently teaching Grade One/Two at Souris School, a K-12 rural school in Souris, Manitoba.

A Morning in Susan's Classroom

Susan and I waited for her class to enter her classroom as the morning announcements finished. Susan shared she felt very fortunate there was enough classroom space in the school that year for her to have her own room next to the Grade One/Two classroom in which she taught Reading Recovery, literacy support, and this class' guided reading. The classroom set-up reflected Susan' focus on literacy teaching – bean bag chairs for reading, many student books in leveled and themed tubs, tables and carpet area for group and whole class instruction, and many student-written charts about texts on display on the wall. (See Appendix F, Figure F3)

The class came into the room quietly, but many said good morning to both Susan and me. Susan had them sit together on the carpet. Looking at the 18 students in the room, 11 boys and 7 girls, I found it difficult to distinguish the 11 Grade Ones from 8 Grade Two students, with the exception of two taller boys and one girl I assume were in the higher grade. Susan had earlier pointed out that one of her Grade One boys, Jason, was receiving Reading Recovery lessons from her in addition to guided reading instruction in this class.

Once they settled, Susan held up a copy of the text that she had read to the class yesterday, *Little Rabbit's Loose Tooth* (Bate, 2010). She reviewed the story map they started yesterday which is on chart paper in front of the carpet. I noticed that students had been writing on the chart, not Susan. They had already filled in sections on characters, setting, and problem. Today,

they discussed the main events of the story, organizing them into the beginning, middle, and end and the solution to the main character, Little Rabbit's, problem. Susan chose two students who volunteered to fill in those sections of the chart when they went to work on writing during the upcoming literacy centres.

Susan takes out another text, *I'm Going on a Dragon Hunt* (Jones, 1987). Before she began to read it aloud, she said, "The author has used some 'jewel' words in this book. I want you to listen for them."

Susan stopped and drew the class' attention to some vocabulary from the text and discussed the meanings of words 'ravine,' 'thick,' and 'squelch.' She spent extra time discussing the word 'charged,' "Isn't that a great word 'charged'? It really gives you a good picture of how the boy is going through the grass. He just didn't run, he charged through the grass."

Susan dealt with features of the text by asking the class about how they should those pages: "Why do they keep doing the ellipsis? How should you read that?"

When there was a page with no text, Susan asked the class, "Who wants to read this picture? Could you use the word 'charge' when you read this picture?"

At the end of the story, Susan asked the class if the text reminded them of anything. Several of the students put up their hands and agree the text is similar to a chant, *Going on a Bear Hunt* that they learned in Music class. Susan asked them about this connection, and they show her the actions they learned in Music that accompany the chant. Susan wondered aloud if they could apply the same actions or make up new movements when they reread this book.

Susan then started her first round of guided reading. Amongst the three case study teachers I observed, Susan was the only one who had a posted schedule of her guided reading time in her classroom. Susan followed an alternating day schedule based on a framework developed by

Jamison Rog (2012) and had divided her class into five guided reading groups of four or five students. Susan had selected the groups based on the students' instructional reading levels and had groups that mixed Grade One and Grade Two students. Her guided reading time was divided into three rounds. Before each round, she assembled the class on the carpet for ten minutes of whole class instruction. Each round, she taught a different guided reading group, according to the schedule. When a group came to the horseshoe table for guided reading, Susan referred to this their "Teacher Time." As part of the schedule, Susan had chosen to see Group B, her lowest reading group, everyday. Susan had a file folder box for every student, which she called his or her "book box." In each box were the students' choices of books for Read to Self, books Susan had gave them during their guided reading lessons, and an exercise book where they kept drafts from the Work on Writing centre. At the end of each round, Susan insisted that the students clean up their centres and replace their book boxes on a tall shelf in the middle of the room before coming to the carpet. Susan told me she preferred this regular tidying up so that the room and the students stayed organized.

After seeing Susan for guided reading, each group completed what was called a "Must Do" in their next round. Susan assigned each group, at the end of their guided reading lesson, a reading or writing task drawing on a text they just read in the lesson. Susan intended that the "Must Do" activities gave the students additional practice reading the text or deepened their comprehension of the text. When not reading with Susan or completing a "Must Do", the other students had a choice of Daily 5 (Boushey & Moser, 2006) centres to work at independently.

For a couple of centres, Word Work and Listen to Someone Read, the students could choose to work with an iPad. Susan had three iPads that stayed in her classroom. Each of the iPads had folders of applications labeled for each centre. The students, if they opted to use an

iPad, chose applications that Susan had uploaded. Interestingly, during the times that I observed, the students rarely chose to use the iPads. Most often, they chose to read books, work on their writing, listen to recorded story on a CD player and follow the text, or work with the magnetic letters Susan had provided for Word Work.

Today, before Susan met her first group, she had each of the students (except the first guided reading group) tell her what centre they were going to in the first round. Susan recorded this on a clipboard. As she finished, she walked across to the room to the horseshoe table and said to the entire class, "You know what I expect – independence."

To begin, Susan had the group all take the same text out of their book box, *The Naughty Ann* (Randell, 1995), a text used in Reading Recovery. Susan told the group, "Let me see you practice, and I'm going to listen in."

As the students all read their own copy of the text, Susan shifted her attention from one student to the next and prompted:

"Why did you stop?"

"Try that again and look at the picture."

"The next page you don't need your finger, do you?"

"Good job, that didn't sound right."

"I like the way you changed your voice on the bold words."

(student has stopped after an error) "What are you going to do?"

(student went back and reread to self-correct) "Good."

"Give me the first sound."

"Now back up and think would make sense."

"Did that sound right?"

"What would sound right?"

(student read 'stand' for 'stay') I want you to read it again and think what would look right and make sense.

Susan wrote 'she' on a small whiteboard when student is stuck on 'shouted'.

"You went back and fixed it up."

"Try that again and read this part just like the Naughty Ann."

After the group has all finished the text, Susan asked them to tell her the main events of the story. She brought out another text *The Rescue* (Giles, 1997b), also listed on the Reading Recovery booklist. To introduce this text, Susan checked that the students knew what a helicopter was and showed them the illustration in the book. She asked them what they thought the word was on the helicopter in the picture ('Rescue') and why they thought it was there. As she spoke about the general events of the story, I noticed Susan use the same pattern of language found in the text (e.g., "crashing down on the rocks" "the family was lucky the helicopter came"). Before she asked the group to all start reading, she drew their attention to the illustration that showed the helicopter pilot and asked the group if they knew the word for 'the driver' of a helicopter. One student immediately said, "Pilot."

Susan asked the group to begin reading and again, slightly turned in her chair to face different students as they read. She offered prompts to the students as they went along:

"Where did they go for a walk?"

"Do you know what these guys are? (points at picture)

"What would make sense?"

"Look at the picture"

"Who's driving the helicopter?"

"What do you think he looked down at?"

"Does that make sense?"

"That doesn't sound right."

Susan praised the group's reading and asked them how they thought the family in the story had helped the stranded fisherman. She wondered how the group thought the family felt at the end of the story. For their Must Do in the next round, Susan told them to pair up with someone in the group and they would be going to the Read to Someone centre. They were to practice reading this text and make their voices sound like the different characters in the book. She walked over to the other side of the room where a set of wind chimes was hanging. She rang the chimes to signal the class to put away the first round centres and book boxes and join her on the carpet. The students began quietly cleaning up without any instruction from Susan.

Susan had a poster with a patterned poem about animal movements on the moveable chart at the front of the class (e.g., Worms wiggle. Turtles creep.). She asked the class to read it together as she listened. Susan complimented their expression and how they had changed their pace and voices to reflect the ellipses and the bold text in the poem. She then asked the class to find a rhyming word pairs in the poem (e.g., leap-creep, pounce-bounce, bump-jump). Susan took out a small index card and showed the class by covering the first letter or letters, that most of the rhymes in the pairs were spelled the same, except for 'leap' and 'creep'. Susan then suggested that the class could use the noun-verb pattern from this poem as a framework to write their own poem about animals: "In Work on Writing, you could write your own poems like this one. Tell me the animal and how they move. You can do this by yourself or with a friend."

Susan then had the students check in with her and recorded choices for students who were going to centres this round. As she was getting the class ready, the second guided reading

group had made their way to the horseshoe table. Susan spoke across the room and told them to take the text, *Teddy Bear for Sale* (Herman, 1996) that they had already read, out of their book boxes and to start practicing.

When the rest of the class has started their next centre, Susan joined the guided reading group who was already reading the text. Without saying anything, Susan opened a binder on the table, and starts taking a Running Record of the first student's reading. Susan did not say anything to the student until she had a page full of conventions, mostly accurate reading. She quietly said, "Good job" to the first student and then moved to listen to other students in the groups where I heard her prompt:

Are there marks that tell you someone is talking?"

"I see some different letters. Try that again and make sure it makes sense."

"Wait – show me the first sound."

"Give me the first sound."

Susan seemed to be more supportive when she listened and prompted the third student than others in the group. I noticed she was turning the pages for him and encouraging him to keep reading, returning his attention to the text, and refocusing him when his comments were off topic.

Susan had a new text for this group as well, *Walking in the Spring* (Randell, 1998). This was the third text today that I recognized as part of the texts often used in Reading Recovery. In a very quick orientation, Susan reminded the group that next week was going to be the first day of Spring. She asked them to think about how things change when Spring arrived and added, "This is a non-fiction book, so you're going to learn all about Spring."

Rather than read this book together, Susan assigned the group to read this text to themselves during the next round as their Must Do. To signal the end of the round, Susan rang the wind chimes again and waited for the class to clean up and return one final time to the carpet.

Susan started this whole-class time by asking if anyone noticed someone who was doing a good job of working independently at the centres. Susan next asked if anyone wanted to share the work they had done in the last round of centres. One boy had been to Work on Writing and had taken Susan's suggestion to try writing his own animal poem. One of his lines in the poem was "Rhinos charge."

Susan picked up on the vocabulary and said, "I love the word 'charge'; it's just like *Going on a Dragon Hunt.* That's a great word. Rhinos charge. Did you guys notice how he used another author's jewel word? That's how you can get to be a better writer. Great. Great."

Another student read the words he made on a cookie sheet with magnetic letters at the Word Work station (come, stay, his name, like, look, book, took, love, play). Susan asked the class to tell which of these words rhyme, saying "Do they sound the same and look the same at the end this time?"

The class checked in for one more round of centres. A final group of five students sat down at the guided reading table and as Susan requested, started reading *Father's Bear Surprise* (Randell, 1997a). I noted again that this is a text often used in Reading Recovery lessons. Susan joined the group and started listening to the students as they read. She prompted:

"Does it make sense?"

"Where is the long box?"

Student: That doesn't make sense.
Susan: "OK, so what do you do? Try that again and think what would make sense."

(student read 'didn't' for 'don't) Student: It looks like didn't.

Susan: "I like how you stopped when it didn't sound right."

"What would Father Bear say?"

"Give me the first sound in that word."

"Break that word. Break it with your finger"

Susan wrote and showed student 'play' on sticky note when student is solving 'stay'. Student solves the word.

Susan wrote and showed student 'see' on sticky note when student is solving 'weeks'. Student solves the word.

"Does it make sense – firewood?"

"Keep those fingers out."

Student moved student's hand away from text.

Susan demonstrated return sweep for layout that confused student. There was text at the top of left and right page. Student read across to right page rather than return sweep at end of first line on the top of left page.
"Try that again."

"What's the first sound here?"

Susan wrote and showed student 'he' on a sticky note when student is working on 'his'. Student solved the word.

"Does that sound right?"

"Caming back. What do you think?"

"Where was the long box? Look at the picture."

"Give me the first sound."

"What would look right and make sense?"

"Does that make sense – that Baby Bear is going to find more food?"

"What kind of wood?"

"I want you to make this part sound like talking."

"I'll show you." Teacher reads a part of text.

"Did that sound like talking?

When the group finished reading, Susan told them that they should take that book home and practice it as part of their home reading. Susan asked the whole group, "There were a lot of words with 'ee' in the text. Do you remember one?" (three). She then directed the group to practice spelling some words with 'ee':

"Let's write that word ('three') on your whiteboards."

"Say it slowly. What do you hear? Let me hear you."

"Let's take our finger, run it under there and check it carefully."

"I'll write it slowly. Watch me."

"Let's see you write down 'weeks'. Say it slowly."

"If you can write 'see' you can write 'weeks'.

"If you're done, try 'asleep'. Say it slowly. As you say it, listen to what you're saying and write it down."

"I'm going to slowly say it, listen, and write it down. Watch me."

Susan had a new text, *The Babysitter* (Randell, 1997b) that she would ask the students to read by themselves during their Must Do in the next round. Susan asked the group if they had ever had a grandparent as the babysitter, because that's what happens in this book, Poppa is the babysitter. She continued, "Something happens to Poppa and Tom has to be brave."

Susan flipped to a page that showed a conversation between Tom and the 911 Operator. The page is laid out like a comic strip with speech bubbles. Susan went through how to read that page and that the characters would take turns speaking. Susan added, "You see that they're talking here. So when you read this page, think about how Tom and the operator would say

things. I wonder if you can make them sound different. Remember Tom is a little boy and the operator is a grown-up. I can't wait to hear you read this to me next time. So tomorrow, for your must do, you can practice reading this book."

Susan walked over to ring the chimes one final time. As the students cleaned up, she announced, "OK everyone, once you've cleaned up, it's time for recess. Great work today, I will see you tomorrow!"

Susan's Transferal of Reading Recovery Procedures and Language

Susan found that procedures and language from her Reading Recovery training could be applied to her classroom literacy instruction. She referred to mining her experience teaching Reading Recovery as a guide to what she could in the classroom: "I always think in terms of, 'Ok, what is it in a Reading Recovery lesson?' And then I try to hit pieces of it" (April 30 Interview).

I observed Susan using Reading Recovery-like procedures in her classroom as she worked with her whole class (N=28), small groups (N=25), and individual students (N=4). As Susan taught her class' guided reading, and another teacher ran a Writer's Workshop, I observed nearly all reading instruction (N=39). However, I also witnessed her use some of the writing procedures when Susan incorporated writing into her whole class instruction and guided reading lessons (writing =3, reading/writing=13).

Susan had applied 16 Reading Recovery procedures into multiple classroom activities. For example, I observed Susan orienting students to a new text in a manner similar to Reading Recovery in guided reading, shared reading, and when she read texts aloud to the class.

In my follow-up interviews, I asked Susan to reflect on which procedures she felt were new to her practice as a result of training in Reading Recover. Some appeared to directly

replicate the procedures found in a Reading Recovery lesson or as Schunk (2004) described, a *low road* transfer.

Susan described modeling the way she introduced texts to her class in guided, shared, and read-aloud settings after the orientation process used in Reading Recovery:

> *But now, and this is straight from Reading Recovery, I don't even open [the book], unless they're really struggling and I want to show them some of the structures in the story. I won't even open the book. We'll just talk about the cover and maybe the little illustration on the back and maybe the title page, and then just verbally give them the structure. Just to have the kids, first of all, familiar with the plot, like what's happening in the story, and the vocabulary, and just to give them a bit of heads-up on what's going to be coming in this story. And also, I look at it and I look at the book and I think, "OK, what do I think may cause some problems when they're reading?" And I know that new books should, there should be a lot of familiar print in it with that tiny bit of challenge, and the challenge is what my intro, I try and make it so that they're prepared for that challenge.* (March 15 Interview)

Susan had adopted the practice of going beyond a quick review of the main events of the story and had began to more carefully consider how her students would respond or be challenged by texts she had selected.

Susan also described taking a Reading Recovery approach to selecting her texts for students in guided reading:

> ***Susan:*** *And I had just grabbed [a book she later replaced] because I was in a hurry and I gave it to them and then I went, "OK, by that face, not a good fit book!"*
>
> *[laughs]*

> ***JS:*** *But that kind of sounds like Reading Recovery where you're selecting a book for a particular student…*
>
> ***Susan:*** *Because of what you know about them. And like for my boys, and that's why we're doing so much research, is because they're really, really into the non-fiction books right now. They just, well you see, you put bug books out and they just grabbed them up and were right away into reading them.* (May 8 Interview)

As well, she applied this procedure to texts for the whole class to read together in shared reading:

> *I picked that poem, and of course we don't have much exposure to subways, we don't have any! But I knew they could relate it to the trains because there's tons of trains around here. But I picked it for the words, like 'rumble, rumble'. I wanted to get into that kind of vocabulary.* (May 8 Interview)

Susan had taught her class the Hearing and Recording Sounds procedure as a means of solving words in shared and individual writing that they completed in centres. She felt that this would be a useful technique for a pre-service teacher who spent part of the day with Susan when she taught the class' guided reading:

> *And I just said to [student teacher] just maybe get them to use the words, like put down the sounds you hear. And I even showed her how to do those boxes, the sounds boxes and the letter boxes. And I said, "That's a really good way to get them to visually see the different sounds in the words." And so all those techniques I kind of, when she comes to me with a question, now it's the Reading Recovery techniques that I'm showing her.* (March 21 Interview)

Other comments Susan made suggested that she had taken up Reading Recovery's practice of teaching items of knowledge as they appeared and were relevant in the midst of reading or

writing a text. Taking on this approach, Susan no longer gave her class as many worksheets or followed sequenced programs:

> ***Susan:*** *I never had time. [to see guided reading groups more frequently]*
>
> ***JS:*** *So how do you have time now?*
>
> ***Susan****: Because we're not doing those other programs. We're doing the sight word program and the phonics within what we're doing as whole class. Like, if we read a poem, that's when we do our phonics rather than worksheets and stuff like that.*
>
> (April 5 Interview)

During guided reading lessons, especially with slower-progress students, Susan often would have the groups read books that she had used in Reading Recovery. She stated that she preferred those texts as a support for her lower guided reading groups (March 15 Interview).

Susan also shared how she had adapted a number of procedures from Reading Recovery for use in her class. By considering her previous Reading Recovery learning in the light of the classroom context, Susan engaged in a *high road* (Schunk, 2004) type of transfer.

Susan felt as though she had rethought how she planned her literacy instruction. In the past, she tended to follow published programs and an established yearly routine of when and what to teach in reading and writing. Post Reading Recovery, she had taken up the practice of using children's responses as a guide of where to go next. Susan felt she was more systematic in observing what children were actually doing and planning her follow-up instruction according to those observations:

> *And I don't think, I paid attention but not specifically "this is what I'm looking for and this is what I'm going to use next time I work with that child." You observed it but you didn't record it and do something, you know what I mean. . ?*

> *You were giving them worksheets and you were doing guided reading, but I just wasn't looking for those kind of things all the time, and now I am.* (May 28 Interview)

Susan stated Reading Recovery "totally changed the way I set up my [guided reading] lessons. More focused on strategies" (Initial Interview). This focus on the building of strategic reading activity had become a new focus for Susan that she carried throughout the year. Now Susan described, "Making [students] more aware of how their reading sounds, whether it makes sense, whether it sounds right, and whether it looks right. And we've, right from September, been working on those strategies" (March 15 Interview).

Susan had also become more patient in her responding during guided reading in that she now gave more wait time when a child made an error:

> *I remember in the training, even if they were reading a page and say they made two or three, maybe four errors, just like in the familiar reads, just let them finish the page and then maybe just focus in on one that you really think is going to have the biggest impact.* (April 30 Interview)

Susan used this longer wait time before interjecting to give the child time to notice something on his own and to prioritize what she would address.

Susan also incorporated her analysis of Running Records in her planning. While I observed her taking a *Benchmark Assessment* (Fountas & Pinnell, 2011) mid-year with her class, Susan intended to use the Running Records' analysis to help her think about how best to interact with her students in guided reading.

JS: *Now that you've taken this Running Record with these kids on these benchmarks, are you going to do something differently now with them than you would have in the past?*

Susan: *Oh absolutely. Our guided reading lesson will be different – the interaction during teacher time will be different. It'll be more based on what I saw from this.* (March 6)

During the Benchmark Assessment, I noticed Susan praise successful problem-solving and do a small bit of teaching after each text the student read. This strayed from the directive of the assessment, and I asked Susan why she had chosen to do this:

JS: *I noticed you were praising and teaching a little bit after the Running Record today, which really, in the Benchmark Assessment, there's no expectation of that.*

Susan: *No, but that's Reading Recovery. You're praise point and teaching point – at least that's what I've been – after your Running Record and your lessons…I know you're not supposed to do any teaching [during an assessment] - at the end, I can't help it. I have to always say them what they've done really, really, well.* (March 6)

Susan felt that she had become more deliberate in fostering her class' independence. Something she had gleaned in Reading Recovery was not only striving for students' self-sufficiency but how to bring it to fruition:

I think independence was there, but I think it was more, "I've told you what to do now do it." I didn't foster the behaviour of independence. I just expected it, out of the blue, here now. (May 8 Interview)

In several of our post-observation discussions, Susan described how she now provided students more opportunities to write and read complete texts and how she endeavored to see her lowest group daily:

Oh no, I didn't give them the opportunity to write this much. (Initial Interview)

It's so hard to describe the difference, but I know definitely you would not have seen this kind of guided reading five years ago. In fact, I know I was doing round robin five years ago, one would read and [they would take turns] now I look back at that and go, "Oh, what was I thinking?" (March 15 Interview)

JS: *Now, is that a shift in terms of scheduling?*

Susan*: Oh absolutely.*

JS: *Would you in the past have had a particular group that you saw more frequently than other groups?*

Susan: *Oh yes, but not every day.* (April 5)

While Susan did not have a writing block during her teaching time, I observed and she discussed Reading Recovery's influence to the writing that was part of her guided reading program. Susan incorporated a Reading Recovery-like approach to her word work:

Like even the breaking words and the Word Work piece that's part of Reading Recovery, I try to bring it into the focus lessons just so that the kids, instead of, you know, trying to sound out words, it's more breaking the words into chunks and the endings all that kind of stuff. And I don't think I focused as much on that before I had the Reading Recovery training. (May 28 Interview)

As I observed Susan teaching, I not only noticed her implementing procedures that seemed to reflect Reading Recovery's practice. I also heard say things as she taught her class (i.e. guided

reading, shared reading, teacher read-aloud, reader's theatre, and self-selected reading) and when she assessed individual students in reading that echoed the language suggested in Reading Recovery training.

Susan reflected on her adoption of Reading Recovery language in her survey response and in the April 5 post-observation interviews (Table 9.1).

Table 9.1

Susan's Interview Comments Regarding Reading Recovery Training's Influence to Language

Comment	Date	Reading Recovery Concept/Principle
I use a lot of prompts all the time during guided reading.	Survey	• Using prompts from Reading Recovery
I've taught a lot of kids how to read, but the end goal was just they need to be able to read, right? And I never – it's not that I didn't understand but I wasn't specific on what they need to do to be able to read. You know, I gave them lots of opportunities and – but I never used the vocabulary. And I think that's the biggest thing, is the vocabulary that I now use.	April 5 Interview	• Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability • Using prompts from Reading Recovery
[The students] are understanding and they know to reread and they know the language. And so when you say to them, "Go back and make sure it sounds right, or it makes sense, or it looks right," they know what I'm asking them to do.	April 5 Interview	• Referring to sources of information when discussing children's ability • Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability

While Susan had success in the past teaching children to read, she felt that the vocabulary she took up was a very noticeable shift since she trained in Reading Recovery. Susan remarked that, in her assessment, the Reading Recovery language she now used and understood made her reading instruction clearer. Susan felt her students benefitted because the Reading Recovery prompts were more obvious to students in terms of what she wanted them to think about or what she wanted them to do as they read a text.

Congruence of Susan's survey responses and classroom observations. I examined Susan's reported import of Reading Recovery procedures and language from her survey response and compared those to what I saw and heard during the classroom observations. I recorded examples of Reading Recovery influences in all of the contexts that Susan mentioned in her

survey response, with the exception of Writer's Workshop – which she had not included in her classroom time that year.

In her survey responses, Susan reported that she had imported several Reading Recovery procedures and used similar language in her classroom instruction. I compared her reported adoption of these facets of Reading Recovery to my classroom observations to see which I had opportunity to observe, and in what classroom contexts Susan had implemented them. In my comparison of Susan's survey responses to my observations, I found examples of Susan's use of all of the procedures with the exception of 'Drawing on a conversation for a student's idea in writing.' In her survey, Susan mentioned her approach to writing instruction post-Reading Recovery training, but was not teaching the Writer's Workshop component of the class' literacy instruction that year. During the writing events that occurred in whole class instruction and guided reading, I did not witness Susan use this procedure.

I did find examples of Susan's reported use of Reading Recovery-like language. For several of the types of prompts, I found that she used them during two or more types of reading activities in the class.

Reading Recovery's Influence to Susan's Knowledge and Beliefs

Susan believed that training in Reading Recovery had impact on her understanding of children construct literacy processes. During her post-observation interviews and in her initial survey, she commented on what she felt she had learned as a result of undergoing the Reading Recovery training.

