

Teaching College Writing in a High School Setting:  
The Impact of Concurrent Enrollment on Teacher Learning and  
Practice

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## Abstract

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In today's educational climate, in which preparing all K-12 students to succeed in college and career is paramount, a prominent concern is to ensure that students leave high school with "college level" writing skills (Acker & Halasek, 2008; Crank, 2012; Moss & Bordelon, 2010). Notably, these discussions revolve around ensuring students are ready to *cross the threshold* between high school and college writing, and around giving them the tools they need to *bridge the gap*. With few avenues for conversation or collaboration with university faculty, high school teachers aiming to prepare students for college writing sometimes feel as though they are "in the dark" (Davies, 2006). This perennial separation means that secondary teachers, who are charged with preparing their students for college with little current knowledge about expectations in college courses, end up reifying "divides" and "gaps" separating high school and college. My study considered Concurrent Enrollment (CE) composition programs as one model for attempting to facilitate communication and collaboration between high school and college stakeholders. To investigate the potential CE programs have to serve as learning opportunities

for CE teachers, this dissertation was guided by the question: *“How do teachers’ Discourses, material and relational resources, and identities interact to mediate their learning in practice?”*

Conceptually, this paper begins with King Beach’s “consequential transitions” framework (1999, 2003). Beach’s developmental view of knowledge propagation provides a framework for understanding learning as “the construction of new knowledge, ways of knowing, and new positionings of oneself in the world” (Beach, 2003, p. 42). Consequential transitions help not only to conceptualize the “trajectory” of an individual’s development, but they also help to situate an individual’s development within the context of settings, practices, and identities.

CE teachers’ work is impacted by multiple settings (classroom/school/district/community *and* the university setting), making attending to settings critical for this research. Thus, as a complement to Beach’s framework, this research takes up the situative perspective of learning (Gee, 2008; Greeno, 2005; Putnam & Borko, 2000; Sawyer & Greeno, 2009). The situative perspective views learning as emerging from “interactions between people and resources in the setting” (Sawyer & Greeno, 2009, p. 348). Within settings, focal teachers engaged in the practices of planning and teaching the CE course and, in so doing, they were becoming socialized into a new secondary Discourse for writing instruction. In this process, their established Discourses for teaching and teaching writing (rooted in their prior work and existing settings) interacted with their attempts to become fluent in the Discourse(s) of writing pedagogy of the CHS course (Gee, 2008; 2015).

Furthermore, to support an analysis of teacher learning with consequential transitions as a frame, teacher identity was a significant consideration because it mediated how teachers negotiated their roles within contexts, thereby directly impacting their teaching practice and the transformation of that practice over time (Enyedy et al., 2005). Thus, this dissertation employed

the construct of identities in practice (Holland et al., 1998; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Lave, 1996; Wenger, 1998; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005), which posits that there is a “mutually constitutive relationship between identity and practice” (Kanno & Stuart, 2011, p. 240).

To investigate both the experience of individuals and the settings in which they work and develop, my study employed a qualitative case study design to bring together these multiple, complex strands of inquiry (Merriam, 2009). I used purposeful sampling (Patton, 2003) to select three novice CE teachers in a College in the High School (CHS) program operated by a large, public four-year university in the Western United States. Three main sources of data inform the present analysis: (1) Interview data collected from the three focal teachers and key individuals in the contexts of their work, (2) field note data from classroom observations and observations of CHS program meetings held at the university, and (3) documents and artifacts collected from the high school contexts of the focal teachers and the university context. Questions on the semi-structured interview protocols (Merriam, 2009) aimed to understand teachers’ experiences, their understandings of their work, the nature and influence of their settings, and their navigation of roles in teaching the CE course. Interview data were triangulated with analysis of field notes and collected documents and artifacts (Merriam, 2009). Structured within- and cross-case analysis of data from the three sources was employed to understand the complexities of CE teachers’ practice and development (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). I used a number of tools to analyze my data, including: coding using qualitative analysis software; writing within and cross case analytic memos; and creating data displays. This multi-tiered approach allowed analysis to be at once informed by literature *and* “capture novel findings [in] the data” (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 541).