Susan described applying Clay's theory of literacy processing to the students that she saw in her classroom (Initial Interview; March 5 Interview; March 21 Interview). She stated, "I feel like I understand how kids learn to read more in-depth that I did before" (Initial Interview). She

saw application of Clay's theory across different groupings of students in the classroom and how that theory could reach into higher grades, especially to assist struggling readers:

> ***JS:*** *What was the big 'Aha!' in the Reading Recovery training that caused you to shift do you think?*
>
> ***Susan:*** *Just, I think the biggest thing was, is just understanding how kids learn to read and understanding and experiencing what you as a teach can do to promote problem-solving. And giving them strategies that they can use independently.* (April 5 Interview)
>
> *And the nicest piece is you can transfer everything that you've learned into the whole class when you're teaching whole class, when you're teaching a small group, or when you're doing one-on-one. There's so much of information you gain that you can use on a day-to-day basis. And you know what, even with any age group. I know it's focused on grade one, but there's no reason why you can't use that information on grade twos, and threes, and whoever needs it.* (Initial Interview)

In Susan's opinion, Reading Recovery training had clarified for her, what sources of information readers use to decode and comprehend texts. She attributed this to the multiple experiences taking and analyzing Running Records throughout her training year:

> ***JS:*** *Did you always have that emphasis on the analysis piece of the Running Record?*
>
> ***Susan:*** *Oh, not as much as I should have. We, in the past, sort of – well, and I don't even like to admit this – but we used them – well first of all I'll be kind to myself. I didn't understand what the MSVs [Meaning, Structure and Visual information] you know, what does that mean? And we used them to get the kids levels right, that was what we were focused on. . . And now after going through the training, there's a*

huge shift. First of all because I understand what all that means… (March 21 Interview)

Susan reported a better understanding of what Clay (1991, 2005b) referred to as strategic activity, that is, how students cognitively process the information they face reading text. As Susan recounted, "You have to be almost inside their brain and trying to interpret what they're thinking. And you have basically just have to – no, there's nothing basic about it. (laughs)" (April 5 Interview). This perspective, according to Susan, changed her way of thinking when she listened to students reading (Initial Interview). She was now not only listening for accuracy when students read, but trying to infer what children's reading responses might imply about a student's processing of text: "You're just more aware. And you're more aware, ok, so the child is pausing, what does that mean? Just the behaviours, you understand them. And they're rereading, what does that mean? That kind of stuff" (May 28 Interview).

Susan found the exposure to Clay's theory and the conversations during the training sessions with her Teacher Leader and colleagues helped her make sense of Clay's theory and she now applies that theory to whole class teaching:

But somebody describing and being specific in what all that behaviour means and what you can do with it, that's what I found very helpful. . . . It just puts all these, it puts it to the front of you brain so that you're thinking about it more. … That all makes sense, but until you're shown that model and you talk about that model, you may not necessarily think about it as you're teaching a whole class. (May 28 Interview)

Susan took Clay's theory and felt she could better plan future instruction based on what she saw as her students read – both in Running Record analysis (Survey; March 6 Interview) and in

real time as she sat next to a student (March 21 Interview). Susan described thinking analytically as she listened to her students read:

> ***Susan:*** *The challenge I have, and I don't know if this challenge ever goes away, but the challenge I find is to be able to think on your feet and think instantly and be on top of it all the time. You have to really be thinking every time you read with a child.*
>
> ***JS:*** *So what are you thinking about when you're thinking on your feet?*
>
> ***Susan:*** *What they're doing and what they're not doing and what they know.* (March 15 Interview)

Susan described herself continuing to learn and grow in her capacity in this new way of thinking during reading instruction.

> *You have to be listening and anticipating. And it takes, first of all, I think it takes experience – because I've listened to a lot of kids read before through my teaching career. But it's also interpreting what they're doing in a different way. When do you step in? When do you not? What prompt should I be giving them? I know this child uses lots of visual information but doesn't necessarily always use the meaning and structure of the language. And you just have to know that and you just have to be listening in those terms.* (April 5 Interview)

Drawing on this knowledge, Susan felt she was now more on-target with what she said to students during guided reading and, that she now had rationales that would guide her in choosing her prompts:

> *It's not that I didn't understand but I wasn't specific on what they need to do to be able to read. I gave them lots of opportunities but I never used the vocabulary. And I*

think that's the biggest thing, is the vocabulary that I now use and understand, and you can see it working for kids. (April 5 Interview)

Susan had also taken on a more student-led approach in her guided reading instruction. She had shifted towards basing her instruction on what she knew about her students' strengths and made decisions as to what the next logical steps might be, rather than follow a prescribed plan for all students:

You'd make educated guesses at what they know. And that's the other thing that I learned from reading Recovery is going from what they know and taking baby steps out from there and building on what they know. It's so hard to describe the difference, but I know definitely you would not have seen this kind of guided reading five years ago. (March 15 Interview)

In Susan's mind, she had infused knowledge from her Reading Recovery training that influenced her day-to-day thinking about literacy instruction:

So for sure, I find myself thinking about the Reading Recovery techniques. In fact, now it almost just becomes habit. You don't even know that you're actually thinking about the Reading Recovery techniques. It's just that you've been doing them for so long that they all make sense and they all fit into what you're doing with the whole class as well. (May 28 Interview)

Ranging from smaller procedural items of knowledge, such as how to orient children to a new text (March 15 Interview; May 8 Interview; May 28 Interview) to an encompassing view of how children learn to read and write, Susan felt her expanded knowledge made her a more effective teacher.

> *When I talk to other people who haven't had the training and then you're talking about all of these like the zone [zone of proximal development] or all the strategic activity and they are sitting there looking at you like, "Oh, OK wow! I got to write this down." Then you realize, I do know what I'm talking about.* (May 28 Interview)

In her interviews and survey responses Susan also described rethinking some priorities in terms of what she believed important in how she taught children to read and write. Susan described holding a long interest in getting trained in Reading Recovery before she had the opportunity the previous school year. She recalled, "I actually have always been interested in the Reading Recovery piece, watching the other Reading Recovery teachers being trained, and then what they did with the kids after. I've always been interested in that" (Initial Interview).

After training, Susan felt that a new mandate for her classroom teaching was to get all of her students excited about reading. As she said, "I'm happy that they're just so excited about reading. That's my biggest goal is to make kids be, that's another thing from Reading Recovery, make them a lifelong reader" (May 8 Interview). Susan held a strong belief in this ideal and wished more of her colleagues shared it:

> *And just getting them – and I know I've read it in, of course Marie Clay has talked about it…is to get these kids to be lifelong readers and to want to read. And it makes me sad now after reading all this, if a teacher comes to me and says, "Well, they just hate reading." And to me I'm then thinking now, "Well we need to change that, we need to do something about that." That's step one.* (April 10 Interview)

After training in Reading Recovery, Susan elevated fostering her students' independence as literacy learners as a new priority. "I don't even know if the word 'independence' ever entered in my brain before the Reading Recovery. I don't think, it was just, I think it was there but I

don't really think was a goal and now it's definitely a goal to just keep fostering" (May 8 Interview). Clay (1991, 2005b) advocates Reading Recovery teachers strive to provide a learning environment in which students can construct a *self-extending system.* That is, students are empowered with skills that enable them to improve their own reading and writing skills simply through their continued practice of literacy. They learn more about reading and writing from their interactions with text. In Susan's guided reading lessons, independence had definitely become a priority:

> ***JS****: What are you thinking about now when you're working with the kids in guided reading?*
>
> ***Susan****: Independent.*
>
> ***JS:*** *What do you mean by that?*
>
> ***Susan****: Putting the responsibility onto them.*
>
> ***JS****: To do what?*
>
> ***Susan****: To problem-solve, which is a totally different way of thinking, because as teachers we think we need to always be teaching specifics. And yeah, just a different focus on having, and it makes sense, giving the kids the tools to be able solve problems and take responsibility for their own actions when they are stuck on a word. What can they do? Rather than, "Teacher help me," "You can do it yourself," just by showing them some strategies that they can work on.* (April 5 Interview)

Additionally, Susan commented that she had taken up this stance while she taught her class. She felt relieved from always having to be providing immediate instruction and confident in sometimes taking her direction from the students' responses:

> *And the biggest thing for me is to step back. You don't have to be the teacher all the time. And now, the other thing is the independent piece. Like I don't know if everybody feels this way as a teacher, but as a teacher I felt like I should be teaching, and I just found with the Reading Recovery, you step back and let them. Even if somebody's struggling with a word you need to sit back and wait, and I don't think I did that before. You know, I always felt it was my job to step in and teach, but now to sit back and to give them those strategies, and then to sit back and wait to see if they use them. I think that's a big shift for me too.* (May 28 Interview)

I witnessed an example of Susan acting according to this belief during my May 8 visit to her classroom. During one of the rounds of guided reading, a small group of students was completing a Venn Diagram comparing three different versions of a fairy tale they had read in guided reading. At the end of the round, when Susan had gathered the class for whole class instruction, she started to talk about the group's work: "Here is a Venn Diagram…". Suddenly, she stopped herself mid-sentence and said to the class, "Why am **I** doing this?" She removed herself from the front of the carpet, and asked the group to talk about what they had done. Later in our interview, Susan recalled that she caught herself about to cheat the group of an opportunity to take ownership of their own learning. As the students were the authors of the diagram, Susan wanted to hear about their decision-making and understandings firsthand, rather than to commandeer their presentation to the class.

Susan believed Reading Recovery training had helped her navigate the tension between bottom-up or top-down approaches to literacy instruction (Pearson, 2004). Historically, literacy programs tended to either advocate teachers to focus on a sequence of prerequisite skills in isolation and then apply those skills to reading and writing (bottom-up) or begin with complete

texts and teach the needed skills that arose in the context of reading and writing (top down). While Susan had taught during a period when what was termed a *whole language* approach (top down) was popular, she felt that she lacked the foundational knowledge and specific exemplars to make such a program work. In contrast, she had also taught following a bottom-up approach in that she gave worksheets and followed sequential high frequency word and phonics training programs. She admitted that there was a degree of comfort in such programs:

> *I mean, we did whole language years ago; that was the big thing. But I don't think, I don't think anybody really understood, "OK, so what do you do?" What does whole language look like and sound like? You know, we were never really – at least I was never really given the specifics that you – so that I could feel confident that kids were going to learn. As a teacher, giving up the sight reading program and the phonics program, it's scary because you think, "Well, they're not going to learn this stuff," right? Unless I teach it all in isolation, how are they ever going to learn all this?* (April 5 Interview)

However, after training in Reading Recovery, Susan felt that she could confidently take a top-down approach. She now believed that there were adequate opportunities to teach essential skills in the context of reading and writing texts, but she understood the process of learning to read and write well enough to manage such an approach:

> *I think it was a shift to, all of a sudden we had multi-aged classes, we had new – like the Daily 5 and the Café. And the Reading Recovery training just kind of made me think, "Yeah, I can do this now.". . . It's scary because you think, if it's not specifically taught . . .if it's not in worksheet format, they're not going to get it, but they do.* (April 5 Interview)

Jones (1997) proposed Clay's theory of literacy processing as an alternative to either "top down" or "bottom up" theories. He writes:

The difference between Reading Recovery and meaning-emphasis advocates is that the latter [top down] has faith that children will acquire almost all they need to know almost entirely through incidental learning as they engage in literacy activities under appropriate conditions. . . . The difference between Reading Recovery and supporters of strong code-emphasis [bottom up] is that the latter make word-learning and sound-symbol associations the focus of their teaching, rather than the learning of strategies and processes that would allow eventual independence. They tend not to trust or recognize incidental learning. (p. 51)

In general, Susan felt that training in Reading Recovery had made her a more effective literacy teacher. She promoted the training to other staff members, thinking they could also benefit:

It's been the best [professional development] I'd ever done. I just wished I did it earlier. But I look at some of the young people on the staff and I say to them all the time, "If you get the opportunity to do this do it because it's a real eye-opener."

(Initial Interview)

In Susan's case, she attributed her increased confidence teaching reading and writing to the increased theoretical knowledge that she taken from the Reading Recovery training. While she didn't want to sound arrogant, she realized that not all of her colleagues shared the same body of knowledge from Reading Recovery that she had found so useful:

***JS**: Do you feel more confident now in terms of reaching more kids in the classroom setting?*

> ***Susan****: Oh, for sure. Yeah, for sure. And seriously what – it's talking to colleagues that makes you feel – now I want to say this so that it sounds right. When I talk to other people who haven't had the training and then you're talking about all of these like the zone [zone of proximal development] or all the strategic activity and they are sitting there looking at you like, "Oh, OK wow! I got to write this down." Then you realize, I do know what I'm talking about….Like when you talk to other people that haven't had the training then it makes you sound more like you know what you're talking about.* (May 28 Interview)

Susan did not feel she had finished learning about literacy instruction. She believed that she would continue to add to the foundation of skills and knowledge that she taken up from her Reading Recovery training:

> *So many things have changed and you think, "OK where is all this coming from?" But it kind of just builds, you do something and it just keeps building and building. And I know there's certain beliefs you've got in your head but even I'm learning every, you know, the kids inspire me.* (April 10 Interview)

Susan's Integration of Reading Recovery Learning into Her Classroom Literacy Instruction

Susan felt that undergoing the Reading Recovery training had added to her skills and effectiveness as a literacy teacher. She expressed having a long-term interest in taking the training because she was interested in how other teachers trained in Reading Recovery, to her, seemed to work with children in different ways (Initial Interview). She endorsed Reading Recovery as "the best" professional development she had ever taken. Based on my observations of Susan's current practice and her descriptions of what she took up, it seems as though Susan's

classroom literacy instruction underwent two major shifts stemming from the Reading Recovery training:

1) She enhanced her understanding of how children read to write through her exposure to Clay's theory (2005a, 2005b) during her Reading Recovery training.
2) She had set a personal goal of assisting all of her students become independent, lifelong readers.

Even though Susan was a very experienced teacher prior to training Reading Recovery, she felt that understanding a more complete picture of how children emerge into literacy, according to Clay's theory, made her that much more effective: "And I think the Reading Recovery, I feel confident in how to teach kids how to read and how they learn to read, that it works, because you know those tiny little steps now" (April 5 Interview). Susan portrayed how this knowledge better equipped her to support all the students in her class, especially struggling readers:

> *I don't know how to describe it, but I've, I so appreciate going through that course just because, man, there's lots to learning to read, and as a teacher you need to understand how challenging it is for some of those kids because there's a lot of thinking they need to be doing. You know, five years ago, I'd be going like, "What do you mean?" . . .I appreciate that information and I hope I use it during my class time.* (March 5 Interview)

Later, Susan more clearly described how she incorporated information from Reading Recovery into her daily practice:

> *You're constantly observing and you're constantly processing what you see and then making the next steps and doing it immediately. And you can't stop, so you go into a whole class you keep doing it. It just becomes one of these things that*

you do. And I don't think, I paid attention but not specifically "this is what I'm looking for and this is what I'm going to use next time I work with that child." You observed it but you didn't record it and do something, you know what I mean? (May 28 Interview)

In guided reading, Susan had adopted an analytic approach to her interactions with students. As she described, she had become more capable of interpreting students' behaviours and immediately following up with instruction. In the past, she thought she might have noticed those behaviours but may have been unsure what to do or less decisive as she found she was now.

In Susan's view of literacy instruction, she had started to look beyond students' immediate accuracy of reading and weighed how their current approach to reading would serve them as future readers. When asked about her priorities in instruction since she trained in Reading Recovery, Susan was clear and consistent in that she highly valued students developing independence (Survey response; March 15 Interview; March 21 Interview; April 5 Interview; May 8 Interview; May 28 Interview). Susan aimed to have students who could read successfully on their own but, more importantly, enjoyed reading and who had developed sufficiently that they would continue to grow and learn by reading, even without her instruction. She credited the Reading Recovery training with her being able to foster this type of independence:

Susan*: That is one of the biggest challenges I find as a teacher is to be able to listen while thinking in your head very quickly . . . and how to push them in baby steps towards that goal of independence.*

JS*: Do you think the Reading Recovery training affected you in terms of how you're able to do that?*

> ***Susan****: Absolutely, because you have to do that all the time and that's one of – especially when you're working one-on-one, you constantly are thinking your head, what does this child know and how can I use that to get them to solve these problems independently?* (April 5 Interview)

While I observed Susan use several procedures (some directly and some modified) and adopt prompting language similar to Reading Recovery, Susan's comments led me think that she had incorporated less tangible elements of Reading Recovery into her classroom instruction:

> *So for sure, I find myself thinking about the Reading Recovery techniques. In fact, now it almost just becomes habit. You don't even know that you're actually thinking about the Reading Recovery techniques. It's just that you've been doing them for so long that they all make sense and they all fit into what you're doing with the whole class as well.* (May 28 Interview)

Her comments suggested that the automaticity of her Reading Recovery practice and the compatibility of Reading Recovery to many of her instructional purposes led her to appropriate aspects of Reading Recovery, sometimes almost unconsciously. Susan had formed new priorities in classroom instruction stemming from her experiences of working with children one-on-one in Reading Recovery. Further, she imported Clay's theory of literacy processing to support her classroom decision-making. In Susan's case, transferring some Reading Recovery-based learning made sense to her, and in her opinion, made her a more successful classroom teacher.

Chapter 10: Results: Cross-Case Analysis

To broaden my analysis of the case study data, I compared each the three study teachers' transfer and adoption of aspects of Reading Recovery. In my cross-case analysis, I investigated the commonalities across my observations of Bev, Nancy, and Susan's incorporation of Reading Recovery elements into their classroom teaching and also, how they differed from one another.

Recurring Reading Recovery Procedures

I preface the cross-case analysis with a reminder to the reader of the opportunistic design of this study's data collection during the case studies. Specifically, the events of each classroom observation largely set the direction of discussion in the follow-up interviews. Because the interviews were semi-structured and centered on the observed events of each classroom visit, it is possible that on the days I visited, the events I observed and the ensuing conversations I had with the participants led them to mention some topics more frequently and others not at all. While I will report the frequency of some topics' discussion so that the reader can gain a greater sense of what each case study teacher tended to talk more or less about during my visits, the frequency or non-mention of a topic could simply be a result of when I happened to be observing.

As a first step, I compared all three teachers' adoption of Reading Recovery procedures into their classroom practice. I examined the degree of commonality of different procedures I observed that the case study teachers linked to their Reading Recovery training in a post-observation interview. (See Appendix D, Table D12).

Following these criteria, seven Reading Recovery procedures emerged common to all three teachers. Bev, Nancy, and Susan all incorporated the following Reading Recovery-based methods into their classroom practice. They also all reported that they had appropriated these procedures from their Reading Recovery training:

- Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge
- Orienting children to the new story before reading
- Providing a large number of experiences with text
- Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge
- Solving words through analogy to known words
- Taking a Running Record of a student's reading
- Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words

There were also several procedures I observed in two of the case study teachers' classrooms which they attributed their use to Reading Recovery:

- Early teaching of concepts of print (Bev and Nancy; observed Susan)
- Using cut-up story procedure (Bev and Nancy; observed Susan)
- Using texts from the Reading Recovery booklist (Nancy and Susan; observed Bev)
- Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with text (Nancy and Susan)
- Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis (Bev and Susan)
- Designing individual instruction (Nancy and Susan)
- Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers (Bev and Susan)
- Fostering learner's independence (Nancy and Susan)
- Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours (Nancy and Susan)
- Practicing a word so that is added to know vocabulary (Bev and Nancy)
- Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability (Nancy and Susan)
- Reflecting on own practice after teaching (Bev and Susan)

- Teaching a variety of approaches to solve words (Nancy and Susan)
- Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or calling on children to build or take words apart (Bev and Susan)

In total, I had opportunity to observe 21 Reading Recovery procedures that appeared in more than one classroom and two if not all three teachers reported they had incorporated these procedures to their classroom literacy practices after completing their year training in Reading Recovery.

Additionally, in solely Nancy's case, she reported she had redesigned her guided reading lessons to focus on the construction of meaning, following Clay's definition of reading. While working with EAL students, she had also patterned teaching structures of text after Reading Recovery procedures. During her shared and guided reading times, she stated Reading Recovery had greatly influenced her to choose texts and arrange for opportunities for her students to practice their phrasing and fluent reading. Nancy was the sole teacher who reported administering the Concepts about Print assessment for her EAL students in her classroom.

I observed only Bev use writing procedures that she felt stemmed from Reading Recovery. She had her class write on blank, white paper and had students write with a marker as she had learned in Reading Recovery.

Recurring Reading Recovery Language

Many of the prompts I heard the three teachers use sounded similar to those suggested by Clay (2005b) as part of the Reading Recovery training. In Table D13 (see Appendix D), I looked across the three cases and compared similar prompts used by two or more the case study teachers that seemed to echo prompts suggested by Clay.

Bev, Nancy, and Susan all used language mirroring Clay's suggested prompts associated with the following Reading Recovery concepts/principles:

- Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word
- Calling for a search of meaning to check a word
- Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word
- Calling for a search of visual information to check a word
- Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word
- Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading
- Fostering cross-checking of information
- Fostering self-monitoring
- Praising independent solving/self-correction.
- Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words

The majority of these prompts were given during guided reading instruction, with the exception of prompts associated with Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words, which were typically heard while students were writing.

In Susan's case, I witnessed the most examples of Reading Recovery-like prompts, while she taught guided reading. Nancy and Bev, on the other hand, also regularly taught writing as I observed them and I subsequently had more opportunities to hear prompts in both reading and writing in those classrooms.

Recurring prompts in guided reading. While I found Bev, Nancy, and Susan all used similar Reading Recovery-like prompts while they taught guided reading, each teacher sometimes offered variations in the ways they prompted a child to think about their reading. There were several prompts that mirrored Clay's (2005b) suggestion (e.g., "Does that make

sense?"; "Try that again and think what would make sense?"; "Look at the picture."; "Try that again."). Additionally, some common phrases from Clay's prompts were incorporated into the case study teachers' prompts (e.g., "Get your mouth ready."; "Make your reading sound like talking."; "You made a mistake, can you find it?"; "I like the way you…").

Recurring Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words prompts. I heard all three of the case study teachers use the suggested prompts that support the Hearing and Record Sounds in Words procedure (Clay, 2005b). All three of the teachers were persistent prompting the children to say the words to be solved slowly and out loud (e.g., "You say it."; "Let me hear you."). These prompts were used in shared and guided writing times and during guided reading lessons when students were writing about texts they had just read.

Recurring themes among adoption of Reading Recovery language. All of the case study teachers reflected on if and how they had adjusted their language since Reading Recovery training. I examined each of their responses and found Bev and Nancy talked about their opinion of Reading Recovery training to their prompting in writing in different ways. However, across all three cases, two common themes emerged (see Appendix D, Table D14): the teachers' perception of the utility of Reading Recovery language in a guided reading context and how they felt Reading Recovery language was clearer for their students to understand.

All three of the teachers discussed how they felt Reading Recovery training had influenced the prompts they used in guided reading and that they were acutely aware of using prompts from Reading Recovery as they worked with small groups and individual students reading:

Bev*: Reading Recovery helped me a lot with the prompts for kids.* (Initial Interview)

Nancy*: Oh definitely, definitely. I'm using [Reading Recovery prompts] in the guided reading.* (March 22 Interview)

Susan*: And I think that's the biggest thing, is the vocabulary that I now use.* (April 5 Interview)

Second, Bev and Susan both told me that they believed their students more clearly understood the Reading Recovery language they had adopted as compared to prompts that they had used in the past. They both suggested that this increased clarity was a benefit of their use of Reading Recovery language in their classroom (e.g., "I can explain it better to them" [Bev, May 3 Interview]; "[The students] know the language. And so when you say to them, 'Go back and make sure it sounds right, or it makes sense, or it looks right,' they know what I'm asking them to do" [Susan April 15 Interview]). Susan and Bev reported that Reading Recovery-like language helped them express what they wanted their students to do more precisely and plainly. Susan described having a new "vocabulary" reinforcing her teaching (April 15 interview) – one that her students could more easily understand and apply from her prompting to their reading practice.

Overlying Reading Recovery Knowledge

Using Stake's (2006) suggestion for cross-case data analysis, I compared the themes that were raised in discussions following my classroom observations of each teacher. I searched for commonalities in how the three teachers described Reading Recovery training had influenced their knowledge that they applied to literacy instruction (Table 10.1). I noted the frequency of each teacher's mention of each theme or if a teacher stated a theme held particular importance to her. Of the recurring themes, I found reference to Clay's general theory and the concept of using assessment formatively discussed by all three teachers and noted by them as being important.

Table 10.1

Common Cross-Case Knowledge Themes

Multi-Case Themes	Utility of Case		
	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
Analyzing a Running Record	3	3	2
Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with text	2	-	1
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	3	-	3
Building on the known	2	3	3
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	-	3	1
Designing individual instruction	2	2	3
Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	-	1	1
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	1	1	3
Orienting children to the new story before reading	-	1	3
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	2	3	3
Referring to sources of information when discussing children's ability	3	3	1
Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability	2	3	3
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	1	-	2
Teaching structures of language found in text	-	1	1
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)	-	3	1

Key	
3	The teacher mentions a theme on three or more different occasions or attaches importance to it in her discussion
2	The teacher mentions a theme on two different occasions but does not attach importance to it in her discussion
1	The teacher only made brief or unclear mention of a theme during one interview

Increased understanding of children's literacy development. Looking across all three cases, I found instances were all three teachers described similar kinds of learning from their Reading Recovery training. Bev, Nancy, and Susan frequently spoke about how their knowledge of how children learn to read and write had grown during Reading Recovery training. All of the teachers stated they felt they now held a deeper, general understanding of reading and writing development. They also articulated their comprehension of the sources of information children use and how readers cognitively process that information using Clay's terminology. Across the

studies, all the teachers declared they now could better interpret Running Records beyond scoring the accuracy of reading, and that they now could infer what reading processes were strengths or weaknesses for the students. Bev and Susan went further to say that they now know how to better design reading instruction based on what they observed and inferred from their analysis of Running Records.

Increased understanding of formative assessment. Additionally, all three teachers discussed how they felt they had developed their formative assessment skills. They described being more capable determining a child's current competency and designing appropriate literacy instruction from that starting point (i.e. Building on the Known, [Clay, 2005b]). This knowledge seemed to support the three teachers who all stated that they were now more able to personalize instruction for students in their classrooms.

Overlying Reading Recovery Beliefs

Taking a similar approach to my cross-case analysis of shifts in knowledge common to the three teachers, I re-examined Bev, Nancy, and Susan's discussions of how each of their beliefs about literacy instruction had shifted since Reading Recovery training. I again searched for common themes amidst the cases and noted the frequency of mention of the themes and if a theme was stated to hold particular importance to a participant (Table 10.2).

Table 10.2

Common Cross-Case Belief Themes

Multi-Case Themes	Utility of Case		
	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
Analyzing a Running Record	-	3	1
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	-	2	1
Fostering learner's independence	3	-	3
Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts	-	1	1
Referring to an emergent theory versus a readiness theory	1	1	-

Multi-Case Themes	Utility of Case		
	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	1	-	3
Referring to urgency/persistence in teaching	2	1	1
Stating a belief teaching quality outweighs deficits of child	1	1	-
Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	1	-	2
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	3	3	3
Stating willingness to learn and apply new skills and knowledge	1	1	2
Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written	-	1	2

Key	
3	The teacher mentions a theme on three or more different occasions or attaches importance to it in her discussion.
2	The teacher mentions a theme on two different occasions but does not attach importance to it in her discussion.
1	The teacher only made brief or unclear mention of a theme during one interview.

During the opportunities I had to discuss beliefs about literacy instruction with the three case study teachers, they varied more from one another than they had in other dimensions of teacher learning (i.e. procedures, language, knowledge). There were fewer instances of themes common to all three teachers and the teachers did not seem to attach equal importance to the majority of themes they did have in common.

Perception of increased effectiveness as a classroom teacher. What did stand out was a common belief that Reading Recovery training increased their effectiveness as classroom teachers. Bev, Nancy, and Susan all used terms such as "stronger instruction" and "more competent" to describe their post-training literacy teaching. They all stated feeling more confident in their ability to teach a wider range of students and that they believed that more of their students were making greater progress in reading (i.e. according to what they had observed in growth in reading levels of their students) than they had in the past.

Increased urgency in teaching. All three of the teachers also mentioned that they now felt a greater sense of urgency in their teaching. They were more aware of having limited time and

felt more driven to capitalize on using their time as effectively as possible. The three also all described themselves as more persistent and less likely to give up when teaching became difficult. Rather, they stated they were now more likely to persevere in looking for a new way to try to teach a difficult concept to a student.

Openness to ongoing learning. Finally, Susan, Bev, and Nancy described themselves as on-going learners and being open to trying new procedures. Although they all were experienced teachers, they described feeling that new learning in the Reading Recovery training was inspiring and empowering. They continued to see themselves as learners and wanted to continue growing as literacy teachers.

Bev and Susan both stated they now prioritized fostering their students' independence as literacy learners. They saw a shift in their role from being the supplier of knowledge to more facilitating of student learning in more diverse ways. As Bev stated, "I am more attentive on having literacy activities that build on the students' abilities instead of having 'busy work' for them to complete while I work with students" (Survey). Susan told me, "That's your goal is to get them to problem-solve independently" (March 15, Interview).

I found eight additional themes common to two out of the three teachers (Analyzing a Running Record; Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge; Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts; Referring to an emergent theory versus a readiness theory; Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing; Stating a belief teaching quality outweighs deficits of child; Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write; Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written). In these cases, the teachers did not mention these beliefs as frequently nor did they attach particular importance to them relative to other themes we had opportunity to discuss.

Common Influence to Case Study Teachers' Classroom Literacy Instruction

Across the three cases, the teachers all expressed that Reading Recovery training presented them with new understandings, challenged their beliefs, or added to how they taught children to read and write. As Nancy put it, "Because it's so specific about the development of those reading abilities and those strategies that kids need to develop to become readers. And a lot of those were things that I hadn't really thought very much about before" (Initial Interview).

Looking at children's literacy learning through the common lens of Clay's theory resulted in all three teachers setting new priorities in their classroom practice. To achieve their new goals, Bev, Susan, and Nancy each found that many of the procedures and language they had learned during their Reading Recovery training were compatible or adaptable to the activities they used in their classroom. While each teacher had their own personal priorities, they were convinced that the facets of Reading Recovery they had adopted into their classroom practice were conducive to improving their students' achievement in learning to read and write.

Situating Reading Recovery learning into the classroom context. From their descriptions, Susan, Bev, and Nancy did not regard Reading Recovery learning as something they isolated into certain activities (i.e. thinking along the lines, "Now I will use Reading Recovery and now I will not.") All three teachers described their Reading Recovery learning as blended versus compartmentalized within their own theories of literacy instruction. They used terms such as "auto-pilot" or "constantly in the background" or drawing on "what makes sense" to describe how they had integrated what they had learned and come to believe about literacy learning and teaching from their training. Reading Recovery seemed deeply infused into their classroom literacy instruction. Bev, Susan, and Nancy frequently described how their deepened knowledge about literacy development gained in Reading Recovery training enabled them to

better interpret and inference what students' observable behaviours implied about their reading and writing development. They also reported having a larger range of teaching responses and confidence to teach according to their on-the-spot assessments of children.

Chapter 11: Results: Cross-Method Analysis

To answer my three research questions in this study, I considered data collected using both survey and case study methods. In Chapter 6 (Results: Survey) and Chapters 7 (Results: Case Studies) I presented my analysis, staying within a single method in each respective chapter, to answer my three research questions. However, my second research question, "If primary teachers report Reading Recovery training as an influence to their classroom literacy instructional practices, what Reading Recovery-like teaching procedures, language, knowledge, or beliefs are observable or reported when the classrooms are systematically observed?" draws upon both methods. Additionally, to construct a more complete picture of Reading Recovery training's influence to classroom instruction, I wished to consider both methods' results side by side to gain further understanding based on both what teachers reported and my observations.

As Gable (1994) suggested, survey and case study methods are highly compatible and complimentary methods in qualitative research in that each method has relative strengths contrasting the other's weaknesses (see Table 5.2). Looking comparatively at both sets of results, I considered if there were similarities or differences between the wider sample of teachers in the survey research versus the more in-depth observation and accounts of the three case study teachers.

Survey- and Case Study-Shared Reading Recovery Procedures

In Table 11.1, I compared the 17 most commonly reported imported Reading Recovery procedures from the survey responses, to observed procedures in the case study classrooms that were attributed to their Reading Recovery training. I observed seven of these commonly survey-reported procedures in all three case study classrooms:

- Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure
- Providing large number of experiences with text
- Taking a running record of children's reading
- Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge
- Solving words through analogy to known words
- Selecting texts based on children's instructional need and knowledge
- Orienting children to a new story before reading

Table 11.1

Reading Recovery-Influenced Procedures in Survey and Case Study Findings

Procedures			
Most Frequent Survey Responses (Descending order of frequency)	**Cross-Case Finding**		
	Bev	**Nancy**	**Susan**
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)	•	•	•
Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure	•	•	•
Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability		•	•
Designing individual instruction		•	•
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	•		•
Fostering learner's independence		•	•
Providing large number of experiences with text	•	•	•
Early teaching of concepts of print	•	•	
Practicing a word so that it is added to known vocabulary	•	•	
Taking a running record of children's reading	•	•	•
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	•	•	•
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading		•	
Solving words through analogy to known words	•	•	•
Selecting texts based on children's instructional need and knowledge	•	•	•
Analyzing a running record	•	•	
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours		•	•
Orienting children to a new story before reading	•	•	•

The remaining procedures were observed in either two classrooms (N=7) or used by only one case study teacher (N=1).

I also noted that I had observed six additional procedures that two case study teachers directly attributed to their Reading Recovery training that were not amidst the most commonly reported imported procedures in the survey responses:

- Drawing on a conversation for a student's idea in writing
- Practicing a word so that it is added to known vocabulary
- Reflecting on own practice after teaching
- Teaching a variety of methods to solve words
- Using the cut-up story procedure
- Using magnetic letters to build or take apart words

Survey- and Case Study-Shared Reading Recovery Language

When I examined the Reading Recovery-like language that the survey respondents reported adopting for their classroom practice to the prompts I heard the case-study teachers use, I found a great deal of similarity between the two data sets (Table 11.2).

Table 11.2

Reading Recovery-Influenced Language in Survey and Case Study Findings

Language			
Most Frequent Survey Responses (Descending order of frequency)	**Cross-Case Finding**		
	Bev	**Nancy**	**Susan**
Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word	•	•	•
Calling for a search of visual information to check a word	•	•	•
Fostering self-monitoring	•	•	•
Using the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure	•	•	•
Fostering self-correction	•	•	•
Calling for a search of meaning to check a word	•	•	•
Fostering learner's independence			•
Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word	•	•	•
Fostering cross-checking of information	•	•	•
Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word	•	•	•
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	•	•	•

In particular, there was shared language used by all of the participants during their guided reading instruction, echoing the prompts offered by Clay (2005b). I also found that many of the surveyed teachers and all of the case study teachers used the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure to assist students solving words in writing.

My cross-case analysis of imported Reading Recovery language unearthed prompts in addition to the commonly reported imports in the surveys. In all three cases, Bev, Susan, and Nancy used Clay's (2005b) prompts to call for a search of English grammar to solve a word and praised their students' independent efforts to solve or self-correct words. As well, two of the three case study teachers used Reading Recovery's style of prompts as they demonstrated self-monitoring to their classes and as they called on their students to self-correct.

Survey- and Case Study-Shared Reading Recovery Knowledge

Looking across the surveys and the case studies, Table 11.3 shows three themes referring to knowledge from Reading Recovery were both frequently reported in the surveys and common to all three case study teachers.

Table 11.3

Reading Recovery-Influenced Knowledge in Survey and Case Study Findings

Knowledge			
Most Frequent Survey Responses (Descending order of frequency)	**Cross-Case Finding**		
	Bev	**Nancy**	**Susan**
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)		•	•
Designing individual instruction	•	•	•
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge		•	•
Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text	•		•
Analyzing a running record	•	•	•
Basing forthcoming instruction on running record analysis	•		•
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	•	•	•
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	•	•	•
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	•	•	•

Many of the survey respondents reported that through their training experience, they had developed a better understanding of how children emerge into literacy as described by Clay (2005a, 2005b). This theme was also described by each of the case study teachers. Similar to many of the survey respondents, Bev, Nancy, and Susan also described how, in their opinion, this deeper understanding made them more effective literacy teachers in their

classrooms. A third theme common to both the surveys and case studies was the description of a better understanding of how to match their teaching response to observed behaviours. The survey respondents and case study teachers felt that they now better knew what they could do and say responsively as they worked with children reading and writing.

While the survey respondents frequently reported that they had learned unspecified activities from Reading Recovery in their classroom, only two of the case study teachers made a similar comment about Reading Recovery training leading to a general accumulation of teaching procedures. As well, only two of the three case study teachers discussed better understanding the reciprocal nature of reading and writing processes and how they better understood how to design instruction from Running Record analysis or a child's performance with a text. Both of these themes were commonly found within the survey responses.

The discussions I had with the case study teachers after the classroom observations also unearthed some common knowledge themes between two or three that were not as frequently reported in the surveys. For example, Bev, Susan, and Nancy described in more detail their learning surrounding Clay's general theory of literacy development. Their comments reflected a more detailed understanding of the sources of information that readers use to support their efforts to decode texts. They also felt they had discovered a better working knowledge of how readers use that information, in what Clay (2005b) referred to as *strategic activity*. All three also discussed how they had developed a better sense of how to build instruction forward from a child's current knowledge.

Survey- and Case Study-Shared Reading Recovery Beliefs

In both the survey responses and in each case study (Table 11.4), participants commonly reported that after training in Reading Recovery, they believed they were now more effective literacy instructors.

Table 11.4

Reading Recovery-Influenced Beliefs in Survey and Case Study Findings

Beliefs			
Most Frequent Survey Responses	**Cross-Case Finding**		
	Bev	**Nancy**	**Susan**
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	•	•	•
Fostering learner's independence	•		•
Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	•		•

Many times, survey respondents commented that they valued the opportunity to train in Reading Recovery because it made them more confident and they felt that their students now made further progress in reading and writing. This sentiment was echoed by each of the case study teachers.

Similar to my findings cross-method concerning the influence to teachers' knowledge, when I had additional opportunity to speak to the case study teachers at length, I found additional, commonly-held beliefs than what was mentioned in the survey responses. Nancy, Susan, and Bev all talked about how they now felt a greater sense of urgency in their teaching and tending to be more persistent in their instruction, a state of mind that they all attributed to their Reading Recovery training. While they all reported they had gained a great deal from their training, they also described themselves as interested in continued learning.

Generalizabilty, Explorability, and Representability of Cross-Method Results

As Gable (1994) suggested, I found a strong level of generalizability of the results of the survey data played out in that I found a high-degree of similarity between the most commonly reported appropriations of aspects of Reading Recovery to all three of the case study teachers. Amidst these cases, Susan had adopted the most of the procedures, language, knowledge, and beliefs that teachers from across Canada also reported adopting into their respective classrooms. However, Nancy and Bev also shared a great deal in common with their colleagues' reports. In the three classrooms in which I had opportunity to observe, what the survey data suggested teachers might typically take up from Reading Recovery training matched quite closely with what I witnessed and discussed with Susan, Nancy, and Bev's real-life practice.

However, one advantage of the case study method over survey lies in its explorability (Gable, 1994). To observe the case study teachers over a period of three months and to follow up my observations with questions afforded me opportunity to unearth additional examples of the transferal of Reading Recovery learning. This extended, deeper method of data collection allowed me to capture additional instances of the transferal or influences of elements of Reading Recovery that were not commonly or unreported in the surveys.

Gable (1994) also described a higher degree of representability of case study findings. Observing over a longer period and talking about how the case study teachers were influenced by Reading Recovery provided a broader data and a more nuanced sense of how these three teachers were incorporating Reading Recovery into their classrooms. While the three teachers had much in common, they also showed and described their own perspectives on Reading Recovery's influence to their practice. These more personal responses alongside

the generalizable survey findings in tandem suggest that while there is much common ground that can be gained from classroom teachers training in Reading Recovery, teachers incorporate and apply those elements in unique ways into teachers' classroom literacy instruction.

The Resituation of Reading Recovery Learning

In their theory of situated learning, Lave and Wenger (1991) state that both the social context of the learning space and previous experience mediate learning. While all of the case study teachers recalled only sparse training in literacy instruction methods in their undergraduate degrees, they all differed in this training and also had varied teaching experience. Prior to training in Reading Recovery, Bev had taught for 12 years (7 in her current Grade One assignment), Nancy had taught for 17 years (8 in her current Grade Two assignment), and Susan had taught for 25 years (14 years in Grade One). All three teachers had more than a decade's experience teaching and they all brought significant prior experience to support them through their year training in Reading Recovery. Steered by past experiences and the new contexts of their own classrooms and students' needs, each case study teacher interpreted the intended Reading Recovery learning through their own lens and set slightly different priorities in their beliefs about literacy instruction. In simpler terms, it seems as though each case study teacher ***resituated*** aspects of their Reading Recovery learning according to the real-world needs they encountered when they returned to classroom instruction and what each teacher took from Reading Recovery when it was passed through a filter of sorts, that being their prior experience.

For example, Nancy described a change in her thinking while she taught reading. She was now more diagnostic as if she were analyzing a Running Record in her head when she

listened to students reading. She attached great importance to being able to assess students' reading on the run and being able to respond immediately with appropriate instruction for each reader. Susan, on the other hand, described always feeling confident in being able to teach students how to read. While she noted that Reading Recovery added to her skills and knowledge, she was now more focused on developing students' independence. She wanted her teaching to position her students to be able to continue to grow as readers without her. While both felt Reading Recovery made them stronger teachers, Nancy had a more teacher-centered effect of Reading Recovery when she resituated Reading Recovery learning into her classroom literacy instruction. Susan had taken a more student-centered viewpoint when she described her classroom instructional goal post-Reading Recovery training.

Additionally, Schunk (2004) pointed out that transfer of learning can occur in both *near* and *far* contexts, that is, when the original and transfer contexts are similar or dissimilar. In both the survey responses and case studies, teachers often reported making 'near' transfers of learning when they were working with individual students in their classrooms. However, the participants also reported and I observed there was much common ground between the "far" contexts of one-on-one teaching context of Reading Recovery and the teaching environments found in classrooms. In those cases, the teachers seemed to resituate Reading Recovery learning by adapting procedures or applying aspects of Reading Recovery that were designed for a one-to-one context into small group or whole class instruction.

In the survey responses, teachers frequently reported that they better understood several aspects of literacy development and instruction after training. For example, they felt they had enhanced their repertoires of procedures, they could better design individual

instruction, they saw a reciprocal connection between reading and writing processes, and they could choose an instructional direction from formative assessments. Many of the participants highlighted how Reading Recovery training enhanced their understanding of what to do and say when they were teaching guided reading. Because they felt they understood the development of reading and how to match instruction to students' immediate needs, a large portion of the participants felt they were much more effective in their time coaching developing readers.

The majority of teachers who completed the survey also agreed or strongly agreed that Reading Recovery training had altered their understanding of how children learn to write (see Figure 5.1). In the survey instrument (Appendix B) there was no immediate follow-up question that asked the teachers to further discuss how their understandings had changed. However, later in the survey, when teachers did discuss changes they made to their classroom practices or if and how they perceived children learning to read or write differently, they did make frequent mention of Clay's general theory.

While the case study teachers reported similar influences in knowledge to the survey respondents, further discussion with them revealed that much of their resituation of aspects of Reading Recovery stemmed from how they interpreted and what they prioritized within Clay's (2005a, 2005b) general theory of literacy development. In Bev, Nancy, and Susan's cases, it seemed as though having their understanding of how children learn to read and write challenged sparked a reorganization of each of their approaches to classroom literacy instruction. To illustrate, in her Initial Interview, Susan described:

> *I feel like I understand how kids learn to read more in-depth now than I did before. . . . What you learn is just – and it's so much that you can't even*

> *pinpoint what exactly – just a different way of thinking about how to teach kids how to read. . . . And the nicest piece is you can transfer everything that you've learned into the whole class when you're teaching whole class, when you're teaching a small group, or when you're doing one-on-one. There's so much of information you gain that you can use on a day-to-day basis. And you know what, even with any age group. I know it's focused on grade one, but there's no reason why you can't use that information on grade twos, and threes, and whoever needs it.*

While Susan had earlier reported that through her 14 years of experience teaching Grade One, she had come to feel very competent in her ability, but, her learning in Reading Recovery gave her even more confidence. She also expressed how she felt that that the contexts between Reading Recovery and primary classrooms were more akin than different, which in her case made resituating aspects of Reading Recovery seem more straightforward.

Looking across all of my results, the classroom contexts of the participants also framed how and what they appropriated from Reading Recovery and how they applied it to their classroom. While the survey instrument did not probe the participating teachers as to the make-up of students in their classrooms, in Bev and Nancy's cases, they each resituated Reading Recovery learning specifically towards teaching students learning English as an additional language (EAL) in their classes. As well, many of the survey participants described how they had adopted Reading Recovery procedures and applied their Reading Recovery-based learning to working with struggling students in their classrooms or from other grades in their school.

Many of the survey participants and the three case study teachers seemed to have developed a Reading Recovery-like perspective of children and learning. They had embraced Clay's (2002) tenet that "All children are ready to learn more than they already know; it is the teachers who need to know how to create appropriate instruction for each child, whatever his or her starting point" (p.10). Some of the participants described how they had come to view all children as capable as learning, where in the past, they viewed some struggling learners as disabled or beyond their capacity to teach. In my opinion, one of the most positive benefits of Reading Recovery training for the participants was a sense of empowerment that many teachers reported. After training, many of the participants indicated that they felt more capable of effectively instructing a wider range of learners. While they still had students in their classrooms who were more challenging to teach, they reported that they now did not feel as overwhelmed. For example, Bev's declaration: "I don't even know if I would know how to read with her [Carrie, a selectively mute student] if I didn't have Reading Recovery training. I would have no idea where to even go with her" (May 31 Interview). Carrying this type of attitude, participants seemed more likely to try to address students' literacy struggles themselves in their classrooms, rather than refer students to additional outside resource support.

In a similar vein, Duffy and Hoffman (1999) praised Reading Recovery for developing the idealism of teacher adaptation versus searching for one "perfect" method:

> Reading Recovery. . . is a particularly good example of this phenomenon. While Reading Recovery is theoretically sound, has established the validity of early intervention, and is a useful instructional tool, it is not a panacea. It

> does not eliminate the need for teachers to assess students and to change prescribed methods when something different is called for. (p. 12)

The grades taught by participants also impacted how and what teachers appropriated from Reading Recovery. For example, participants who taught Grade Two or Three did not regularly instruct students at beginning stages of reading, so they did not as often report or were observed teaching early reading behaviours as Kindergarten or Grade One teachers. However, when this type of transfer did come into play was in situations when Grade Two or higher teachers reported or were seen providing such programming for struggling students. Some of the participants acknowledged that there were even older students in their schools for whom Reading Recovery-like instruction would be very appropriate.

In this type of scenario, participants mentioned how they saw utility of Reading Recovery training for themselves and other primary teachers and some extended Reading Recovery's potential influence even further. It was suggested that Reading Recovery's benefit could reach into Middle and Senior years to assist struggling students at those grades as well. Also promising were the consistent reports from survey respondents of Reading Recovery's utility in very different regions and within different school districts in Canada (Four different provinces, urban, rural, and Northern regions).

Comparing Cross-Method Results to Research-Based Characteristics of EPLTs

Preparing for this inquiry, I reviewed recent descriptive studies that examined the characteristics of exemplary primary literacy teachers (EPLTs; see Chapter 4). To gauge Reading Recovery's potential to enhance classroom literacy instruction, I compared the most frequent researched-based descriptors of EPLTs' procedures, knowledge, and beliefs with corresponding themes that the survey and case study participants appropriated from Reading

Recovery (see Appendix D, Table D15). I did not compare the language used by Reading Recovery-trained teachers, as this facet was not separately analyzed in the research on EPLTs I reviewed.

I temper this comparison of my findings with the research-described qualities of EPLTs with the reminder that to attribute causation or correlation of the appearance of these characteristics to Reading Recovery training goes well beyond the scope of this study. Because this study did not observe the teachers' classroom literacy instruction prior to Reading Recovery training, I cannot make claim that Reading Recovery conclusively fosters the attributes research has claimed common to EPLTs. However, I will compare what the participants of this study reported as effects of Reading Recovery training and what I had occasion to observe in the case study teachers' classrooms with the characteristics of EPLTs. Because many of the participants stated the position that Reading Recovery training somehow made them a "more effective" literacy teacher, I offer the reader this comparison to operationalize what research has deemed "more effective" when describing literacy teachers. That is, I will explore if and how the participants in this study reported that Reading Recovery training influenced their classroom literacy instruction in ways that resemble the researched described characteristics of EPLTs.

Cross-method- and EPLT-common procedures. Looking at the procedures that researchers associated with EPLTs, I found cross-method, that many of the participants of this study deploy similar procedures in their classrooms, which they attributed to Reading Recovery training:

- Explicit instruction
- Extensive opportunities for student practice

- Scaffolding
- Variety of instructional methods
- Formative assessment
- Balance processes/isolated skills
- Stress comprehending

For some of the EPLTs' procedures, (i.e. engaging activities, dense instruction, connections across curricula, varying group sizes, and higher level questioning) I saw those procedures in play in all of the case study teachers' classrooms, but did not have evidence that those teachers attributed that type of instruction to Reading Recovery. These procedures could have stemmed from another source, or were already in place before the teachers trained.

Cross-method- and EPLT-common knowledge. I also found some ways in which the participants described how their knowledge had shifted as a result of Reading Recovery training was similar to knowledge held by EPLTs, according to descriptive research. Similar to EPLTs, the Reading Recovery-trained teachers reported developing knowledge in developmental theory (i.e. Clay's literacy processing theory) and drew on that theory to explain the purpose behind many of their teaching decisions. The participants also reported learning additional instructional methods from Reading Recovery that they applied to their classroom literacy instruction. Because of Reading Recovery's emphasis on individual instruction design, the participants described themselves having developed a diagnostic viewpoint.

Cross-method- and EPLT-common beliefs. Finally, I also found commonality between the beliefs of EPLTs and changes to beliefs that many of the participants attributed to training in Reading Recovery. Both the survey and case study teachers described becoming

more encouraging and carrying a positive attitude towards all of their students – not only towards the students who were successful in reading and writing. As well, the participants described having a higher set of expectations for their students, in particular, in that they expected children as young as Grade One and Kindergarten to develop independence in their learning. All of the teachers reflected on their teaching and reported seeing improvement post-Reading Recovery training. Some of the participants questioned how they had delivered literacy instruction in the past, feeling that they had shifted significantly in their knowledge and practice. The three case study teachers all expressed an interest in continuing to develop professionally. While they all had significant classroom experience, they still were willing to grow further in their knowledge and skills as teachers.

Throughout the survey responses and case study findings, the majority of participants reported Reading Recovery was a positive influence to their classroom practice. Two overarching themes were prevalent across the teachers' commentaries:

1) The teachers felt that the Reading Recovery training had value and application to the classroom context.
2) The teachers felt that incorporating procedures, language, knowledge, and beliefs they developed in Reading Recovery training made them more effective literacy instructors.