The analysis of qualitative data yielded a number of compelling findings. Firstly, while the three focal teachers taught in very different environments with different established Discourses, for teaching, writing, and teaching writing, there were trends among how their uptake of CHS frameworks and practices interacted with their situated sense-making processes. Firstly, areas of alignment and affiliation acted as entry points that allowed teachers to take up CHS practices and then encouraged them to continue taking up unfamiliar or uncomfortable practices and ideas. Secondly, when moments of disjuncture among frameworks and cultures were approached as opportunities to investigate questions or problems, seek resources or guidance, or engage in reflective practice, they resulted in productive friction that furthered focal teachers' sense-making processes. Ultimately, each teacher's established Discourses provided the "basis on which" the CHS Discourse(s) were learned (Gee, 2008; 2015). More than this, each teacher's response to these dynamics shaped the nature, the efficiency, and the depth of his or her sense-making and appropriation of CHS course concepts, practices, cultures, and frameworks.

This sense-making played out while teachers engaged in their day-to-day teaching practice. As focal teachers responded to uncertainty in their ability to plan instruction by reaching out and collaborating, by engaging in cycles of instruction and reflection, and by responding to the needs of their students, they "constructed and reconstructed" the knowledge they needed to teach the CHS course successfully in their contexts. Moreover, as teachers interacted with CHS resources in planning and instructional practice, they refined the resources to their purposes and they developed their understanding of both the resources and the concepts represented by them such that they were able to use them in increasingly sophisticated ways. In these ways, teachers' ability to practice and to learn was impacted by features of their settings.

They were, simultaneously, engaged as active agents in the cultivation of their knowledge of new concepts and practices that impacted their settings.

Through engagement in daily practice, focal teachers also experienced becoming a “new kind” of high school teacher via complex processes of identity craftwork (Beach, 2003).

Findings suggest, in line with Holland and colleagues (1998) that, “The degree to which an individual forms an identity relevant to a figured world ... depends upon his relative level of engagement and identification with that world” (p. 189). Across cases, findings suggested that teachers’ engagement in the practice of CHS composition teaching and their development of new practice-linked identities had a mutually constitutive relationship during this critical first year teaching the course.

There are a number of implications for this study. Firstly, findings of this study serve to flesh out the complexity of CE teachers’ situated sense-making processes and so open the door to understanding when and how support systems could buoy teachers’ learning and development. Productive avenues for future research would include investigations of how alignment among Discourses could be leveraged in designing teacher enrichment experiences and how productive responses to disjuncture could be encouraged among new and continuing CE teachers. Findings also indicate that, within the complexity of teachers’ learning processes, when teachers share common elements such as course outcomes and a course structure, there will likely be some patterns across time to their opportunities to learn and their need for support. Future research would do well to further investigate such patterns within and across different CE programs with an eye toward what factors across settings best support teachers at such times.

Teachers’ experiences with relational resources also suggest that if a vision of CE programs as a medium for meaningful professional learning for CE teachers is to be realized,

much can be learned from existing work on teacher networks as learning communities (Adams, 2000; Lieberman, 2000; Lieberman & Wood, 2002). Where the program under study aimed to position teachers as agents and knowers, teachers did not always have the capacity to take up this agency. Thus, a contribution of this study was to hold up the intentions of those who crafted the CHS program alongside the felt needs and effectivities of focal teachers as they navigated planning and classroom implementation. This juxtaposition contributes to understanding the dynamics of that intersection and what those dynamics mean for teacher learning.

This study also afforded new theoretical territory with regard to how CE teachers' professional identities developed as they engaged with CHS Discourses and practices. This enriched understanding can inform how schools and programs seek to foster CE teacher growth. Chiefly, findings indicate that teachers' experience of their dual positioning as both high school teachers and college instructors resisted binary constructions and, rather, that teachers felt themselves becoming changed high school teachers. These findings suggest that if this positioning and development were addressed explicitly and interrogated reflectively, teachers could develop clearer understandings of themselves in relation to the work and, consequently, each could develop more robust and enduring motivations to imbue their CE teaching with purpose. Findings also suggest that focal teachers' sense of themselves in relation to the practice developed via their engagement with material, relational, and ideational resources (cf. Nasir & Cooks, 2009). Moreover, a strong sense of self was leveraged as a source of agency for teachers in implementing their visions of the practice in their high school settings.

Finally, I propose six Design Principles to support the development of CE programs that engage teachers in meaningful professional development that, "extend the networks of school" (Beach, 1999, p. 132) and afford CE teachers opportunities to learn that involve, "the

construction of new knowledge, ways of knowing, and new positionings of oneself in the world”

(Beach, 2003, p. 42). The principles were:

- Principle One: Focus on the development of the “whole teacher” over time.
- Principle Two: Engage teachers’ established frameworks for writing instruction
- Principle Three: Help teachers negotiate particulars of implementing in settings
- Principle Four: Facilitate teachers’ engagement with relational networks
- Principle Five: Provide targeted support at key times
- Principle Six: Foster teachers’ agency and ability to take up agency

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**Dedication**

For my sister, Katie.