While observable facets of Reading Recovery learning (i.e. procedures and language associated with the intervention) seemed to be incorporated in similar ways by teachers, less tangible influences surrounding knowledge and beliefs were more individual to each teacher.

Chapter 12: Discussion

In this study, I have addressed the need to develop effective literacy teacher education and have looked at the existing Reading Recovery teacher development as a possible model. Within this I posed three research questions:

1) Do primary (Kindergarten, Grade One, or Grade Two) teachers report Reading Recovery training influences their classroom literacy instructional practices? If so, what influences do they report?
2) If primary teachers report Reading Recovery training as an influence to their classroom literacy instructional practices, what Reading Recovery-like teaching procedures, language, knowledge, or beliefs are observable or reported when the classrooms are systematically observed?
3) What does the literacy instruction look like in the cases of three primary teachers who are incorporating Reading Recovery-like practices to their classroom literacy instruction?

To answer in the simplest terms, teachers did report Reading Recovery's influences to primary classroom literacy instruction and this influence was also observable. In preceding chapters, I have presented how teachers reported training in Reading Recovery influenced their classroom literacy instruction. Additionally, I had opportunity to closely observe and construct case studies of three primary teachers. I now turn to discuss my findings and their implications to theory and practice, issues within the field, teacher training, and areas for future research.

Implications of Findings to Theory

As I analyzed my data and considered how the participants in this study resituated aspects of their Reading Recovery learning individually, I returned to consider the four dimensions of

teacher learning that framed my data collection: procedures, language, knowledge, and beliefs. While I had earlier described these four dimensions as interactive and influential to each other (see Chapter 1), I now consider the intersection of these four dimensions what I term a teacher's *personal theory of literacy instruction*.

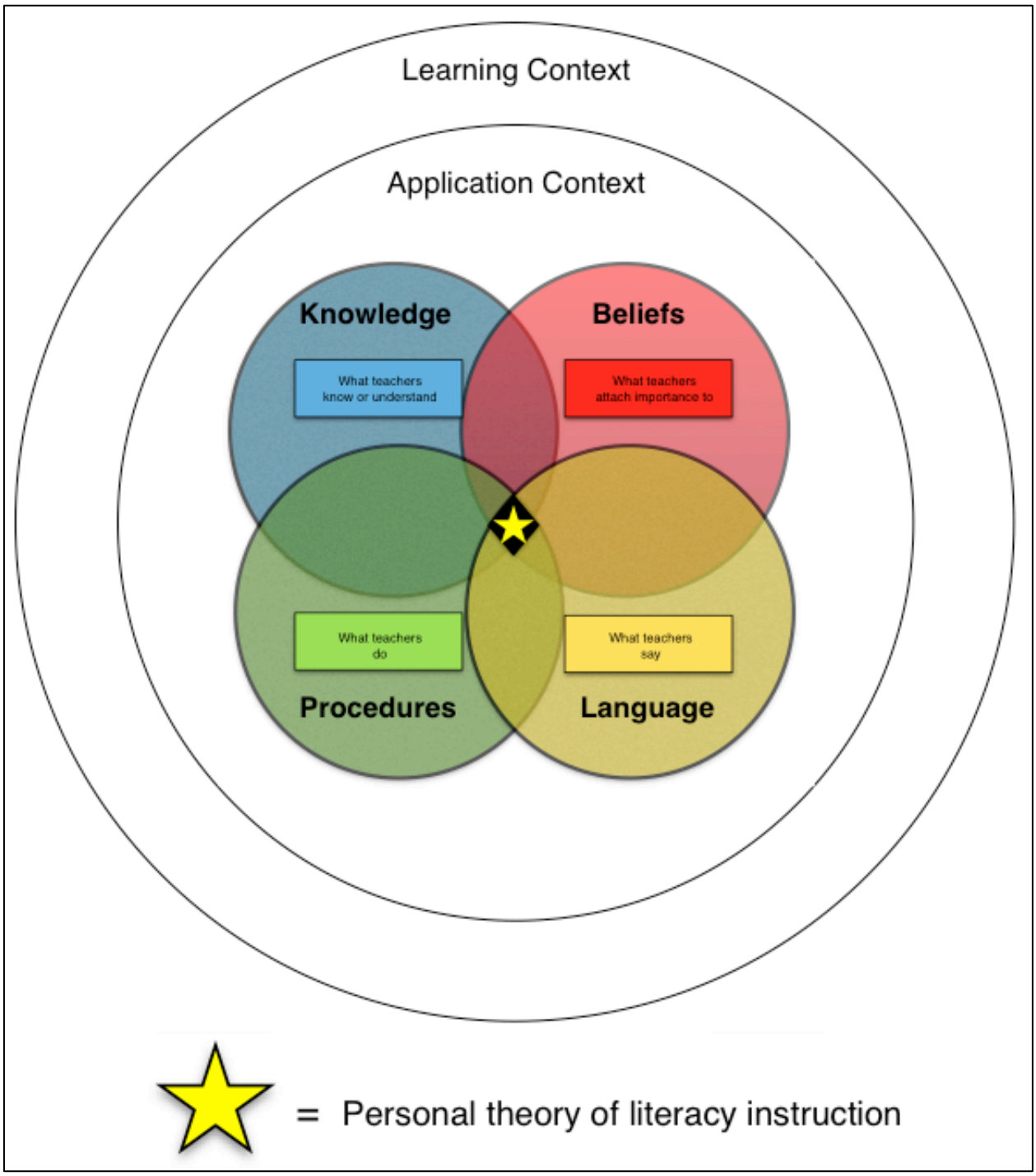
Personal theory of literacy instruction. To describe individual teachers' evolving approach to classroom literacy instruction, I propose the concept of a personal theory of literacy instruction (Figure 12.1). This framework considers the contexts of both teachers' professional learning and the real-world contexts in which they could apply or transfer aspects of their learning. Within this framework, I represent a teacher's personal theory of literacy instruction by not only what the teachers says and does, but also their underlying knowledge and beliefs that steer decision-making and the ongoing interactions amidst these four dimensions.

As Schunk (2004) described, the congruence of the contexts between the learning and application sites can either foster or inhibit the transfer of learning, in what he terms *near* or *far* contexts. As Putnam and Borko (2000) observed, "Teachers, both experienced and novice, often complain that learning experiences outside the classroom are too removed from the day-to-day work of teaching to have a meaningful impact" (p. 6). Both of these positions suggest that the application of teachers' training (both pre- and in-service) would hinge upon teachers' assessment of the usefulness and practicality of new learning when they attempt to apply that learning in their classrooms.

Over time, drawing from their training and experience, teachers will construct knowledge and form beliefs about how literacy develops and how it should be taught. Teachers enact their personal theories through the procedures they select and language they incorporate into their

instruction. Or, as described earlier, teachers' habitual practices, over time, may shape what they understand or believe about reading and writing instruction.

Figure 12.1 Personal Theory of Literacy Instruction



In this study, teachers reported how they passed Reading Recovery-based learning through individual "filters" (i.e. their classroom contexts, their prior knowledge, beliefs, and past practices) resulting in their restructuring their personal theories in individual ways. While there were some commonalities, the impact of Reading Recovery-learning to classroom instruction was not universal. It seemed that individual teacher's personal theories of reading instruction not only evolved; they **mediated** the resituation of learning into the context of classroom instruction. That is, teachers reported taking up what they each felt would enhance their classroom instruction, based on how Reading Recovery-learning fit against their prior personal theory of literacy instruction.

Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2004) depict how the transfer of learning also hinges upon the depth of understanding of the original learning. Teachers' capacity and the situations in which they incorporated Reading Recovery learning into their personal theory of literacy instruction would hinge upon the depth of understanding of Reading Recovery procedures and the underpinning theory that they developed in training. From Bransford and his colleagues' viewpoint, developing deeper levels of understanding would assist teachers in being capable of resituating aspects from the original learning context of Reading Recovery in more complex ways to their classrooms. Following this line of thought, more straightforward aspects of Reading Recovery, such as procedures and language could be more simply transferred than knowledge or beliefs. Teachers could import prompts for reading, for example, out of the repeated habit of using them while reading with children in Reading Recovery. A more complex application of Reading Recovery knowledge, such as their effectiveness of selecting an appropriate prompt at the right teaching moment, would hinge upon their depth of understanding of the sources of information readers use and their skill in assessing and drawing inferences

about readers' strengths and challenges. Additionally, a teacher's opinion of the effectiveness of Reading Recovery procedures and language and their agreement with Clay's theory and the beliefs espoused within the Reading Recovery community all factor into what and how a teacher may incorporate into their personal theory.

Looking beyond this study, the concept of a personal theory of literacy instruction may be useful to describe teacher learning not only in the field of literacy, but in other content areas (e.g. numeracy) and domains of education (e.g. classroom management). While this framework may have summative application to describe a "snapshot" of a teacher's current approach to teaching, I feel it has developmental application to describe change over time in teachers' learning and instruction. For example, using this framework, one might describe teacher learning as it develops in pre-service contexts and if and how it transfers into professional practice. Or, one could examine and describe the influence of continuing professional learning of in-service teachers. Through this lens, one can more thoroughly depict teacher learning and instruction and consider factors that may foster or hinder teacher learning and its application into classrooms.

Implications of Findings to Classroom Literacy Instruction

From the findings of this inquiry, I believe that there is a very strong suggestion that the transferable merits of Reading Recovery training for teachers can reach beyond its designed use as an early, one-to-one literacy intervention. In my survey and case study results, there were many reports and observable evidence that aspects of Reading Recovery could be and was resituated within a classroom context. Nearly all of the participants stated that they believed that the elements of Reading Recovery that they had adopted into their classroom practice enhanced the quality of their literacy instruction and that believed they saw more robust progress in their students post-training (based on their own assessments) in their classrooms.

School districts could consider the potential positive influences to classroom instruction this study suggests when weighing whether or not to implement Reading Recovery as part of a cost-effectiveness analysis. The findings of this study suggest that there are additional applications of Reading Recovery training for teachers beyond the intervention itself. There is evidence from the participants in this study that Reading Recovery training supported and enhanced primary teachers' literacy instruction in classrooms and was particularly assistive when working with struggling readers in primary grades and beyond. Further, these cross-contextual benefits of Reading Recovery could assist districts in developing policy for which staff should be trained in Reading Recovery.

I believe there is evidence in this study to support school districts enacting the recommendation that teachers should "return to regular classroom teaching after 4 to 5 years teaching Reading Recovery" (CIRR, 2006, p. 16). All of the survey participants and three case study teachers reported in some fashion that they viewed Reading Recovery training as beneficial to their classroom practice in literacy instruction across primary grades. Some teachers extended these benefits to assisting their work with EAL students, learners with individualized needs, and with older students who continued to struggle in reading and writing. School districts could train classroom teachers with the intention of over a span of several 4- to 5-year cycles, there could be impact to general classroom literacy instruction by offering the training to more teachers in a widening circle. As more teachers train, they could continue to support their practice through professional conversation with the other Reading Recovery-trained teachers, as was reported by some of participants in this study.

If the reported resituation of Reading Recovery-learning found in this study play out in long-term training cycles, then the cost-effectiveness of the intervention could be somewhat

extended. School districts could see benefit to children served by the intervention but also, on a wider scale, teachers' application of Reading Recovery learning to classroom instruction. By applying Reading Recovery learning to classrooms of students, the cost invested in the year-long professional development of a teacher could be applied to a far greater number of students than only the children served in the intervention.

Additionally, classroom teachers who worked in Grade One reported the most direct application of Reading Recovery learning to their classroom literacy programs. Because the majority of students learn to read and write during their Grade One year, Reading Recovery has the most in common with that year's literacy curriculum. The results of this study suggest in order to maximize the cross-contextual application of Reading Recovery learning, school districts could consider the targeted training of its Grade One teaching faculty or teachers who will be in the role of working with older students who are at beginning stages of reading and writing.

More significantly, looking beyond Reading Recovery, the findings of this inquiry suggest that many of the participants added to or modified their personal theories of literacy instruction after training, based on personal ways they felt their classroom instruction could be improved. Participants resituated Reading Recovery learning to fill gaps, diversify, or augment their past approaches to teaching reading and writing.

The larger issue to consider is what elements might have been missing or not well-developed from this study's participants' pre-service education and how could such components be integrated into current models of teacher training to support a greater number of teachers. While the pre-service education of teachers of early literacy has been critiqued (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Donders & Cowley, 2006; Lacina & Collins Block, 2011; Walsh, Glaser, &

Wilcox, 2006), as earlier discussed, there has been little agreement as to how teacher education could or should be redesigned (Hoffman, 2004). To add to ongoing discussion of the redesign of literacy teacher education, I consider my findings and this issue.

Implications of Findings to Teacher Education

I am in agreement with recent calls that pre-service teacher education should move beyond the simple "training" of teachers in procedures and look to "teaching" future teachers to be critical in their thinking and able to make effective decisions (Cochran-Smith & Lytel, 1999; Hoffman & Pearson, 2000; Kosnick & Beck, 2009). Concluding their review of effective pre-service primary literacy teacher education, the International Reading Association (2003) listed eight critical features of excellent programs. Amongst these, they called for a re-design of pre-service teacher education that included strong content in literacy theory and procedures, apprenticeship opportunities for future reading teachers, and the building of community including pre-service students, faculty, and mentor in-service teachers. The participants in this study reported that training in Reading Recovery had not only increased their knowledge of literacy development, but they also believed that the apprentice opportunities embedded into the Reading Recovery brought about greater changes to their personal theories of literacy instruction beyond the taking up of simple teaching procedures.

These facets of Reading Recovery training hold potential in informing the design of teaching education. The participants in this study did not report that they had experienced a simple training and had transferred a few instructional tips and tricks to their classrooms. Rather, participants across the survey and case studies have reported how post-Reading Recovery training, they viewed literacy instruction and their students through new eyes and imbedded what they had learned in Reading Recovery into their thinking about how they should instruct their

classes. How then, could similar teaching aspects of Reading Recovery be applied to the preparation of future teachers?

The exemplary aspects of Reading Recovery professional development. The majority of survey respondents reported that they valued Reading Recovery model of professional development and that they would recommend colleagues undertake the training year. When they discussed their training year, Bev, Susan, and Nancy referred to the apprenticeship-style of learning in the Reading Recovery context as a critical factor to their learning. Working daily one-on-one with children as they explored Clay's theory in professional development sessions allowed them to attach greater meaning to their discussions because they related the theory back to actual experiences with children. This aligns, with Putnam and Borko's (2000) position that within a situative perspective of learning, "various settings for teachers' learning give rise to different kinds of knowing." As Nancy described:

> *So, that part was very useful from the Reading Recovery training. And having that time to work one-on-one with kids and see them develop and see them grow and watch those different strategies come into place…because if you can't work one-on-one with kids you don't really have a chance to develop those things.* (March 22 Interview)

Wolf and her colleagues (1996) also endorsed the high value of imbedding real-world teaching experiences alongside traditional undergraduate courses. In her children's literature course, she required her education students to complete a case study as they read and worked with a child on a weekly basis to deepen their comprehension and improve the quality of their response to texts. Wolf argued that this experience was crucial to the success of the learning outcomes of the course:

> Much of the necessary work to guide and support pre-service teachers' growing understanding of literary response can be accomplished in university class settings that emphasize subject matter knowledge. . . . Still, subject matter knowledge is only a part of the necessary training for pre-service teachers. To arrive at a more complete understanding of children's literary response, pre-service teachers must be involved with children – moving from the more distanced study of children in articles and books to the here and now of working with real children. . . . Thus, a university course infusion of new research ideas with multiple, though sometimes hypothetical, examples must be balanced with authentic, literary interaction with children, if we expect to see pre-service teachers shift from limited comprehension-based expectations to broader interpretive possibilities for literary discussion. (p. 134)

The case study teachers also valued the opportunity to talk through their learning with their Teacher Leader and the colleagues in the group. Susan saw these discussions through the training year as vital to her constructing a deeper knowledge of reading theory:

> *It just puts all these, it puts it to the front of you brain so that you're thinking about it more. ... That all makes sense, but until you're shown that model and you talk about that model, you may not necessarily think about it as you're teaching a whole class.* (May 28 Interview)

The case study teachers and some survey participants positioned the opportunity to apply theory into practice with students and time to discuss their thinking with other learners as major components that made Reading Recovery training more potent than other professional development they had undertaken. From their viewpoint, merely providing a textbook-driven, lecture-style of training would not have had as great of an impact as what they experienced when

the learning was situated in the Reading Recovery training model. In the pre-service context, teacher educators should consider how to maximize the opportunities pre-service teachers have to observe other teachers as a spark in thinking about their own teaching and provide them opportunities to discuss their ideas. Putnam and Borko (2000) point out that teacher education has traditionally focused on the individual development of knowledge and competencies, being less concerned with the establishment of discourse communities. However, they argue providing pre-service teachers a milieu where they rearticulate, question, challenge, and debate their instructors, each other, and in-service teachers as they learn (both in their courses and while in the field) seems potent towards enhancing learning. "But the view of knowledge as socially constructed makes it clear that an important part of learning to teach is becoming enculturated into the teaching community – learning to think, talk, and act as a teacher" (pp. 9-10).

Duffy and Hoffmann (1999) argued that teacher education programs should strive to prepare thoughtful, adaptive reading teachers. Ideally, future teachers have not only been exposed to a variety of instructional methods but more importantly, understand what successful teachers *do* with those methods. They suggested providing examples and hypothesizing scenarios of how and when reading instruction methods could be adapted for particular students. Following this line of thought, a mineable asset of the Reading Recovery model of training could lie in the observation and discussion of other colleagues' and mentors' teaching and the decisions they made in programming for their students.

For example, Bev, Susan, and Nancy all commented that they felt that pre-service teachers should learn about the recording and analysis of Running Records. The each felt that this reading assessment was an essential component to an effective pre-service education program. Yet the

three case study teachers did not simply attend a "how-to" session and then immediately implement Running Records as they now could. They credited the design of the Reading Recovery training with deepening their knowledge and skills in analysis and using those results to inform instruction. All of the case study teachers described that they had become more effective in their own analysis of Running Records through deepening their understanding of a supporting theory of reading development. For example, they could now better articulate the sources of information that are available to readers (i.e. meaning, structural, visual information) and how readers handle that information to draw meaning from texts (i.e. strategic activity, [Clay, 2005b]). For the case study teachers, it seemed that part of their increased skill in assessing students' approaches to reading and responding with appropriate, effective instruction hinged upon their better understanding of Clay's theory (2005a, 2005b).

The participants' endorsement of the power of learning while working with children in the Reading Recovery model also support what andragogy (i.e. theories of adult learning [Knowles, 1984]) has described as significant characteristics of adult learners. In Knowles' view, adult learners have limited patience or engagement with learning goals for which they do not see immediate application to real-world problems at hand. I would argue that much of undergraduate instruction in education is delivered in traditional, pedagogical styles. For example, the application of learning in undergraduate coursework is often postponed. (e.g., "You will need to know this when you get a teaching position.") While undergraduates are often young adults, I would suggest that the majority of education students are more similar to adult learners than children, and may be less engaged in lecture-style classroom instruction because they have difficulty connecting course work to their as-then limited experience teaching. While the content of undergraduate literacy method and theory courses may be sound, andragogy theory suggests

that because of their delivery outside of authentic experiences, much of that content may be forgotten after any immediate use (e.g. remembering it for the test). Or, future teachers may perceive some course work as having little or no relevance to what they perceive as their immediate needs in becoming successful teachers.

In 2004, James Hoffman suggested, "Investing in teacher education needs to consist of more than just improving initial preparation. Investment must reach deeply into lifelong professional development, reshaping the very context for teaching" (p. 127). From their reports, many of the participants experienced such a transformation as they resituated Reading Recovery learning into their classrooms.

The challenge in an undergraduate context lies in how to better provide pre-service teachers with a strong theoretical base and provide learning experiences that foster adaptive, responsive literacy teaching. If one was to incorporate a Reading Recovery-style of teacher-learning, then theoretical discussion must be supported by the provision of experiences to apply pre-service teachers' growing theory to real-world work with children and opportunities to receive feedback during that learning. As Reading Recovery training is presently only available to in-service teachers and is year-long, mirroring the training as it occurs with in-service teachers to undergraduates does not seem feasible. However, some components or key principles of Reading Recovery training might be applicable to undergraduate training.

For example, arranging opportunities for pre-service teachers to work with children during their Language Arts methods courses may be one means of solidifying future teachers' theoretical base and extending their comfort and repertoires of teaching responses. Through cooperation with local schools, pre-service teachers could be paired with students during their methods course as a "lab" style component dispersed through the course. On some days, rather

than attend the university, the students would work with students in schools and then return to their classes to discuss those experiences with their instructor and link those experiences to theory. A “laboratory” component to undergraduate course work is not new, but not a widespread component of pre-service teacher education.

Howey and Zimpher (1989) endorsed the inclusion of laboratory-like experiences in teacher training but, in their U.S. national survey of education programs, found those types of experiences to be rare. In most cases, teacher education programs segregated the theory delivered in coursework from the practical field experiences of future teachers. While both types of learning were provided, it was rare for lab-type experiences to be integrated into undergraduate coursework. More recently, McIntyre, Byrd, and Foxx (1996) commented that laboratory experiences “appear to have become more integrated into teacher education programs as a supplement to field experiences” (p. 188). In Canada, however, Falkenberg (2010) reported that most teacher education programs still suffered from a theory/practice divide. A few universities were exploring non-traditional approaches, for example, the University of Saskatchewan (Saskatoon) was piloting a new approach to teacher education programs in which some courses were taught in schools, rather than university classrooms. In these school-housed courses, pre-service teachers were expected to complete some assignments in the school classrooms drawing on work with children. In another instance, McGill University (Montreal) offered an optional additional practicum to teacher candidates that could be tailored for them to explore subjects and grades they had not yet taught, roles such as resource teacher, or to provide extra-curricular programs in schools.

As another approach, groups of pre-service teachers could meet and discuss their experiences periodically during their field practicums. Kosnick and Beck (2009) have called for

education faculties to purposefully cluster schools in which pre-service teachers undertake their field experiences. In their view, this proximity would better facilitate pre-service teachers' support of one another and would provide opportunities for them to discuss their field experiences with each other and their supervisors. During these conversations, field supervisors would ask the pre-service teachers to relate their understanding of literacy theory to examples and connections they have drawn from working with students. However, this approach relies on the supervisors having sufficient understanding of literacy theory themselves to productively lead such discussion.

Both of these approaches require re-design of the traditional model of undergraduate pre-service teacher instruction, but also could be challenged if there is a lack of "model" classrooms in which undergraduate students could practice in field settings (Sykes & Bird, 1992). The impact of apprenticeship style of learning and discourse communities would be reduced or possibly oppositional, if the local classroom teaching does not match with the teaching approach endorsed by the university. Incorporating collaborative work with schools could derail attempts to reform teacher education if a university adopts a new approach that is not commonly shared by the community of practicing teachers. For example, a school district that has selected not to implement Reading Recovery may disagree with the inclusion of Reading Recovery-like practices and Clay's theory into university syllabi and model different teaching approaches during field experiences.

Without the provision of experiences to test theory with experiences with children and the opportunity to deepen learning via conversation with colleagues, the potential benefits of Reading Recovery-style professional development in an undergraduate setting would likely be meager. Again, as Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2004) pointed out, "Different kinds of

learning experiences can look equivalent when tests of learning focus solely on remembering (e.g., on the ability to repeat previously taught facts or procedures), but they can look quite different when tests of transfer are used." From this standpoint, the redesign of teacher training programs should consider if and how the pre-service teachers' classroom learning cultivates deep knowledge of literacy development and effective pedagogy that new teachers are able to put into practice once they enter the profession.

Current examples of Reading Recovery-like teacher preparation. My findings suggest that teachers' knowledge and confidence teaching benefitted from the apprenticeship style of learning in Reading Recovery and the ongoing professional development offered across an entire year. Teacher education, arguably also needs to be seen as a career-long process and not limited to the time spent in teacher training institutions. For example, in both Japan and New Zealand, newly graduated elementary teachers work less than full-time so that they can simultaneously complete mandatory post-undergraduate course work in literacy methods as they begin their teaching careers. In other countries, such as France, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, and Portugal, teacher education programs extend into the graduate level once teachers begin their careers (Darling-Hammond, 1997). These countries seem to have recognized the value of undertaking theoretical learning alongside teaching children to read and write. The connections formed between theory and real-world experiences working with children seemed to greatly enhance the learning of many of the Reading Recovery-trained teachers in this study.

Perhaps Reading Recovery training that is already in place can be used to enhance the pre-service training and professional development of new teachers in similar ways. While pre-service teachers and new teachers could not attend an entire year of Reading Recovery professional development sessions, it may be possible for universities, Reading Recovery personnel, and

school districts to cooperate so to include pre-service teachers or new teachers as observers part-time during the Reading Recovery training year. This type of early professional development has been recently piloted in September 2014 in Williams Lake, British Columbia. There, the school district included new primary teachers in the first half of the Reading Recovery training and had each new teacher work with one case study student. It is feasible that pre-service or new teachers could benefit through hearing the conversation and viewing the behind-the-glass lessons in the Reading Recovery training or continuing contact sessions as part of their professional development. Debriefing with their university instructor or a Reading Recovery teacher could be added to further extend the learning from observation.