The strongest person I know.

## Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

In today's educational climate, the call for K-12 educators to prepare all students to succeed in college has never been more ardent. A prominent concern within this context is to ensure that students leave high school with "college level" writing skills (e.g. Acker & Halasek, 2008; Crank, 2012; Moss & Bordelon, 2010; and many others). Notably, these discussions revolve around ensuring students are ready to "cross the threshold" between high school and college writing, and around giving them the tools they need to "bridge the gap." Indeed, in perception and often reality, writing for high school and writing for college are separated by critical, complicating differences (Fanetti, Bushrow, & DeWeese, 2010). Further complicating college preparation in high school English Language Arts (ELA) is a simple fact: college faculty and high school teachers alike have very little knowledge of what happens on the other side of "the divide" (Enders, 2001; Farris, 2010; Joliffe, 2010; Kittle, 2006; McCrimmon, 2010; Tinberg & Nadeau, 2011). Without avenues for conversation or collaboration and having only their own prior college experiences as a reference point, high school teachers sometimes feel as though they are "in the dark" (Davies, 2006) or wonder – when they teach students about what they will need to know in college – "Am I lying?" (Jordan et al., 2006). The maintenance of this separation in traditional ELA models means that secondary teachers will continue to be charged with preparing their students for college writing with little actual knowledge about expectations in current college courses, thus reifying in both perception and reality the pattern of high school and college being separated by "divides" and "gaps."

Concurrent Enrollment (CE)<sup>1</sup> composition programs – in which high school students take college level courses at their high school sites, simultaneously earning both high school and college credit – represent one model for attempting to facilitate communication and professional

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<sup>1</sup> Concurrent enrollment programs are also termed Dual enrollment (DE), post secondary

collaboration between high school and college stakeholders. In addition to providing positive outcomes for students, this dissertation positions CE programs as sites for cross-institutional collaboration (what Kittle, 2006 terms “learning partnerships”) and as meaningful professional development (PD) for CE teachers. Kittle (2006) argues that teaching writing is a particularly challenging endeavor for high school ELA teachers and meaningful, quality PD opportunities are scarce (Lampert, 2000). Because working with a university composition program provides a unique opportunity for high school teachers to re-engage with the world of college composition and because their learning will be embedded in their practice, collaboration with a university while teaching a CE course may be the type of PD that Feiman-Nemser (2012) describes as “well suited to helping teachers transform complex knowledge and skills into powerful teaching practices” (p. 134). While limited research and scholarship exists that examines student outcomes for CE courses (e.g. Andrews, 2004; Bailey, Hughes, & Karp, 2002), and while discussion of the potential benefits for both secondary and post-secondary educators has received some attention (e.g. Hansen & Farris, 2010), current research (in both the fields of composition studies and education) falls short of well-documented, empirical examinations into the learning and experiences of concurrent enrollment *teachers*. This dissertation – a qualitative, ethnographic case study of new CE composition teachers – offers a rich, in-depth description of the experience of teachers navigating this space and aims to enlighten the field. To do so, I investigate the question: “How do teachers’ Discourses, material and relational resources, and identities interact to mediate their learning in practice?”

This chapter provides a brief background on CE programs before offering a review of the literature on teaching college writing in a high school setting, curricular tensions in the teaching of composition, teacher learning, and professional development. Next, I outline my theoretical

framework for studying teacher learning within CE programs and discuss my research questions. Finally, the chapter concludes with an overview of the organization of the dissertation.

## **Literature Review**

### **Concurrent Enrollment Programs**

The trend of concurrent enrollment (CE) began in the mid 1980s, and experienced “exponential” expansion in the 1990s (Denecker, 2013). As of 2010, the US Department of Education puts CE participation at upwards of 1.2 million students – the equivalent of five percent of all high school students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013). While no nationwide data on the number of students in concurrent enrollment *composition* courses exists, state level pictures consistently rate composition courses as among the most popular of concurrent enrollment offerings (Denecker, 2013).