Another possible adaption could be following the syllabus of the first part of the Reading Recovery training that covers assessment and early teaching procedures to undergraduates or new teachers as part of a reading course. During the course, student or new teachers could work with a local student as a case study project, similar to how Reading Recovery teachers-in-training work with four children throughout their training year.

Implications of Findings to Future Research

To extend the findings of this study, more comparative research of teachers' personal theories of literacy pre- and post-Reading Recovery training would add to our understanding of what teachers learn and apply to classrooms. While challenging to design, this type of longitudinal study could shed even more light on individualized ways different teachers incorporate Reading Recovery learning into a classroom context. Additionally, comparative measures of student achievement before and after a teacher trains could be taken to explore if and how Reading Recovery training has any measurable effect in this domain.

Additional research is needed, particularly in Canada, to investigate and describe approaches to pre-service primary literacy education programs and their effectiveness and what in-service teachers are bringing to the task of teaching children how to read and write (Falkenberg, 2010; Purcell-Gates & Tierney, 2009). While more of this research has been conducted in the U.S. leading to recommendations towards the re-design of pre-service literacy teacher education (e.g., Hoffman, 2002; IRA, 2003; Steiner & Rozen, 2004; Walsh, Glaser, & Wilcox, 2006) it would seem beneficial to look to institutions that have implemented such changes and explore their results.

In this study, I have explored the resituation of Reading Recovery-learning as merely one contributor to ongoing discussion of literacy teaching and the training of future teachers. I would encourage the promotion of research that looks at other in-service professional development programs and examines them beyond their surface features (i.e. how teachers implement them in their classrooms and what teachers learn through their incorporation). Continued closer examination of literacy teachers is required to more fully understand their thinking and practice and how schools of education can cultivate more effective literacy instructors.

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Appendices

Appendix A Survey Instrument

This survey was administered to the participants as an online survey through use of the *Fluidsurveys* (2011) web-based survey design and management tool. Participants were emailed a participant number, access code, and link to the survey instrument. After logging in, participants could complete the instrument online responding to multiple-choice close-ended questions and typing responses to open-ended questions.

The survey questions, in sequence, were:

1. Do you identify as:

a. Male

b. Female

c. Transgendered

2. This school year, in which grades do you teach English Language Arts? (Check all that apply if a multi-age classroom)

a. Kindergarten

b. Grade One

c. Grade Two

d. Grade Three

e. Grade Four or higher

3. In which province or territory do you teach this year?

a. Alberta

b. British Columbia

c. Manitoba

d. New Brunswick

e. Ontario

f. Prince Edward Island

g. Yukon Territory

4. Which best describes the region of your province/territory where you teach?

a. Urban

b. Rural

c. Northern

5. In your teaching career, how many years have you taught Grade One?

6. Which school year did you complete your Reading Recovery training?

a. 2011-2012

b. 2010-2011

c. 2009-2010

7. How much do you agree with this statement?

Reading Recovery training added to my understanding of how children learn to read.

a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

8. How much do you agree with this statement?

Reading Recovery training added to my understanding of how children learn to write.

a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

9. How much do you agree with this statement?

I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in reading.

a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

[If participants responds Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, or Don't know they are moved past Question 10 to Question 11]

10. Could you give examples of how your classroom reading instruction has changed since you trained in Reading Recovery?

11. How much do you agree with this statement?

I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in writing.

a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

[If participants responds Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, or Don't know they are moved past Question 12 to Question 13]

12. Could you give examples of how your classroom writing instruction has changed since you trained in Reading Recovery?

13. How often do you notice yourself using "Reading Recovery" language in the classroom?

a. Never

b. Rarely

c. Sometimes

d. Often

e. Always

f. Don't know

[If participants responds Never or Don't know they are moved past Question 14 to Question 15]

14. What types of literacy activities are you doing with students in your classroom when you use "Reading Recovery" language?

15. Can you give examples of "Reading Recover" language do you use in your classroom?

16. How much do you agree with this statement?

I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I assess children's literacy development differently.

a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

[If participants responds Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, or Don't know they are moved past Question 17 to Question 18]

17. How has your literacy assessment practices changed since you trained in Reading Recovery?

18. How much do you agree with this statement?

I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, my perception of children who are learning to read and write has changed.

a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

[If participants responds Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, or Don't know they are moved past Question 19 to Question 20]

19. How has your perception of children learning to read and write changed since you trained in Reading Recovery?

20. Are there any particular situations in your classroom where you feel you are drawing heavily upon your experience in Reading Recovery?

21. If another primary teacher asked you if training in Reading Recovery would assist them in their classroom teaching, what would you say to them?

22. How much do you agree with this statement?

I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, my effectiveness as a classroom literacy teacher has changed.

a. Strongly disagree

b. Disagree

c. Neither disagree nor agree

d. Agree

e. Strongly agree

f. Don't know

[If participants responds Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, or Don't know they are moved past Question 23 to Question 24]

23. **Since you trained in Reading Recovery, how do you feel your effectiveness has changed as a classroom literacy teacher?**
24. **Can you give examples of other professional development experiences (not Reading Recovery) you have had that have impacted your classroom literacy instruction?**

Appendix B Interview Protocols

Stage 1: Focused Life History

(Administered prior to first classroom observation)

1. What was your teaching experience prior to being trained in Reading Recovery?
2. What was involved in your undergraduate training in literacy instruction?
3. What types of professional development have you undertaken that dealt specifically with literacy instruction?
4. How would you describe your literacy instruction before you trained in Reading Recovery?
5. Was the Reading Recovery training different from other professional development you had undertaken in the past?
6. What was your overall impression of the Reading Recovery training as professional development?

Stage 2: Details of the Experience

(Any or all three questions administered after each classroom observation as needed)

1. Tell me more about (procedure X). [to clarify a teacher's actions to the researcher]
2. Today, I noticed you (used Procedure X / said "X") when you were (activity) in the classroom. Where did you learn to do that? [to ask the teacher to identify the source of a procedure or discourse]
3. Why did you choose to (use Procedure X / said "X")? [to ask the teacher to articulate the knowledge or teacher belief behind a procedure or discourse]

Stage 3: Reflection of Meaning

(Administered after the final classroom observation)

1. Do you feel as though your Reading Recovery training has influence for you here in the classroom?
2. In your mind, what's different about teaching Reading Recovery than teaching in the classroom?
3. After you trained in Reading Recovery, did anything change in terms of how you understood children learn to read and write?
4. Do you think Reading Recovery changed any of your attitudes as a literacy teacher?
5. What other professional development has had influence on your classroom practice?

Appendix C Coding Manual

Definitions

(CA) Classroom activity: a description of the classroom activity that the teacher and/or students were engaged in

(DS) Data Source: whether the data was collected in the survey, a classroom observation, interview, or photograph

(GR) Group: the grouping or number of students with whom the teacher was working

(Md) Mode: whether the classroom activity involved reading, writing, or both

(RRC) Reading Recovery Concept/Principle: the Reading Recovery-based concept or procedure, which was transferred

(RRT) Reading Recovery Transfer: whether the transfer impacted the teacher's attitude, knowledge, language, or practice

Codes

(CA) Classroom Activities	
Code	Definition
Composing own writing	The student was thinking/planning about what to write. Students writing would each have different ideas.
Demonstration	The teacher demonstrated how to perform a literacy task
Discussion	The teacher discusses a text or aspect of literacy with a student(s)
Explicit instruction	The teacher teaches a sub-skill of literacy or item of knowledge as a lesson
Guided reading	The teacher works with a small group, supporting their reading of a text
Guided writing	The teacher supports the students as they write text
Home reading	The teacher arranges for books to be taken home by the students to read
Independent writing	The students write a text without the teachers' support

(CA) Classroom Activities	
Code	Definition
Individual assessment	The teacher gathers data about a students' capacity in literacy
Literacy centres	Students work at independent literacy tasks while the teacher is working with a student(s)
Planning	The teacher is preparing for upcoming lessons
Reader's theatre	Students rehearse and perform a play, reading their parts from a text
Reflecting	The teachers reflect on their practice, their beliefs, or assessment of themselves as a teacher
Self-selected reading	Students select texts and read them independently
Shared reading	The teacher reads a text with the class
Shared writing	The teacher writes a text with the class
Teacher-assigned reading	Students read a text the teacher has chosen for them independently
Teacher read-aloud	The teacher reads a text to the class
Teacher/student conference	The teacher meets with student to discuss student work and set goals in literacy
Work Work	The teacher teaches and calls for the manipulation and extension of spelling patterns
Work at desk	Students are given a closed-ended task, such as a worksheet to complete
Writer's Workshop	Students work on composing and writing their own pieces, while the teacher intermittently provides mini-lessons and conferences with students
Unspecified	No specific classroom activity is indicated
(DS) Data Source	
Code	Definition
Observation(B)	Classroom observation of Bev
Observation(N)	Classroom observation of Nancy
Observation(S)	Classroom observation of Susan
Interview(B)	Interview with Bev
Interview(N)	Interview with Nancy
Interview(S)	Interview with Susan
Survey	
Photograph	
(GR) Group	
Code	Definition
One	One student
Small group	A group of three or more students
Two	Two students

(GR) Group	
Code	Definition
Whole class	The entire class
Unspecified	No specific group size is indicated
(MD) Mode	
Code	Definition
Rdg	Reading
Rdg/Wtg	Reading and writing
Wtg	Writing
Unspecified	No specific mode is indicated
(MOD) Modified	
Code	Definition
Yes	The Reading Recovery concept has been altered in the classroom context
(RRC) Reading Recovery Concept	
Code	Definition/Example
Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words	The teacher takes more than one instructional step, increasing the level of support with each effort
Administering Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	Using the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words assessment from an Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2002)
Administering Letter ID	Using the Letter Identification assessment from an Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2002)
Administering Record of Oral Language	Using the Record of Oral Language assessment from an Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, Gill, Glynn, McNaughton, & Salmon, 1983)
Administering Observation Survey	Using the complete assessment An Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2002)
Analyzing a Running Record	Analyzing the sources of information used and neglected at errors and self-corrections in order to form a hypothesis about a student's current reading processing system
Arranging for success	The teacher consciously selects tasks that the student will be able to complete successfully
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	The teacher plans future instruction based on a hypothesis of the student's next instructional need, drawn from the Running Record
Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with text	As the teacher observes a child read, he/she forms a hypothesis of the student's next instructional need
Building on the known	Extending new instruction from the basis of something known

(RRC) Reading Recovery Concept	
Code	Definition/Example
Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word	Using syntax to self-monitor e.g., "Would you say it that way?"
Calling for a search of English grammar to solve a word	Searching for useful syntax to solve words e.g., "How would you say that?"
Calling for a search of meaning to check a word	Using meaning to self-monitor e.g., "Did that make sense?"
Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word	Searching for useful meaning to solve words e.g., "What would make sense?"
Calling for a search of visual information to check a word	Using visual information to self-monitor e.g., "Does that look right?"
Calling for a search of visual information to locate a known word	Searching visual for known information. "Show me the word 'here'."
Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word	Searching useful visual to solve words. e.g., "What sound would these letters make?"
Calling on a child to sort magnetic letters	Asking children to sort magnetic letters to attend to features and rapidly differentiate between letters
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	Drawing the child's attention to useful knowledge in reading to solve a problem in writing or vice-versa e.g., "That word you need to write is in your book"
Creating a personal alphabet book for a child	As an early learning tool, creating a personal book for a child linking their known bank of letters to their choice of words with those strong initial sounds e.g., "b- ball" (with letter and illustration)
Demonstrating fluent reading	The teacher shows how to read a text fluently or how to phrase a section of text
Demonstrating self-monitoring	The teacher shows how he/she monitors her own accuracy/comprehension of a text
Designing individual instruction	The teacher refers to differentiating instruction according to an individual student's learning profile
Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	These conversations could occur either at school or during a Reading Recovery professional development session
Drawing on a conversation for a student's idea in writing	The teacher precedes students' composing with a discussion about the writing topic. e.g., "What did you learn about this story? You could write that."
Early teaching of concepts of print	Teaching beginning readers and writers about directionality of English print, letter/word concepts or one-to-one voice/print matching

(RRC) Reading Recovery Concept	
Code	Definition/Example
Encouraging checking with one-to-one matching	Teaching beginning readers to self-monitor by matching spoken and printer words e.g., "Did you run out of words?"
Encouraging/discouraging pointing at text while reading	Bringing in or taking out the reader's finger to search for visual information or to improve the fluency of reading. e.g., "Show me the tricky part." "Try that with just your eyes."
Fostering accelerated learning	Referring to temporarily increasing the pace of learning so that a struggling learning can catch up to his/her peers
Fostering cross-checking of information	Calling on a student to compare two or more sources of information to self-monitor, self-correct, or to solve a word e.g., "That looks right, but what would make sense?"
Fostering learner's independence	Referring to the importance of a student to be able to take on literacy tasks by him/herself
Fostering self-correction	Calling on a child to make a correction e.g., "Try that again."
Fostering self-monitoring	Calling on a child to consider the accuracy, comprehension, or fluency of their work e.g., "Was that OK?"
Linking letters and sounds	Instruction that connects printed letters to spoken sounds (phonics)
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	The teacher makes an on-the-spot decision for the next teaching move, based on what the child just did
Orienting children to a new story before reading	Introducing a text to a child so that he/she is familiar with the general meaning of the text and unfamiliar structure or vocabulary has been introduced
Practicing a word so that it is added to known vocabulary	Using repeated drill to help remember a word e.g., Flash cards, writing a word repeatedly
Praising independent solving	e.g., "I like how you solved that word"
Providing a large number of experiences with text	The teacher consciously provides numerous opportunities to read or write texts to build the child's capacity
Providing opportunities to reread familiar texts	The teacher selects previously read texts for the child to reread
Referencing teaching textbooks from Reading Recovery	e.g., Literacy Lessons Part II (Clay, 2005b)

(RRC) Reading Recovery Concept	
Code	Definition/Example
Referring to an emergent theory vs. a readiness theory	Clay's emergent viewpoint is that all children are ready to learn more than already know, that it is up to the teacher to design appropriate instruction for each child. A readiness theory suggests that children need to successfully master a sequence of pre-requisite skills before being ready to proceed forward in literacy instruction
Referring to Clay's definition of reading/writing	Clay defines reading as primarily a message-getting activity. Teachers refer to the importance of the construction of meaning while reading
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	Teachers describe an understanding of how children learn to read and write, referring to Clay's theory
Referring to degrees of known.	Referring to Clay's degrees of known when describing children's accumulation of new knowledge • New • Only just known • Successfully problem-solved • Easily produced but easily thrown • Well-known and recognized in most contexts • Known in many variant forms (Clay, 2005b, p. 46)
Referring to different paths to common outcomes	Teachers perceive children as developing literacy at different rates, in different sequences, and with different instructional needs and different times
Referring to instructional/easy/hard text levels	Teachers match the reading level of a text to a child's capacity to process text
Referring to letting go of assumptions	Teachers refer to approaching instruction with a tentative stance, or having their assumptions about a child proven wrong
Referring to sources of information when discussing children's ability	Teachers refer to meaning, syntactic, or visual information as resources for reading
Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability	Teachers refer to searching for and using information, self-monitoring, self-correcting, cross-checking information, or developing complex thinking required for reading
Referring to the zone of proximal development	Teaching on the cusp of what a child can do with assistance, without overwhelming the child with a too difficult task

(RRC) Reading Recovery Concept	
Code	Definition/Example
Referring to urgency/persistence in teaching	Referring to a raised sense of urgency in teaching literacy or teaching that is focused and persistent
Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge	The teacher uses knowledge of a child's abilities and interest to select a text for the child to read
Solving words through analogy to known words	Using part of a known word to solve an unknown word e.g., "You know 'car', how would that help you? [star]
Spending time to get to know the child as a learner	The teacher spends the initial period of instruction further exploring what the child knows and getting to know the child's needs as a learner.
Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	
Stating a belief that teacher quality outweighs deficits in a child	The teacher approaches teaching believing that all children can learn if the teacher finds an effective method to teach the child
Stating raised or high expectations	
Taking a Running Record of children reading	The teacher sits next to a student reading and records the student's reading behaviours using a standard set of conventions
Teaching a variety of approaches to solve words	The teacher shows or calls on alternate methods to solve words to build flexible, adaptable processing
Teaching features of text	The teacher shows students how texts are organized or written
Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written	Rather than teach items of knowledge (e.g., sight words) from a predetermined list, the teacher looks for opportunities to teach words as they occur or are needed in texts
Teaching structures of language found in text	The teacher explains new or novel structures of language found in texts
Using a dark marker on white paper	The teacher follows Clay's suggestion for beginning writers to write in marker (high contrast, smooth flow)
Using non-lined paper for children's writing	The teacher follows Clay's suggestion for beginning writers to learn to write without the confines of lines as they gain more control over their fine motor skills

(RRC) Reading Recovery Concept	
Code	Definition/Example
Using a Reading Recovery-style writing book	The teacher has assembled a book of blank pages. One side is used to practice, and the other for writing the student's message.
Using cut-up story procedure	The teacher writes a sentence on a strip of paper. After cutting the strip apart into words or word parts, the teacher scrambles the words and asks the student to reassemble the message.
Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure	The teacher calls on students to say words slowly, listen, and record the sounds they hear as a means of solving unknown words in writing. As a support, the teacher may draw a series of boxes (one for every needed sound, or later, every needed letter) to complete the sound analysis. e.g., "Say the word slowly. What can you hear? How would you write that sound? What do you near next?"
Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or call on children to build or take words apart	The teacher shows or asks children to break words into parts and/or construct words
Using more concise prompts	Teachers purposefully reduce the amount of teacher talk when prompting readers and writers
Using prompts from Reading Recovery	The teacher refers to using unspecified prompts from Reading Recovery
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)	The teacher makes a general comment about using Reading Recovery activities, but does not specify any particular procedure e.g., "My guided reading lesson looks a lot like a Reading Recovery lesson."
Using children's texts from Reading Recovery	The teacher uses texts from the Canadian Reading Recovery Booklist (a list of the leveled texts approved for Reading Recovery lessons which is only available to Canadian Reading Recovery professionals)
(RRT) Reading Recovery Transfer	
Code	Definition
Attitude	What the teacher believes or values
Knowledge	What the teacher knows or understands
Language	What the teacher says
Procedure	What the teacher does

Appendix D Supplemental Tables

Table D.1

Reviewed Studies of Exemplary Primary Literacy Teachers

Author(s), (Year)	Participants	Data Collection	Analysis	Teacher Actions	Teacher Knowledge	Teacher Beliefs
Allington (2002)	N=unspecified	Observations, interviews	Constant comparative analysis	•	•	•
Baker, Allington, & Brooks (2001)	N=1	Classroom observation	Descriptive analysis	•		•
Block (2001)	N=1	Classroom observation, interview	Descriptive analysis	•	•	•
Block, Oakar, & Hurt (2002)	N=1,647 directors of literacy instruction	Observation	Case study point-by-point Delphi	•	•	
Bogner, Raphael, & Pressley (2002)	N=7 Grade 1 teachers in participating schools	Observation, interviews	Constant comparative analysis	•		•
Bohn, Roehrig, & Pressley (2004)	N=6 Teachers identified in pilot study	Classroom observation, interviews, measures of student engagement	Constant comparative analysis	•		•
Cunningham et al. (2004)	N=722	Measures of teachers' knowledge of children's literature, phonological awareness, phonics, knowledge calibration	Frequency data, correlational analysis		•	•
Day (2001)	N=30	Interviews	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis	•		•
Lyons (2003)	N=10	Reading Recovery lesson observation, Interviews	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis	•	•	•
Mather, Bos, & Babur (2001)	N=424 (293 preservice teachers, 131 inservice teachers)	Surveys, phonemic awareness/phonics knowledge assessment	Correlational analysis		•	
McCutchen et al. (2002)	N=59	Measures of teachers' knowledge of aspects of reading, theoretical	Correlational Analysis		•	

Author(s), (Year)	Participants	Data Collection	Analysis	Teacher Actions	Teacher Knowledge	Teacher Beliefs
		perspective, general knowledge, classroom observation				
Medwell et al. (1998)	N=228, (26 observed) Identified as excellent or other by research team based on student outcomes	Surveys, literacy knowledge assessment (N=228), observation and interviews (N=26), sample of "ordinary" and novice teachers	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis, frequency data	•	•	•
Metsala et al. (1997)	N=89 Nominated by supervisors	Surveys, ethnographic observations, interviews	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis, constant comparative analysis	•	•	•
Morrow & Asbury (2001)	N=1	Classroom observation	Descriptive analysis	•	•	•
Morrow et al. (1999)	N = 6 Nominated by supervisors	Classroom observation, interviews	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis	•	•	•
Pressley (2001)	N=1	Classroom observation, interviews	Descriptive analysis	•	•	•
Pressley et al. (1996)	N = 28 Identified by administrators as outstanding or typical Students' outcomes classified teachers	Classroom observation, post-observation interviews	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis	•		•
Pressley et al. (2001)	N = 30 Identified by administrators as outstanding or typical Students' outcomes classified teachers	Classroom observation, interviews, students' literacy outcomes, measures of student engagement	Constant comparative analysis	•		•
Pressley, Ranking, & Yokoi (1996)	N = 23 Nominated by supervisors	Questionnaires	Frequency data	•		
Ruddell (1995)	N=unspecified	Questionnaires, interviews	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis	•	•	•
Taylor et al.	N=112	Classroom	Correlational	•		

Author(s), (Year)	Participants	Data Collection	Analysis	Teacher Actions	Teacher Knowledge	Teacher Beliefs
(2000)	(2 K-3 teachers in 14 participating schools)	observation, surveys, activity logs, students' reading achievement	analysis			
Taylor et al. (2002)	N=48	Classroom observation, students' literacy assessments	Identification of patterns, descriptive analysis HLM analysis	•		
Wharton-McDonald (2001)	N=1	Classroom observation	Descriptive analysis	•	•	•
Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, & Hampston (1998)	N=9 Nominated by language arts coordinators as outstanding or typical	Classroom observation, measures of students' achievement and engagement, interviews	Constant comparative analysis	•	•	•

Table D.2

Summary of Demographic Information for Survey Participants

Participant #	Gender	Province	Area of Province	Grade(s) Taught				Total Years Teaching	Year Trained in Reading Recovery
				K	1	2	3+		
124	Female	AB	Urban			•		22	2009-2010
179	Female	AB	Urban			•		23	2009-2010
182	Female	AB	Urban	•				16	2009-2010
187	Female	AB	Urban	•				15	2009-2010
189	Female	AB	Urban		•			22	2009-2010
190	Female	AB	Urban		•			15	2009-2010
124	Female	AB	Urban		•			20	2011-2012
191	Female	AB	Urban		•			7	2009-2010
181	Female	AB	Urban			•		3	2010-2011
188	Female	AB	Urban		•			3	2011-2012
178	Female	AB	Urban		•			11	2011-2012
100	Female	BC	Urban		•			4	2011-2012
118	Female	BC	Rural	•	•	•	•	13	2011-2012
123	Female	BC	Urban			•	•	28	2009-2010
122	Female	BC	Rural		•	•		12	2009-2010
114	Female	BC	Urban		•	•		32	2009-2010
131	Female	BC	Northern		•			18	2010-2011
121	Female	BC	Urban	•				12	2010-2011
125	Female	BC	Urban			•		5	2011-2012
169	Female	BC	Rural			•	•	4	2011-2012
170	Female	BC	Northern			•		11	2011-2012
120	Female	BC	Urban	•				12	2009-2010
119	Female	BC	Rural	•	•	•	•	8	2011-2012
132	Female	BC	Northern		•	•		4	2010-2011
136	Female	BC	Urban		•			5	2011-2012
116	Female	BC	Urban	•				6	2009-2010
102	Female	MB	Urban		•			12	2011-2012
153	Female	MB	Urban			•	•	8	2009-2010
106	Female	MB	Rural		•	•		25	2011-2012
105	Female	MB	Rural		•	•		32	2011-2012
151	Female	MB	Urban	•				5	2011-2012
171	Female	MB	Urban	•				16	2011-2012
127	Female	MB	Rural		•			4	2009-2010
101	Female	MB	Urban		•			19	2009-2010
126	Female	MB	Rural	•	•	•	•	13	2011-2012
154	Female	MB	Urban			•		17	2009-2010
162	Female	MB	Urban	•	•	•	•	19	2009-2010
157	Female	MB	Urban			•		24	2009-2010
111	Female	MB	Rural	•	•			13	2009-2010
176	Female	MB	Urban		•			7	2010-2011

Participant #	Gender	Province	Area of Province	Grade(s) Taught				Total Years Teaching	Year Trained in Reading Recovery
				K	1	2	3+		
175	Female	MB	Urban			•		7	2011-2012
138	Female	MB	Urban		•	•		3	2011-2012
142	Female	MB	Urban	•				6	2010-2011
141	Female	MB	Urban	•				5	2011-2012
148	Female	MB	Urban		•			11	2011-2012
140	Female	MB	Urban		•	•		3	2010-2011
143	Female	MB	Urban		•			23	2011-2012
146	Female	MB	Urban		•			4	2011-2012
139	Male	MB	Urban		•			3	2010-2011
104	Female	MB	Rural		•	•		14	2011-2012
163	Female	NB	Rural	•				3	2011-2012
166	Female	NB	Urban		•			29	2009-2010
164	Female	NB	Rural	•	•	•		4	2009-2010

Table D.3

Likert-scale Questions Responses Cross-Referenced with Province, Region, Training Year, and Grades Taught by Participants

1. Reading Recovery training added to my understanding of how children learn to read.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
All responses	13.2%	1.9%	0%	1.9%	83%	0%
Alberta	18.1%	0%	0%	0%	81.8%	0%
British Columbia	13.3%	0%	0%	0%	86.7%	0%
Manitoba	8.3%	0%	0%	4.2%	87.5%	0%
New Brunswick	33.3%	33.3%	0%	0%	33.3%	0%
Urban	10.8%	0%	0%	2.7%	86.5%	0%
Rural	16.7%	8.3%	0%	0%	75%	0%
Northern	33.3%	0%	0%	0%	66.7%	0%
2011-2012	8.3%	0%	0%	0%	91.7%	0%
2010-2011	12.5%	0%	0%	0%	87.5%	0%
2009-2010	19%	4.8%	0%	4.8%	71.4%	0%
Kindergarten	17.6%	5.9%	0%	0%	76.5%	0%
Grade One	13.3%	3.3%	0%	0%	83.3%	0%
Grade Two	13.0%	4.3%	0%	0%	82.6%	0%
Grade Three+	22.2%	0%	0%	11.1%	66.7%	0%
2. Reading Recovery training added to my understanding of how children learn to write.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
All responses	11.3%	1.9%	0%	20.8%	66.0%	0%
Alberta	9.1%	0%	0%	27.3%	63.6%	0%
British Columbia	13.3%	0%	0%	20%	66.7%	0%
Manitoba	8.3%	0%	0%	20.8%	70.8%	0%
New Brunswick	33.3%	33.3%	0%	0%	33.3%	0%
Urban	8.1%	0%	0%	21.6%	70.3%	0%
Rural	16.7%	8.3%	0%	16.7%	58.3%	0%
Northern	33.3%	0%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	0%
2011-2012	8.3%	0%	0%	16.7%	75%	0%
2010-2011	12.5%	0%	0%	25%	62.5%	0%
2009-2010	14.3%	4.8%	0%	23.8%	57.1%	0%
Kindergarten	17.6%	5.9%	0%	17.6%	58.8%	0%
Grade One	10.0%	3.3%	0%	20.0%	66.7%	0%
Grade Two	13.0%	4.3%	0%	17.4%	65.2%	0%
Grade Three+	22.2%	0%	0%	22.2%	55.6%	0%
3. I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in reading.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
All responses	11.3%	0%	1.9%	30.2%	56.6%	0%
Alberta	9.1%	0%	0%	18.2%	72.7%	0%
British Columbia	13.3%	0%	0%	20.0%	66.7%	0%
Manitoba	8.3%	0%	4.2%	37.5%	50.0%	0%
New Brunswick	33.3%	0%	0%	66.7%	0%	0%
Urban	8.1%	0%	2.7%	32.4%	56.8%	0%
Rural	16.7%	0%	0%	33.3%	50.0%	0%
Northern	33.3%	0%	0%	0%	66.7%	0%
2011-2012	8.3%	0%	0%	20.8%	70.8%	0%
2010-2011	12.5%	0%	12.5%	12.5%	62.5%	0%

3. I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in reading.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
Kindergarten	17.6%	0%	0%	23.5%	58.8%	0%
Grade One	10.0%	0%	3.3%	33.3%	53.3%	0%
Grade Two	13.0%	0%	4.3%	34.8%	47.8%	0%
Grade Three+	22.2%	0%	0%	33.3%	44.4%	0%

4. I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training I have changed my classroom literacy instructional practices in writing.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
All responses	11.3%	0%	13.2%	34.0%	41.5%	0%
Alberta	9.1%	0%	9.1%	27.3	54.5%	0%
British Columbia	13.3%	0%	26.7%	13.3%	46.7%	0%
Manitoba	8.3%	0%	4.2%	50.0%	37.5%	0%
New Brunswick	33.3%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	0%	0%
Urban	8.1%	0%	13.5%	37.8%	40.5%	0%
Rural	16.7%	0%	16.7%	25%	41.7%	0%
Northern	33.3%	0%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	0%
2011-2012	8.3%	0%	4.2%	37.5%	50.0%	0%
2010-2011	12.5%	0%	12.5%	25.0%	50.0%	0%
2009-2010	14.3%	0%	23.8%	33.3%	28.6%	0%
Kindergarten	17.6%	0%	23.5%	11.8%	72.7%	0%
Grade One	10.0%	0%	13.3%	40.0%	36.7%	0%
Grade Two	13.0%	0%	21.7%	26.1%	39.1%	0%
Grade Three+	22.2%	0%	22.2%	11.1%	44.4%	0%

5. I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, I assess children's literacy development differently.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
All responses	7.5%	1.9%	5.7%	28.3%	52.8%	1.9%
Alberta	9.1%	0%	0%	27.3%	63.6%	0%
British Columbia	6.7%	6.7%	0%	20.0%	66.7%	0%
Manitoba	4.2%	0%	12.5%	33.3%	41.7%	4.2%
New Brunswick	33.3%	0%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	0%
Urban	5.4%	0%	8.1%	27.0%	54.1%	2.7%
Rural	16.7%	8.3%	0%	33.3%	41.7%	0%
Northern	0%	0%	0%	33.3%	66.7%	0%
2011-2012	8.3%	4.2%	4.2%	29.2%	54.2%	0%
2010-2011	0%	0%	12.5%	12.5%	62.5%	12.5%
2009-2010	9.5%	0%	4.8%	33.3%	47.6%	0%
Kindergarten	17.6%	5.9%	5.9%	11.8%	58.5%	0%
Grade One	3.3%	3.3%	3.3%	40.0%	50%	0%
Grade Two	4.3%	4.3%	4.3%	39.1%	43.5%	0%
Grade Three+	0%	11.1%	11.1%	33.3%	44.4%	0%

6. I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, my perception of children who are learning to read and write has changed.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
All responses	7.5%	1.9%	7.5%	30.2%	52.8%	0%
Alberta	9.1%	0%	0%	18.2%	72.7%	0%
British Columbia	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	20.0%	60.0%	0%
Manitoba	4.2%	0%	8.3%	45.8%	41.7%	0%
New Brunswick	33.3%	0%	33.3%	0%	33.3%	0%
Urban	5.4%	2.7%	5.4%	29.7%	56.8%	0%
Rural	16.7%	0%	16.7%	33.3%	33.3%	0%

6. I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, my perception of children who are learning to read and write has changed.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
2011-2012	8.3%	0%	4.2%	37.5%	50.0%	0%
2010-2011	0%	0%	25.0%	12.5%	62.5%	0%
2009-2010	9.5%	4.8%	4.8%	28.6%	52.4%	0%
Kindergarten	17.6%	0%	11.8%	5.9%	64.7%	0%
Grade One	3.3%	3.3%	10.0%	23.3%	60.0%	0%
Grade Two	4.3%	4.3%	8.7%	43.5%	39.1%	0%
Grade Three+	0%	0%	11.1%	33.3%	55.6%	0%
7. I have noticed that since my Reading Recovery training, my effectiveness as a classroom literacy teacher has changed.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
All responses	1.9%	0%	5.7%	34.0%	54.7%	1.9%
Alberta	0%	0%	0%	18.2%	81.8%	0%
British Columbia	6.7%	0%	6.7%	33.3%	53.3%	0%
Manitoba	0%	0%	4.2%	41.7%	45.8%	4.2%
New Brunswick	0%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%	0%
Urban	0%	0%	5.4%	37.8%	51.4%	2.7%
Rural	8.3%	0%	8.3%	25.0%	58.3%	0%
Northern	0%	0%	0%	33.3%	66.7%	0%
2011-2012	0%	0%	4.2%	29.2%	62.5%	0%
2010-2011	0%	0%	12.5%	25.0%	50.0%	12.5%
2009-2010	4.8%	0%	4.8%	42.9%	47.6%	0%
Kindergarten	0%	0%	5.9%	23.5%	58.5%	5.9%
Grade One	3.3%	0%	10.0%	23.3%	63.3%	0%
Grade Two	4.3%	0%	8.7%	39.1%	47.8%	0%
Grade Three+	0%	0%	11.1%	33.3%	55.6%	0%

Table D.4

Reading Recovery Concept Occurrences in Domains of Reading Recovery Transfer from Surveys

Reading Recovery Concept	**Belief**	**Knowledge**	**Language**	**Procedure**
Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words	1	3	0	2
Administering Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words assessment	0	0	0	2
Administering Letter Identification assessment	0	0	0	1
Administering Record of Oral Language assessment	0	0	0	1
Administering Writing Vocabulary assessment	0	0	0	2
Administering Observation Survey assessment	0	0	0	4
Analyzing a running record	1	16	0	10
Arranging for success	0	0	0	3
Basing forthcoming instruction on running record analysis	0	16	0	19
Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with text	2	17	0	20
Building on the known	4	7	3	8
Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word	0	0	16	0
Calling for a search of English grammar to solve a word	0	0	1	0
Calling for a search of meaning to check a word	0	0	18	0
Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word	0	0	13	0
Calling for a search of visual information to check a word	0	0	29	0
Calling for a search of visual information to locate a known word	0	0	3	0
Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word	0	0	30	0
Calling on a child to sort magnetic letters	0	0	0	2
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	3	10	2	12
Creating a personal alphabet book for a child	0	0	0	6
Demonstrating fluent reading	0	0	0	2
Demonstrating self-monitoring	0	0	0	1
Designing individual instruction	6	29	0	21
Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	1	1	1	2
Drawing on a conversation for a student's idea in writing	1	0	2	8
Early teaching of concepts of print	0	2	0	14
Early teaching of one-to-one voice/print matching	0	0	0	3
Encouraging checking with one-to-one matching	0	0	2	0
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	0	3	13	12
Encouraging/discouraging pointing at text while reading	0	0	8	0
Fostering accelerated learning	0	4	0	4
Fostering cross-checking of information	1	1	14	1
Fostering learner's independence	11	5	17	17
Fostering self-correction	0	1	19	2
Fostering self-monitoring	0	0	25	9
Linking letters and sounds	1	1	3	1
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	2	12	6	10
Orienting children to a new story before reading	0	1	1	10
Practicing a word so that it is added to known vocabulary	1	0	1	14
Praising independent solving	0	0	1	0
Praising self-correction	0	0	5	0
Praising self-monitoring	0	0	2	0
Providing a large number of experiences with text	3	1	0	17
Providing opportunities to reread familiar texts	0	1	0	4
Referencing teaching textbooks from Reading Recovery	0	1	1	1
Referring to an emergent theory versus a readiness theory	3	4	0	0
Referring to Clay's definition of reading/writing	0	3	0	8
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	2	42	0	1
Referring to degrees of known	0	2	0	1
Referring to different paths to common outcomes	0	2	0	0
Referring to instructional/easy/hard text levels	0	5	0	8
Referring to letting go of assumptions	1	0	0	0

Reading Recovery Concept	Belief	Knowledge	Language	Procedure
Referring to sources of information when discussing children's ability	0	9	2	6
Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability	1	12	5	24
Referring to the zone of proximal development	0	2	0	1
Referring to urgency/persistence in teaching	2	0	0	0
Reflecting on own practice after teaching	0	0	0	3
Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge	1	4	0	11
Solving words through analogy to known words	0	0	9	12
Spending time to get to know the child as a learner	0	1	0	3
Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	9	0	0	0
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	63	16	4	3
Stating a belief that teacher quality outweighs deficits in a child	6	0	1	0
Stating raised or high expectations	5	0	0	1
Taking a running record of children's reading	0	1	0	13
Teaching a variety of approaches to solve words	0	1	2	6
Teaching features of text	0	0	1	0
Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written	0	0	0	3
Teaching structure of language found in text	0	0	1	1
Using a dark marker on white paper	0	0	0	1
Using non-lined paper for children's writing	0	0	0	4
Using a Reading Recovery-style writing book	0	0	0	3
Using cut-up story procedure	0	0	0	6
Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words procedure	0	3	21	47
Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or call on children to take words apart	0	0	0	9
Using more concise prompts	0	1	8	0
Using prompts from Reading Recovery	1	1	169	0
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)	2	16	0	49
Using children's texts from Reading Recovery	0	0	0	1

Table D.5

Survey-Reported Additional Influences to Classroom Literacy Instruction

Type of Literacy Professional Development (Frequency of response)	Type of Professional Development
Balanced literacy (4)	Inservice/text
Classroom observations of colleagues (3)	Consultation with colleagues
Comprehension (3)	Inservice/text
Daily 5 (11)	Inservice/text
General session reading (6)	Inservice
General session writing (2)	Inservice
Grade group meetings (2)	Consultation with colleagues
Graduate level course (4)	Continuing education
Guided reading (7)	Inservice/text
Handwriting without Tears	Inservice/text
Informal discussion with colleagues	Consultation with colleagues
Leveled Literacy Intervention (5)	Inservice/text
Literacy centres (2)	Inservice/text
Professional learning communities	Consultation with colleagues
Provincial assessment marking	Inservice/Consultation with colleagues
Regie Routman Writing Residency (13)	Inservice/text
School book study (3)	Text/Consultation with colleagues
Six Plus One Traits of Writing (2)	Inservice/text
Teaching in a third world country	Volunteerism
Words Their Way	Inservice/text
Working with literacy coach/literacy specialist (3)	Consultation with colleagues
Writer's workshop	Inservice/text
No response (9)	

Table D.6

Observed Reading Recovery-Like Procedures in Bev's Classroom

Reading Recovery Procedure	*Modification*	*Classroom Activity*	*Group Size Frequency*			*Mode*	*Attributed in Interview to Reading Recovery*
			Whole Class	*Small Group*	*One*		
Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words	None	Guided reading		1		Rdg	-
Administering Burt word reading	None	Individual Assessment			1	Rdg	-
Administering Letter Identification	None	Individual Assessment			1	Rdg	-
Analyzing a Running Record	None	Guided reading			1	Rdg	-
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	None	Guided reading			1	Rdg	It is running record, quick things on the page and where they had trouble and that, and just quick notes on how it sounded and what to work on with Rylan. (April 29)
Calling for a search of visual information to locate known words in text	None	Guided reading			1	Rdg	-
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	Asks student to find unknown word in writing in a text (in small group)	Guided writing		1	5	Rdg/ Wtg	Mind you we always did punctuation, but I think it's just making them more aware of why the punctuation is there. (April 3) But before, I probably didn't put it together as much. (May 31)
Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	One of the school's Reading Recovery teachers wants to talk to Bev about one of her students who is in Reading Recovery	Individual assessment			1	Rdg/ Wtg	But I can at least communicate with the Reading Recovery teacher and know what she's doing and what I'm doing. So, yeah for sure I get more out of it. (April 29) I think's a huge strength because the thing for all of us, we can talk, and if I have a problem with someone, I can go to another one and say this is what the student is doing. . . . So I think that is a strength because there's someone we can go to for help. (May 31)

Reading Recovery Procedure	*Modification*	*Classroom Activity*	*Group Size Frequency*			*Mode*	*Attributed in Interview to Reading Recovery*
			Whole Class	*Small Group*	*One*		
Drawing on a conversation for student's idea in writing	None	Demonstration	2			Wtg	I try to get the kids to talk and that's from Reading Recovery too. And I do try to make sure that everyone has a chance to talk more or share. (April 3) Yeah, like a pattern, that kind of pattern writing, where now I don't. And I think some of that from Reading Recovery. . .like I haven't done that probably since I was part-way through Reading Recovery. (May 31).
	Has the class turn and tell their neighbor or the teacher what they're going to write about	Composing own writing	6			Wtg	
	Has a student who is having trouble come up with an idea stay behind on the carpet and talk more with the teacher	Composing own writing			1	Wtg	
Early teaching of concepts of print	Distinguish words and letters	Word work	1			Rdg/ Wtg	To make sure, ok it's four letters or it's three letters, and I do that more since Reading Recovery. (Mar. 22) Probably more at the beginning of the year when we were doing a lot of the early, just starting. (May 2) Other years I haven't worried so much about it really being that clear. But they need to know that we start on the let, we go to the right. (May 31)
Encouraging/discouraging children to point at text	Has selectively mute student point at text while teacher reads	Guided reading			2	Rdg	-
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	Rereads writing to see if it needs a comma added	Demonstration	1			Rdg/ Wtg	-

Reading Recovery Procedure	*Modification*	*Classroom Activity*	*Group Size Frequency*			*Mode*	*Attributed in Interview to Reading Recovery*
			Whole Class	*Small Group*	*One*		
	None	Guided reading		3		Rdg	
Engaging the child in rereading his written story to check or extend the message	None	Demonstration	2			Wtg	I know I reread a lot more now since Reading Recovery too. And even sometimes if you only have a part sentence. And even to get them to get the ideas because I mean in the writing and Reading Recovery sometimes I found that some kids you could get ideas galore and others it was harder. (May 14)
Modeling the scanning of words left to right	None	Word work	1		1	Rdg/ Wtg	I do a lot more modeling now. (Initial interview)
Orienting children to the new story before reading	None	Guided reading		4		Rdg	I introduce books differently now. (May 31 Interview)
Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary	Student is writing word a whiteboard	Guided reading		4		Wtg	I did a little bit before, but the reason I did it before was because Reading Recovery teachers had told me to do it. So, I do it a lot more now that I've had Reading Recovery, that's why I always have my whiteboards here and their socks. (April 29)
	None	Word work	1			Rdg/ Wtg	
Providing a large number of experiences with text	None	Guided writing	1			Wtg	Now I do a lot more writing with them. (Initial interview) We write every day. (April 3) Even my centres this year, my literacy centers. I've changed. But trying to get them work with more words. (May 31)
Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts	None	Guided reading		1		Rdg	-
Reflecting on own practice after teaching	None	Unspecified	1			Rdg/ Wtg	But I mean all my students just looking at them and think, okay, what can I do to help them be successful, and then try to change the way I teach. (May 31)
Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge	None	Guided reading		1		Rdg	Another thing too with Reading Recovery. I'm really trying to pick books better for the students and like really looking. (May 31)

Reading Recovery Procedure	*Modification*	*Classroom Activity*	*Group Size Frequency*			*Mode*	*Attributed in Interview to Reading Recovery*
			Whole Class	*Small Group*	*One*		
Solving words through analogy to known words	Adds the word "end" to the classroom word wall as a basis to solve other words	Word work	1			Wtg	I do that a lot more now. But I did do it before but only because I'd been told by previous Reading Recovery teachers and had, you know, I'd sat in a few times on lessons and they did that before I took the training. (April 29) I used analogies before too. . . but I know it has, I do that more now. (April 3) I use analogies a lot and the kids can, even in our reading, with reading with them or even in their writing. A lot of that. (May 14) Analogies I use a lot more in their writing. (May 14)
	None	Word work	2			Wtg	
	None	Guided writing			1	Wtg	
	None	Guided reading		2		Rdg	
Taking a Running Record of a student's reading	Teacher is writing jot notes of substitutions and self-corrections on her own form using running record conventions	Guided reading		3		Rdg	One thing since Reading Recovery, before I needed to have the words [a pre-printed copy of the text]….now I cannot do a Running Record on one of those at all because there's no room. I prefer just the blank paper. I can do it on anything. (May 1)
	None	Guided reading		2		Rdg	
Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written	None	Shared writing	1			Wtg	-
Using a non-lined page for children's writing	None	Guided writing	1			Wtg	At the beginning of the year I don't give them lines. And it's kind of hard here because I wanted unlined notebooks in the classroom but we have to have the same as the other class. (Mar. 22)

Reading Recovery Procedure	*Modification*	*Classroom Activity*	*Group Size Frequency*			*Mode*	*Attributed in Interview to Reading Recovery*
			Whole Class	*Small Group*	*One*		
Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	Has class clap words to isolate syllables	Word work	1			Wtg	I find I've been using lots of sound boxes. (April 29) I think I let them do more of the sounds. For them to really say the words, say the sounds. (May 14) Individually, yeah…but really I should be group-wise too because it makes sense. (May 14) And I think I get them to say it a lot more now. (May 14) Saying it to themselves, putting down what they hear, saying the words slowly for our word work. (May 27)
	Draws sound boxes	Guided writing			1	Wtg	
Using a dark marker on white paper	None	Guided writing	1			Wtg	Yeah, because I'd never done that before. (Mar. 22) And I could see the difference. I know last year a boy I had in Reading Recovery that wasn't in my class. I went into his classroom and his work was so messy you couldn't read it. So, I showed his teacher what he was doing in Reading Recovery and she started using marker in the class too. (Mar. 22)
Using cut-up story procedure	Uses cut-up to check reading ability of selectively mute student	Guided reading			1	Rdg	I don't even know if I would know how to read with her (selectively mute student) if I didn't have Reading Recovery training. I would have no idea where to even go with her. (May 31 Interview)
Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or calling on children to build or take words apart	Students are building their spelling words	Literacy centres		1		Wtg	Now I'm giving them just magnetic letters or tiles, or whatever, in a baggie and they have to try to make words. (May 31) The Word Work and breaking words
	Students are using letter tiles instead of	Word work	1			Rdg/ Wtg	

Reading Recovery Procedure	*Modification*	*Classroom Activity*	*Group Size Frequency*			*Mode*	*Attributed in Interview to Reading Recovery*
			Whole Class	*Small Group*	*One*		
	magnetic letters						in Reading Recovery. I mean, we do that. (May 31)
	One student demonstrates building a word from text	Shared reading	1			Rdg/ Wtg	
Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified)	None	Unspecified	1		1	Unspecified	I think there is whole class as well too. I mean, it's hard for me to pinpoint it just because you just do it. . . .I think it is autopilot, but I think there's influences there that push me to think, okay now I need to do this, now I need to do that. (May 27) But I feel, yes, I am using different strategies and techniques that I learned in Reading Recovery in the classroom. (May 27) I'm doing a lot of Reading Recovery stuff with her right in the classroom. (May 31)
Using texts from the Reading Recoery booklist	None	Guided reading		3		Rdg	-

Table D.7

Observed Reading Recovery Language in Bev's Classroom

Reading Recovery Concept	*Classroom Activity*	*Mode*	*Whole class*	*Small group*	*One*	*Prompts Observed*
Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word	Demonstration	Wtg	1			• What should I say, which sounds right? • We don't say 'ligh-ked' [liked]. How do we say that? • Does that sound right? • [Repeats what student has said] with a questioning intonation. • [Repeats what student has said] Do we say that? • Do you think 'X' would fit? Ok let's try it and see. • Do we say 'X' or 'Y'? • Listen what sounds right 'X'or'Y'?
	Guided reading	Rdg		1		
	Guided writing	Wtg	3			
	Literacy centres	Wtg			1	
	Shared writing	Wtg	1			
	Teacher/student conferencing	Wtg			1	
	Work at desk		1			
Calling for a search of English grammar to solve a word	Shared reading	Rdg	1			• What would fit there? • How do we say it?
	Guided writing	Wtg	1			
Calling for a search of meaning to check a word	Guided reading	Rdg		3		• Does that make sense? • Would that make sense? • Did that make sense? • Try that again and think what would make sense.
	Guided writing	Wtg	3			
	Shared reading	Rdg	2			
	Shared writing	Wtg	1			
Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word	Guided reading	Rdg		12		• What was the Little Red Hen doing? • What does the Little Red Hen have to do? • What could that be? What is she doing? • What comes next? • What kind of bird was it? • What are they doing? • Look at the picture. • Look at the picture, it helps you. • Where is he? • What are Father Bear and Mother Bear wondering? What would they say? • What did he like to do? • What's she doing? • That was in the book you read yesterday. Remember, the horses were in the…
	Shared writing	Wtg	1			

Reading Recovery Concept	*Classroom Activity*	*Mode*	*Whole class*	*Small group*	*One*	*Prompts Observed*
Calling for a search of visual information to check a word	Guided reading	Rdg		9		• Take a look at that. • Do you see an 'L'? • That doesn't look right. • Something's not right. Listen. • Do you see an 's' in there? • Does that look right? • Look at that word. • Look at it. • Do you a see a little word in there? • Look at the ending. • Take a look. • Take a look at it, see if you're right. • Take a look at that word. What do you hear at the end? Could that be 'got'? • Try that again, look at the end of the word too. • Take a look at it everyone. Can you see the letters you hear? • Write it and see if it looks right.
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	7			
	Literacy centres	Wtg			1	
Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word	Guided reading	Rdg		10		• Get your mouth ready. • Do you see a part you know? • Is there a part you know? • Use all of the letters. • What would this part say? • Look at the ending. • Let's take a look. • Do you see a part of this word you know?
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	Guided writing	Rdg/ Wtg	2		1	• If you can get a word you need out of book you need that's great. • Take out your book bag and see if you have a book with 'didn't' in it. • Find 'X' in a book.
	Work at desk	Rdg/ Wtg	2			
Demonstrating self-monitoring	Demonstration	Wtg	2			• I'm going to talk out loud so you can hear what I'm thinking. • I made a mistake. I have to reread to fix it. • That's why it's important we reread so you can notice and fix things.
	Teacher read-aloud	Rdg	1			
Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	Reflecting	Rdg/ Wtg	1			• Often the Reading Recovery teacher will say my kids know something in Reading Recovery because we have done it in class. We use the same language.
Drawing on a conversation for student's ideas in writing	Guided writing	Wtg	1			• What are you trying to say? Just tell me. Tell me first.

Reading Recovery Concept	*Classroom Activity*	*Mode*	*Whole class*	*Small group*	*One*	*Prompts Observed*
Early teaching of concepts of print	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	1		1	• Make sure that your letters are together - that you don't have spaces in between the letters in the words. • Push it together, remember your letters have to be together.
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	Guided reading	Rdg		4		• Make your reading sound like talking. • Try that again – see how that word is dark? How would you say it? • How would you read that part? • I want you to read it faster. • Let's try that again. I heard people stop here. Can you stop here?
	Shared writing	Rdg/ Wtg	1			
Encouraging/discouraging children to point at text while reading	Guided reading	Rdg		7		• I want you to use your finger. • Get your finger if you're stuck there. • Remember to not use your finger unless it's tricky. • Try not to use your finger unless you're stuck. • Try not to use your finger, you're doing good without it. • Put the words together. • Try that without your finger. • Point to it and read.
	Guided writing	Wtg	3			
Engaging the child in rereading his written story to check or extend the message	Guided writing	Wtg	2			• Read me what you have so far. • Let's read this and see if it makes sense. • Let's reread what we have. Remember it has to make sense. • Let's read it again and check. • I want you to try that again. • OK, let's read the whole thing together from the very beginning. • Let's try that one more time.
	Shared writing	Wtg	5			
Fostering cross-checking of information	Guided reading	Rdg		7		• You hear a 't'. Do you see a 'T'? • Look at the sounds, but it has to make sense. • It could say 'go away', try that again and think about what would look right. • Don't just sound it out. Think about the story. • Remember what happened, now get your mouth ready. • Does that look right and make sense? • It could be 'X. What do you hear in 'X? • It starts like that. What would make sense?
	Shared reading	Rdg	1			

Reading Recovery Concept	*Classroom Activity*	*Mode*	*Whole class*	*Small group*	*One*	*Prompts Observed*
Fostering self-correcting	Guided reading	Rdg		6		• Try that again • Try that again and think about the story. • Try this line again. • Let's try that again. • Good. Good job.
	Shared writing	Wtg				
Fostering self-monitoring	Guided reading	Rdg		6	1	• You made a mistake in this sentence. I want to see if you can find it. • What's wrong with that? • Something's missing. • What's wrong with your word? • Read that again. • You made a mistake there, I want to see if you can find it. • How did you know? • You should know that word in your head. Check it over. • Do you have everything you need? What do you think? • Do you need a period there? Does that make sense? • OK when you're printing you have to read over your work, you have to check. Some of you still put uppercases where you don't need them. • Anything wrong with that? • You can read that and see what word you missed.
	Guided writing	Wtg	2			
	Shared writing	Wtg	1			
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	4			
Linking letters and sounds	Guided writing	Wtg	2		1	• I will tell you something, there's two letters making that sound at the end. • What would these letters say? • Sometimes 'ED' sounds like 't'. • What says 'oo' in 'pool'? • What says 'ar' in the middle of a word? • What says 'ee' at the end of a word? • It starts with 'X'. What says 'X'. • Think what says 'X'? • The 'E' usually makes the 'I' say its name. In this one you don't need it. • 'Trips' almost sounds likes there's a 'ch' sound at the beginning, but it's 'tr-'
	Shared reading	Rdg	1			
	Shared writing	Wtg	3			
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	3			
Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary	Guided writing	Wtg	1			• Write it there three times and then put it in your story. • Take it apart and see how fast you can put it back together.
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	1			
Praising fluent reading	Guided reading	Rdg		2		• Nice expression. • I like how changed your voice there.

Reading Recovery Concept	*Classroom Activity*	*Mode*	*Whole class*	*Small group*	*One*	*Prompts Observed*
Praising independent solving	Guided reading	Rdg		1		• I like how you figured that out by yourself. • Good job. I like how you did that. • You know, I like how you put the 'E' there. • Some of you put the 'E' on the end and that's really good thinking. I like how lots of you did that.
	Guided writing	Wtg	2			
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	2		1	
Praising self-correction	Guided reading	Rdg		4		• I like how you fixed that. • I like what did at this part. You reread this part when it didn't make sense. • You know what I liked? You fixed that. • I'm glad you saw that. • I like how you changed that.
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg			2	
Praising self-monitoring	Guided reading	Rdg			1	• That didn't make sense, did it?
Referring to sources of information when discussing children's ability	Individual assessment	Rdg			1	• That structure's a little bit too [tricky] there.
Solving words through analogy to known words	Guided writing	Wtg	2	1		• That one she can get, because she knows how to spell 'day'. • You wrote 'play'. How would you write 'day'? • It's like 'stop' at the beginning. • If you can write 'X', you can write 'Y'. • If you can spell 'X'. what other words could you write? • Can you spell 'X'? Would that help you with 'Y'?
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	4			
	Work at desk	Wtg	4			
Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	Guided writing	Wtg	5	3		• Say it slowly, write the sounds you hear. • What do you hear? You say it, What's at the end/beginning? • Say it slowly. • Say the beginning sound again. • Say the word slowly. Can I hear you say it? • OK try it. Say it slow. • Say it slowly. I want you to say it slowly. Let me hear you say it. I can't hear you. • Say it slow and put down the sounds. Do you need that? • I like how you're saying it slowly. • Say it slow. Think how you could make it. • Say it slowly. How can you make it? • If you don't know a word, say it slowly, write down the sounds you hear. • Clap it. How many syllables?
	Shared writing	Wtg	4			
	Word work	Rdg/ Wtg	34		1	
	Work at desk	Wtg	1			

Table D.8

Bev's Reported and Observed Classroom Activities Influenced by Reading Recovery

Classroom Activity Reported in Survey	Reading Recovery Procedures Observed During this Activity	Reading Recovery Language Observed During this Activity
Demonstrating	• Drawing on a conversation for student's idea in writing • Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	• Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word • Demonstrating self-monitoring
Guided Reading	• Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words • Analyzing a Running Record • Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis • Calling for a search of visual information to locate known words in text • Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge • Encouraging/discouraging children to point at text • Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading • Orienting children to the new story before reading • Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary • Providing a large number of experiences with text • Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts • Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge • Solving words through analogy to known words • Taking a Running Record of a student's reading • Using cut-up story procedure	• Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word • Calling for a search of meaning to check a word • Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word • Calling for a search of visual information to check a word • Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word • Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading • Encouraging/discouragingchildren to point at text while reading • Fostering cross-checking of information • Fostering self-correcting • Fostering self-monitoring • Praising fluent reading • Praising independent solving • Praising self-correction • Praising self-monitoring
Guided Writing	• Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge • Providing a large number of experiences with text • Solving words through analogy to known words • Using a non-lined page for children's writing • Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words • Using a dark marker on white paper	• Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word • Calling for a search of English grammar to solve a word • Calling for a search of meaning to check a word • Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge • Drawing on a conversation for student's ideas in writing • Encouraging/discouragingchildren to point at text while reading • Engaging the child in rereading his written story to check or extend the message • Fostering self-monitoring • Linking letters and sounds • Practicing a word so that is added

Classroom Activity Reported in Survey	Reading Recovery Procedures Observed During this Activity	Reading Recovery Language Observed During this Activity
		to known vocabulary • Praising independent solving • Solving words through analogy to known words • Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words
Home Reading	-	-
Individual Assessment	• Administering Burt word reading • Administering Letter Identification • Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	-
Shared Reading	• Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or calling on children to build or take words apart	• Calling for a search of English grammar to solve a word • Calling for a search of meaning to check a word • Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word • Fostering cross-checking of information • Linking letters and sounds

Table D.9

Bev's Reported and Observed Transferred Reading Recovery Procedures and Language

Reported Reading Recovery Procedure	Observed Classroom Activities
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	Guided reading
Designing individual instruction	*Bev had designed an individualized Guided Reading program for her selectively mute student
Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery trained teachers	Individual assessment
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	Demonstration
Selecting texts based on children' instructional needs and knowledge	Guided reading
Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written	Shared writing
Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or call on children to build or take words apart	Literacy centres Shared reading Word work
Reported Reading Recovery Language	Observed Classroom Activities
Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word	Guided reading Shared reading
Fostering cross-checking of information	Guided reading Shared reading
Fostering learner's independence	*Prompts were heard praising independent solving
Fostering self-correction	Guided reading Word work
Linking letters and sounds	Guided writing Shared reading Shared writing Word work
Praising self-correction	Guided reading Work
Referring to sources of information when discussing children's ability	Independent assessment

Table D.10

Bev's Reported Reading Recovery Knowledge Influences

Reading Recovery Concept	Data Source	Comment
Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words	May 10 interview	And what I needed to do to help, what I needed to help him. But I should have had magnets here with Juan today.
	May 27 interview	I go on autopilot but at the same time I stop and think to myself, "What can I do to get through to more of them, or to make it more understandable for them."
Analyzing a Running Record	Initial interview	Now I know what to do with the Running Record
	May 1 interview	But just even to know what a Running Record is and how to analyze it. [speaking about what she would like student teachers to know when they come for field experience] Because before, I mean, MSV, it's like confusion and sometimes still you have to really think, "What are they using and where are they going?" Reading Recovery really helped with that.
	May 10 interview	I mean, I've done Running Records for a lot of years. But, it was just "OK, what are they doing?"
	May 31 interview	I've done Running Records in Grade 5, but to analyze it and to understand it more.
Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with a text	May 27 interview	I think it is autopilot, but I think there's influences there that push me to think, "OK now I need to do this, now I need to do that." I am getting my kids farther, but I think because I know more what to do with them, and when they are stuck in one spot, then I'm able to get them further, help them to figure out a strategy.
	May 31 interview	But for sure it increased my understanding of running records. This is what they're doing now. This is what I need to do or what we need to stay doing, or whatever for moving them.
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	Survey	I can analyze a Running Record now to help me teach what the child needs.
	Initial interview	Whereas before I did Running Records, but I knew their reading level. I knew if they could understand it or not, but I did break it down more into what I needed to do. So, I think for me that was a big part, where do I go from here?
	May 1 interview	I'm a lot more fluent and can analyze it better to say, "OK this is where I need to go."
	May 10 interview	And I think that's a big thing too with the kids, "OK, now what's my next step, where do I go from here with them?" Whereas before I was kind of like, "Yeah they read that and it's easy, or it's instructional, or oh no, it was too hard."
Building on the known	May 27 interview	I think too with Reading Recovery it just makes me stop and think, "OK this is where the kids are at, and to try to push them beyond."
	May 31 interview	[talking about teaching selectively mute student] But because I know the words she knows, then I can give her choices, and then she can write the sentences herself.
Designing individual instruction	May 1 interview	So I think for differentiating with the different students – they need that a lot. [speaking about what she would like student teachers to know when they come for field experience]
	May 31 interview	I don't even know if I would know how to read with her (selectively mute student) if I didn't have Reading Recovery training. I would have no idea where to even go with her.
Early teaching of concepts of print	Mar. 22 interview	The observation survey and at the end when we did, you know in [Concept about Print] "Show me one letter, show me two letters…" and they didn't do, they didn't know. And I was

Reading Recovery Concept	Data Source	Comment
		surprised and I was like "OK, I didn't do enough of that."
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	May 27 interview	I always spent some [time] in guided reading but I find I did a lot more one-to-one reading. Where now I find I can manage a group of two or three students, listening to them all, even if they're on different [pages] or working different strategies for the words.
Providing a large number of experiences with text	Survey	I understand the importance of modeling and continued practice.
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	Survey	I have a better understanding of how to teach students reading skills.
	Initial interview	It's really showed me a lot more than modeling, to take things apart and show them from the beginning on, of where to go with writing or reading. It breaks it down so much, and it's so structured – exactly what you have to do.
Referring to instructional/easy/hard text levels	May 31 interview	Because before I think I'd just read it, ask them a few questions. Yeah, yeah, yeah, they're at level whatever, where really they weren't.
Referring to sources of information when discussing children's ability	Survey	I understand more what students need assistance with (help students use meaning, structure, and visual information).
	May 10 interview	Just to really understand what the meaning was, what the structure, what the visual was.
	May 31 interview	Before I had Reading Recovery training, to sit and have a conversation with someone you'd get so mixed up on the meaning, the structure, the visual.
Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability	May 1 interview	And I think just the [Reading Recovery training] group sessions where we questioned, "OK what's he doing? What's he doing? Are you sure that's what he's doing?" And just using the different strategies that the get and how to lead them.
	May 31 interview	I guess I understand how maybe they're thinking. Well, it's hard to understand how they're thinking, but I mean sometimes, it's just to analyze what they're doing. And to really understand that more, just to kid of see where the kids are and say, "OK this what he's doing".
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	April 29 interview	And I don't know if it's because maybe now I have more knowledge to try to get them to write at their comfort level, I don't know. But I don't have any students that just sit.
Teaching a variety of approaches to solve words	May 1 interview	What I found lots with this student teacher and other ones, they're just quick to spell for the kids and not teaching them how to spell. [speaking about what she would like student teachers to know when they come for field experience]

Table D.11

Bev's Reported Reading Recovery Belief Influences

Reading Recovery Concept	Data Source	Comment
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	May 10 Interview	He [one of her students] is very bright, and his mom really wants me to move him ahead, but I said, "Well no, because it's not fluent."
Fostering learner's independence	Survey	It's important I try many different ways to assist the struggling reader/writer to enable to help them build independence. I am more attentive on having literacy activities that build on the students' abilities instead of having "busy work" for them to complete while I work with small groups.
	Classroom observation	[talking to her student teacher] "If they have one 'p' in 'trapped' that just fine. I want them to use **their** sounds." [talking to the Reading Recovery teacher about one of her students who is in Reading Recovery] Reading Recovery teacher: Just to keep him going and so he's not getting frustrated with himself. Trying to build his confidence. So, I'm keeping him a little bit longer than I usually do, but just kind of building up confidence. Bev: Yes. I agree with that.
	May 10 Interview	I find a lot with student teachers, they just spell for the kids, where I don't. I say, "No, make them try, make them say the word, make them put it down."
	May 31 interview	How do I spell? Well go try it where I can see, like on the whiteboard, I wouldn't have done that before. Maybe I would have gave it to them, whereas now, break it, clap it, try it, and he got it.
Referring to an emergent theory versus a readiness theory	May 31 interview	What I really think, because I used to think some kids aren't ready to read. And then you go into Reading Recovery and you get those kids that you didn't think were ready to read, and I mean you hear so many teacher say that, "Oh, they're not ready. I just don't think they're ready." And then to work with them and realize, "Wow, they are ready and just with tat extra, how they can be successful."
Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	April 3 Interview	To have a purpose always for writing now. And some that is Reading Recovery.
Referring to urgency/persistence in teaching	Survey	I use my guided reading time more effectively now.
	Initial interview	I think time is the big thing and to utilize the time the best way that I can.
Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge	May 31 interview	So it really made me stop and think, "OK I've got to look at my student and realize who they are because I wouldn't want to just read anything." I'm not one to read Harry Potter, but everyone was into Harry Potter, or you know just the type of books. So I've got to really look and see what they're interested in because for them to be successful they're not going to if they don't engage.
Stating a belief teaching quality outweighs deficits of child	May 31 Interview	And so now I think in my classroom, like I'm thinking of the little girl in my room that doesn't talk, she's reading Level 5, and maybe she could read higher if she did talk.
Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	Survey	I used to think some students were not ready to learn to read or write but now I know they can be assisted no matter what level they are at.
Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	Survey	I am much more confident in my ability to help all students learn to read. There is a lot of pressure on Grade One teachers to get their students to an end of Grade One level and I feel that

Reading Recovery Concept	Data Source	Comment
		Reading Recovery training will assist me in getting more of my students to that level. I feel I am better able to differentiate instruction assist all of my students.
	Initial interview	But now I'm so happy I have it because I know it's made me a better teacher for teaching the kids to read.
	May 10 Interview	Interview: What was it about the Reading Recovery training that clarified it for you? Bev: I think just because it was so repetitive what we did, and doing it every single day you get more comfortable doing it.
	May 27 Interview	I have more – I know my guided reading is stronger since Reading Recovery.
	May 31 interview	I have a small class, but I have more kids at level than I've ever had. And so I'm attributing that to what some of the Literacy Centres are doing and my teaching. I mean, some kids just come in reading, but I didn't have any kids come this year that were really strong readers. So I think, I'm putting it, that's my teaching too that's helping them and to get to that. And even their writing. I mean, some kids just pick it up, but some don't and even my lower ones are getting it. I've seen progress in everybody this year, including the one that doesn't talk. So, I think {Reading Recovery] has helped me a lot.
Stating raised or high expectations	Initial interview	I've put more into my writing with the kids and to expect that they can do more.
Stating willingness to learn and apply new skills and knowledge	Initial interview	And I'm scared to try something new, so I think that is a positive for the students too.

Table D.12

Common Transferred Reading Recovery Procedures amidst Three Case Studies

Procedure	Case A Bev					Case B Nancy					Case C Susan				
	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One
Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words	OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV				OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV	
Administering Concepts about Print						•				•					
Analyzing a Running Record	OB/ UNV				OB/ UNV	•				•					
Arranging for Success						•	•	•							
Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with a text						•	•		•	•	•	•	•		
Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	•				•						•				•
Building on the known											•			•	
Connecting reciprocal reading/writing knowledge	•	•		•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•		•	
Designing individual instruction						•	•	•		•	•			•	
Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	•	•			•						•		•		
Drawing on a conversation for student's idea in writing		•	•		•	•	•	•		•					
Early teaching of concepts of print	•	•	•			•	•	•			OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV	
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading						•		•	•						
Engaging the child in rereading his written story to check or extend the message		•	•				OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV		OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV	
Fostering learner's independence						•	•				•	•	•	•	
Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours						•			•		•		•		
Modelling the scanning of words left to right	•	•	•		•	OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV		OB/ UNV		OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV	
Orienting children to the new story before reading	•			•		•		•	•	•	•		•	•	

Procedure	Case A Bev					Case B Nancy					Case C Susan				
	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One
Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•					
Providing a large number of experiences with text		•	•			•		•			•	•		•	
Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts	OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV		OB/ UNV		OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV		•		•	•	
Referring to Clay's definition of reading/writing						•		•							
Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability						•	•	•			•		•		
Reflecting on own practice after teaching	•	•	•								•		•		
Selecting texts based on children's instructional needs and knowledge	•			•		•		•			•		•		
Solving words through analogy to known words	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		
Spending time to get to know child as a learner						•				•					
Taking a Running Record of a student's reading	•			•		•				•	•		•	•	
Teaching a variety of approaches to solve words						•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	
Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written		OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV	OB/ UNV	•	•	•	•	
Teaching structures of language found in text						•			•	•					
Using a non-lined page for children's writing	•		•												
Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words		•	•		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Using a dark marker on white paper		•	•												
Using cut-up story procedure	•				•	•			•		OB/ UNV		OB/ UNV		

Procedure	Case A Bev					Case B Nancy					Case C Susan				
	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One	Rdg	Wtg	Whole Class	Small Group	One
Using magnetic letters to demonstrate or calling on children to build or take words apart	•	•	•	•							•	•	•	•	
Using texts from the Reading Recovery booklist	OB/ UNV			OB/ UNV		•		•	•	•	•			•	

Key	
•	Procedure observed and attributed in interview by teacher to Reading Recovery training
OB/UNV	Procedure observed but unverified as attributed to Reading Recovery
	Procedure observed and attributed to Reading Recovery in one case and OB/UNV in other two cases; OR OB/UNV in all three cases
	Procedure observed and attributed to Reading Recovery in two cases; OR Procedure observed and attributed to Reading Recovery in two cases and OB/UNV in third case
	Procedure observed and attributed to Reading Recovery in all three cases

Table D.13

Cross-Case Prompts Resembling Reading Recovery Language

Reading Recovery Concept	Prompts suggested by Clay (2005b)	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
Calling for a search of English grammar to check a word	You said…can we say it that way? (p. 111)	• Do we say that? • Does that sound right? • How do we say that?	• How would you say that?	• Did that sound right? • Does that sound right?
Calling for a search of meaning to check a word	Does that make sense? (p. 110) Try that again and think what could make sense (p. 206) Try that again and think what would make sense. (p. 111) You said…does that make sense? (p. 111)	• Did that make sense? • Does that make sense? • Try that again and think what would make sense. • Would that make sense?	• Does that make sense to you?	• Does that make sense? • Try that again and think what would make sense.
Calling for a search of meaning to solve a word	[Prompt the child to think about the plot in the story so far] (p. 108) Look at the picture. (p. 108) Try that again and think what would make sense. (p. 108)	• [Prompted child to think about the plot in the story so far]. • Look at the picture, it helps you. • Look at the picture.	• [Prompted child to think about the plot in the story so far]. • Look at the picture. • What's in the picture?	• [Prompted child to think about the plot in the story so far]. • Look at the picture, does it help? • Look at the picture.
Calling for a search of visual information to check a word	Check it. Run your finger under it. (p. 109) Do you think it looks like 'X'? (p. 203) Does it look right? (p. 111) Does the word you said look like the word on the page? Look at this word/letter. (p. 203) What do you expect to see at the beginning? (p. 108) What do you expect to see at the end? (p. 108) Would 'X' start like that? (p. 203)	• Does that look right? • Look at that word. • Look at the end. • Take a look at that.	• Does it look like 'X'? • Does it look right to you? • Does that look right? • Run your finger under it.	• Check it slowly with your finger. • If it were 'X' what would you see? • Look at this. • Now run your finger under it and say it slowly. • That looks like 'X' doesn't it? • You said 'X'. Does that look right?
Calling for a search of visual information to solve a word	Can you see what might help? (p. 203) Do you know a word that looks like that? (p. 111) Do you know a word that starts with those letters? (p. 111) Get your mouth ready for the first sound. (p. 115) Look at this word/letter. (p. 203) Look for something that would	• Do you see a part of this word you know? • Do you see a part you know? • Get your mouth ready.	• Look at that first sound. • Look at the sounds. • Look at the word.	• How does it start? • Let's take a really close look at the word, the first sound. • What's the first sound?

Reading Recovery Concept	Prompts suggested by Clay (2005b)	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
	help you. (p. 111) Try that again and get ready to say the first sound. (p. 116) What can you see that might help? (p. 111) What sounds can you see in that word? (p. 115)			
Demonstrating self-monitoring	It has to make sense and it has to sound right. (p. 205)	• I made a mistake. I have to reread it to fix it.	• I didn't read that part right. I have to go back and reread it to fix my error.	
Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading	Are you listening to yourself? Did it sound good? (p. 152) Can you read this quickly? (p. 152) Change your voice when you see these marks of the page. (p. 152) How would you say that? (p. 152) Is that sounding good? (p. 152) Let's put this together. (p. 205) Put these words all together so that it sound like talking. (p. 152)	• I heard people stop here. Can you stop here? • I want you to read it faster. • Make your reading sound like talking. • Try that again – see how that word is dark? How would you say it?	• Did I sound like I was telling you a story? • How should I read this part that is in bold? • I like how you changed your voice on that part. • Try to read your story smoothly. • Was I fluent?	• Did you listen to yourself? How did that sound? • I want you to practice changing your voices. • Let's put these words together so they sound like talking. • Remember, you want to try to make your reading sound just like talking. • What do you do with your voice when you see this mark? • Why did the author make the word look like that?
Fostering cross-checking of information	Check it! Does it look right and sound right to you? (p. 110) Does it look right and sound right? (p. 109) It could be 'X' but look at…(p. 110) So it has to make sense and it has to sound right. (p. 109) Try that again and think what would make sense, and sound right, and look like that. (p. 111) What would make sense, and sound right and look like that? (p. 205)	• Does that look right and make sense? • It could say 'X' try that again and think about what would look right. • It starts like that, what would make sense? • Look at the sounds but it has to make sense.	• That's a good guess. It starts with 'X'. What else could start with 'X'?	• Does it look right and sound right? • I want you to read it again and think what would look right and make sense. • Remember it has to look right and it has to make sense. • Think about what would make sense and the

Reading Recovery Concept	Prompts suggested by Clay (2005b)	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
				sounds. • What would look right and make sense?
Fostering self-correcting	Try again. (p. 206) Try that again. (p. 206)	• Try that again. • Try that again and think about the story. • Try this line again. • Let's try that again.		• Try that again.
Fostering self-monitoring	How did you know it was right? (p. 204) Was that OK? (p. 108) Were you right? (p. 144) What did you notice? (p. 108) What do you think? (p. 204) What's wrong with this? (p. 111) Why did you stop? (p. 108) You made a mistake on that page/in that sentence. Can you find it? (p. 113)	• Anything wrong with that? • How did you know? • What's wrong with that? • You made a mistake in this sentence. I want to see if you can find it. • You made a mistake there, I want to see if you can find it.	• One sentence does not start with a capital letter. Can you find it? • Was that OK?	• How did you know that was 'X'? • I want you to reread this line. • Was that right?
Praising independent solving/self-correction.	I like the way you found out what was wrong all by yourself. (p. 113) You found out what was wrong all by yourself. (p. 204)	• I like how you changed that. • I like how you figured that out by yourself. • I like how you fixed that. • I like what you did at this part. You reread this part when it didn't make sense. • I'm glad you saw that. • You know what I liked? You fixed that.	• I like how you went back and fixed that up.	• I like what you did here. That didn't sound right, so you went back and fixed it. • I'm glad you fixed that. • You did something on this page I really liked. You said 'X' and then you went back. I like how went back and fixed that up. • You figured out this word all by yourself by thinking what would make sense and look right. • You went back and fixed up this word.
Using Hearing and	[Prompt the child to say the	• Let me hear	• How would you	• As you say it,

Reading Recovery Concept	Prompts suggested by Clay (2005b)	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
Recording Sounds in Words	word slowly.] (p. 74) What can you hear? (p. 74) How could you write it? (p. 74) What else can you hear? (p. 75) What do you at the beginning/middle/end? (p. 75)	you say it. • Say it slow and put down the sounds you hear. • Say it slowly. • Say the word slowly. • What do you hear at the beginning? • What do you hear at the end? • What do you hear? • Write the sounds you hear. • You say it.	write that? • Say it slowly. • Tell me how to write the first part. • Tell me what sounds to write. • What do you hear? • What's in the middle? The end?	listen to what you're saying and write it down. • Let me hear you. • Say it slowly. • What do you hear?

Table D.14

Cross-Case Themes in Teacher's Discussion of the Transferal of Reading Recovery Language

Theme	Case A Bev	Case B Nancy	Case C Susan
Stating changing their prompting language via drawing on Reading Recovery	Reading Recovery helped me a lot with the prompts for kids. (Initial Interview)	JS: I noticed lots of the prompts that you were using with the students today sounded really familiar. They sound like Reading Recovery language. Nancy: Oh definitely, definitely. I'm using that in the guided reading. (March 22 Interview)	I use a lot of prompts all the time during guided reading. (Survey)
Attributing enhanced clarity of language to Reading Recovery training	I think it changes how I'm teaching them. Like my teaching to them it's making it so, maybe I'm making it more clear to them so that they're able to pick it up. I mean, some kids just pick it up, but some don't and even my lower ones are getting it. . . . But I think Reading Recovery has made it so that I can explain it better to them. (May 3 Interview)		I've taught a lot of kids how to read, but the end goal was just they need to be able to read, right? And I never – it's not that I didn't understand but I wasn't specific on what they need to do to be able to read. You know, I gave them lots of opportunities and – but I never used the vocabulary. And I think that's the biggest thing, is the vocabulary that I now use. . . [The students] are understanding and they know to reread and they know the language. And so when you say to them, "Go back and make sure it sounds right, or it makes sense, or it looks right," they know what I'm asking them to do. (April 5 Interview)

Table D.15

Comparison of Research-Based Characteristics of EPLTs to Reading Recovery-Influenced Learning by Survey and Case Study Participants

Procedures				
EPLT Descriptor (EPLTs practice…)	**Reading Recovery Theme Survey Responses**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Bev**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Nancy**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Susan**
Explicit instruction	• Early teaching of concepts of print • Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading • Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary	• Early teaching of concepts of print • Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary • Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	• Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability • Early teaching of concepts of print • Encouraging phrasing and fluent reading • Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary • Teaching a variety of approaches to solve words	• Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability • Early teaching of concepts of print • Practicing a word so that is added to known vocabulary • Teaching a variety of approaches to solve words
Extensive opportunities for student practice	• Providing a large number of experiences with text	• Providing a large number of experiences with text • Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts	• Providing a large number of experiences with text • Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts	• Providing a large number of experiences with text • Providing opportunities for rereading of familiar texts
Engaging activities				
Dense instruction				
Effective classroom management		• Referring to urgency/persistence in teaching	• Referring to urgency/persistence in teaching	• Referring to urgency/persistence in teaching
Scaffolding	• Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	• Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words	• Adjusting the level of support when children are solving words • Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	• Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours
Encouragement of self-regulation	• Fostering learner's independence		• Fostering learner's independence • Fostering self-monitoring	• Fostering learner's independence

Procedures				
EPLT Descriptor (EPLTs practice…)	**Reading Recovery Theme Survey Responses**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Bev**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Nancy**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Susan**
Formative assessment	• Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	• Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis	• Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with a text • Spending time to get to know child as a learner	• Basing forthcoming instruction on Running Record analysis • Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with a text
Balance processes/isolated skills	• Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	• Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written • Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words • Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability	• Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written • Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words • Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability	• Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written • Using Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words • Referring to strategic activity when discussing children's ability
Teaching of skills in context		• Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written	• Teaching features of text • Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written • Teaching structures of language found in text	• Building on the known • Teaching features of text • Teaching items of knowledge drawn from the texts being read or written
Variety of materials		• Using texts from the Reading Recovery booklist	• Using texts from the Reading Recovery booklist	• Using texts from the Reading Recovery booklist
Connections across curricula				
Varying group sizes				
Extensive teacher modeling		• Modeling the scanning of words left to right	• Modeling the scanning of words left to right	
Stress comprehending	• Orienting children to the new story before reading	• Orienting children to the new story before reading	• Orienting children to the new story before reading • Referring to Clay's definition of reading/writing	• Orienting children to the new story before reading

Procedures				
EPLT Descriptor (EPLTs practice…)	**Reading Recovery Theme Survey Responses**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Bev**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Nancy**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Susan**
Higher-level questioning				
Match tasks to student ability	• Designing individual instruction • Selecting texts based on children's instructional need and knowledge	• Selecting texts based on children's instructional need and knowledge	• Designing individual instruction • Selecting texts based on children's instructional need and knowledge • Arranging for success • Basing forthcoming instruction on the child's present performance with a text	• Designing individual instruction • Selecting texts based on children's instructional need and knowledge
Knowledge				
EPLT Descriptor (EPLTs know or understand…)	**Reading Recovery Theme Survey Responses**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Bev**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Nancy**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Susan**
Purposes behind their teaching actions	• Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	• Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	• Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours	• Matching teaching decisions to observed behaviours
Development theory	• Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	• Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	• Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing	• Referring to Clay's general theory of literacy processing
Instructional methods suited to their content area	• Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified) • Designing individual instruction • Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text	• Designing individual instruction • Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text • Building on the known	• Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified) • Designing individual instruction • Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text • Building on the known	• Using Reading Recovery activities (unspecified) • Designing individual instruction • Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text • Building on the known

Knowledge				
EPLT Descriptor (EPLTs know or understand…)	**Reading Recovery Theme Survey Responses**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Bev**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Nancy**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Susan**
Diagnostic viewpoints	• Designing individual instruction • Basing forthcoming instruction on child's present performance with text • Analyzing a running record • Basing forthcoming instruction on running record analysis	• Designing individual instruction • Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text • Analyzing a running record • Basing forthcoming instruction on running record analysis	• Designing individual instruction • Analyzing a running record • Basing forthcoming instruction on running record analysis • Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	• Designing individual instruction • Basing forthcoming instruction with child's present performance with text • Analyzing a running record • Basing forthcoming instruction on running record analysis • Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers
Content information in their subject area			• Teaching structures of language found in text	• Teaching structures of language found in text
Curriculum content/expectations		• Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	• Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	• Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training
Beliefs				
EPLT Descriptor (EPLTs are described as…)	**Reading Recovery Theme Survey Responses**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Bev**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study:Nancy**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Susan**
Encouraging, having positive attitudes	• Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	• Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write	• Referring to an emergent theory versus a readiness theory. • Stating a belief teaching quality outweighs deficits of child	• Stating a belief that all children will learn to read and write
Holding high expectations for all students	• Fostering learner's independence	• Fostering learner's independence • Stating a belief teaching quality outweighs deficits of child • Stating raised or high expectations	• Stating a belief teaching quality outweighs deficits of child	• Fostering learner's independence • Referring to letting go of assumptions

Knowledge				
EPLT Descriptor (EPLTs know or understand…)	**Reading Recovery Theme Survey Responses**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Bev**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Nancy**	**Reading Recovery Theme Case Study: Susan**
Reflective about their teaching	• Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	• Reflecting on own practice after teaching • Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training	• Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training • Discussing children/practice with other Reading Recovery-trained teachers	• Reflecting on own practice after teaching • Stating a belief that they are a more effective teacher after Reading Recovery training

Appendix E Supplemental Figures

Figure E.1. Agreement with the Questionnaire Statement "Since my Reading Recovery trair my effectiveness as a classroom teacher has changed" by Grade

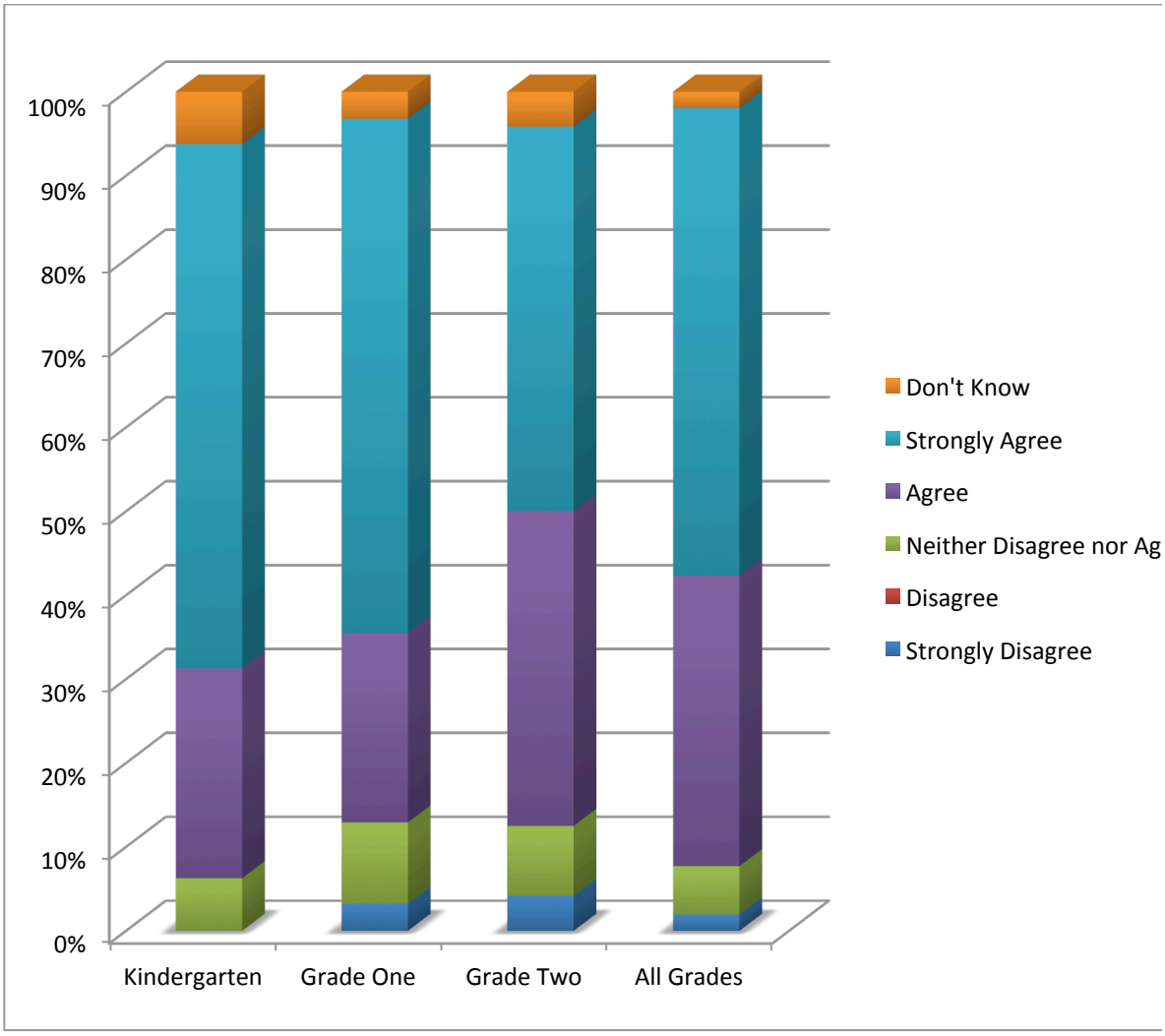


Figure E.2. Co-Occurrences Group Size/Mode and Group Size/Reading Recovery Transfer in Survey Responses

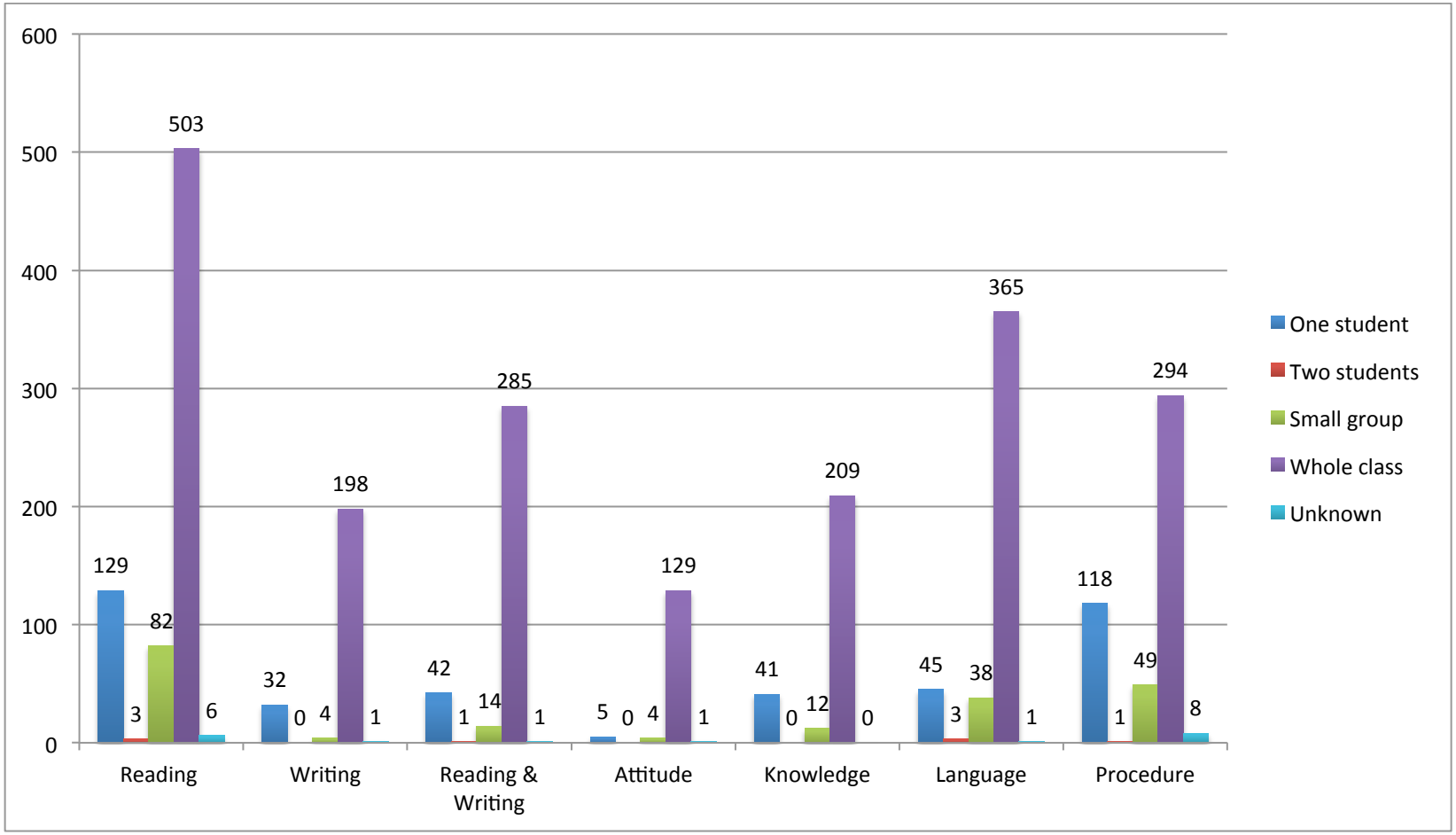
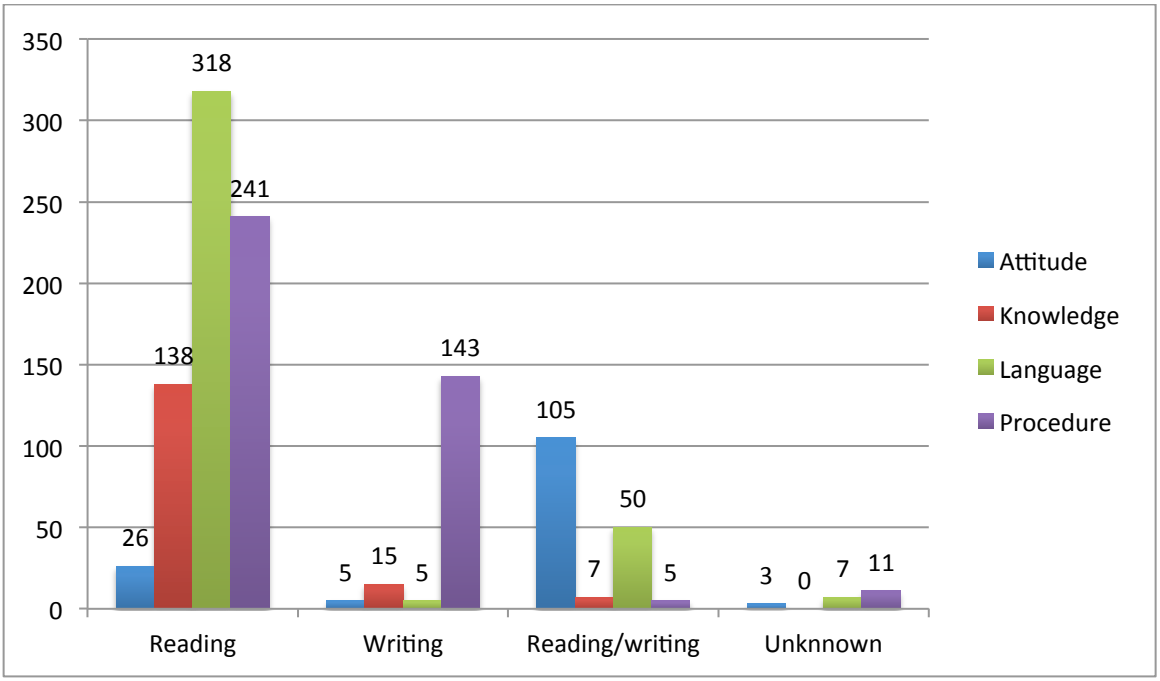


Figure E.3. Co-Occurrence of Modality and Reading Recovery Transfer in Survey Responses



Appendix F Maps of Case Study Teachers' Classrooms

Figure F.1. Map of Bev's Classroom

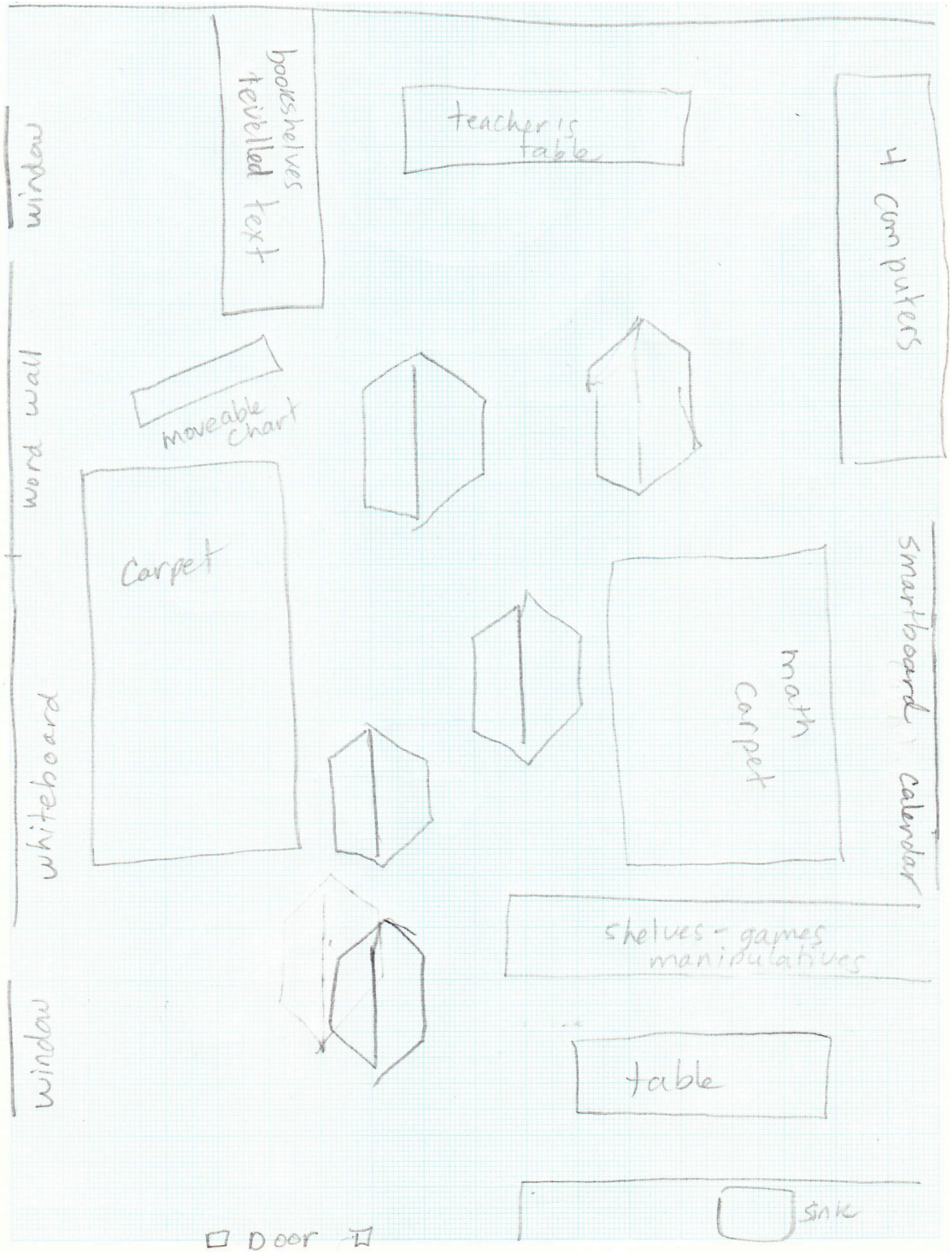


Figure F.2. Map of Nancy's Classroom

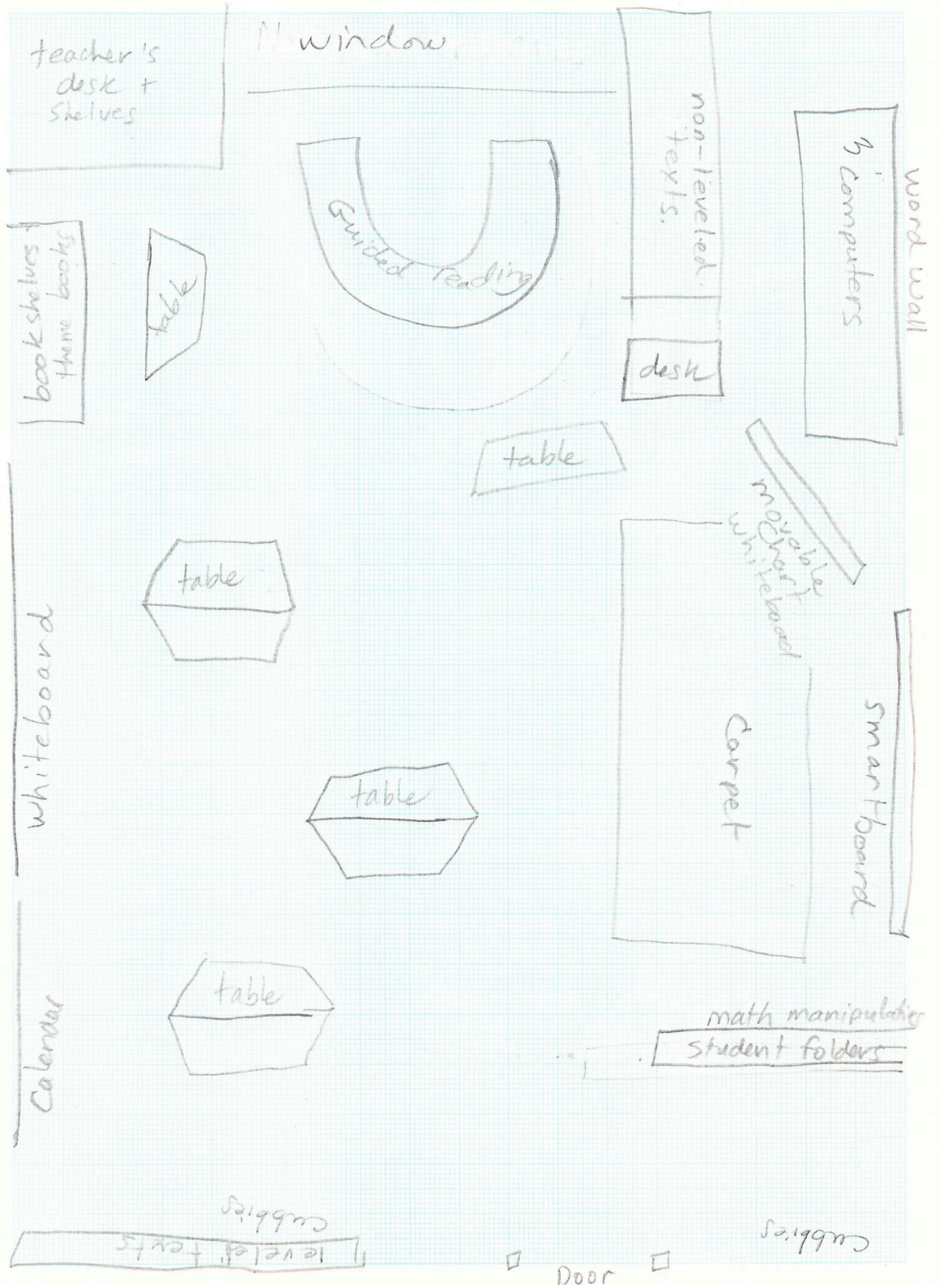


Figure F.3. Map of Susan's Classroom