From the perspectives of those on both sides of the high school/college divide, CE programs are seen to present many benefits and to pose unique challenges. Christine Farris (2010), a former secondary English teacher and current director of writing programs at Indiana University, states that CE programs aim to provide students (especially those traditionally underrepresented in university settings) “greater, quicker, and easier access to college,” as well as “timely graduation,” and improved competitiveness in future employment (p. 277). In spite of this, some teaching and administrative faculty in university writing programs are “insistent about the importance of preserving boundaries between [the] educational cultures” of high school and college (McCrimmon, 2010, p. 217). At their best, CE composition programs create bi-directional, mutually beneficial collaboration between university departments and high school programs – allowing university composition faculty insight into high school contexts and curricula, while providing meaningful professional development opportunities for high school

teachers and more rigorous course offerings for high school students (McClure, Enerson, Johnson, Lipetzky, & Pope, 2010; Post, Simmons, & Vanderslice, 2010). At their worst, university writing programs “rubber stamp” a high school course that may fall far below college level expectations (Schwalm, 1991). Inherent in all of these views is an acknowledgement of the potential positive influence of CE composition courses on rigor in high school settings, as well as an acknowledgement of the many potential obstacles to be encountered in translating a college course to fit the needs and constraints of high school students and settings.

Regardless of the complexities inherent in delivering a college curriculum in a high school setting, the reality is that CE programs are already well-entrenched in educational systems and are likely to remain highly popular (Hansen & Farris, 2010). Given this, it is critical for educators at the K-12 and college levels to learn more about CE composition programs, engage in purposeful dialogue, and design effective courses that can live up to the promise of bridging the divide between high school and college writing.

CE teachers, working at the center of the complex collaborations involved in CE teaching and being responsible for the delivery of the teaching itself, are critical to the success of CE programs on multiple levels. In providing documentation of new CE teacher learning and experience, this dissertation adds critical insight into a little understood dynamic. A better understanding of this dynamic can reveal the ways in which CE programs enrich teacher growth and development, provide a close, systematic look at the impact of a complicated, cross-institutional collaboration, and inform changes to improve the teaching and learning that occurs in such programs. These insights are valuable to understanding CE programs specifically, and complex educational collaborations in general. In fact, given their positioning at the intersection of a number of complicated systems, the role of CE teachers is uniquely complex – and

potentially, uniquely productive. However, since this positioning is not well understood, it is likely that opportunities are being missed. The goal of this dissertation is to add to that understanding.

**The concurrent enrollment course as a hybrid setting.** Research in writing pedagogy at both the secondary and post-secondary levels has surfaced challenges that arise in teaching writing as a result of a (perceived or actual) “cultural divide” between high school and college. The CE course, and its hybrid nature, merges the contexts and goals of both settings (McCrimmon, 2010; Jordan et al., 2006; Farris, 2006; Joliffe, 2010; Denecker, 2013). While obviously high schools and colleges are distinct places, the activity involved in developing and teaching CE courses necessitates that they operate as one (on some level) to teach learners who are at once both high school and college students. This confluence is complex, dialectical, and not easily explained. To understand this compound challenge, I offer a review of scholarship concerning CE courses’ dual positioning, followed by discussion of “high school” as a setting, “college” as a setting, and of the impacts of the “divides” between them.

Perhaps an important starting point to any investigation of CE courses is to ask, what does it mean to be a college course that takes place in a high school (McCrimmon, 2010)? That is, how does the dual positioning of this course impact the practical and pedagogical purposes of the course, the content of the course, and the role of the course in students’ trajectories toward learning to write? To answer this question, the inquirer must construct visions of both “high school” and “college.” McCrimmon (2010) is quick to point out that the discussion is further complicated because “college” is “no longer a specific place” (McCrimmon, 2010, p. 209) and (he argues later) neither is high school. However, students, parents, policy makers,

administrators, and others still perceive high school English and first year composition as “static, cultural texts” (ibid).

This tendency has the potential to impact teacher practice in a number of significant ways. Firstly, a frequent topic of discussion among teachers of writing in high school and in college is the shared lack of knowledge about what is taught on the other side of “the divide.” Without avenues for conversation or collaboration and having only their own prior college experiences as a reference point, high school teachers sometimes feel as though they are “in the dark” when they teach students about what it is like to write in college (Davies, 2006; Jordan et al., 2006). Given this, high school teachers sometimes maneuver to prepare students for a model of college writing that may not exist (Farris, 2006). They may find themselves, for instance, repeating to students rules about writing such as “never use ‘I’ in an academic paper,” “if your paper is late, it won’t be read,” and “college professors will give you an ‘F’ if you make more than three errors in a paper” without, in reality, knowing if they are true (Davies, 2006; Jordan et al., 2006; Kittle, 2006). An additional complicating factor in this dynamic is that the framing of CE composition often “pivot[s] around” definitions of first year composition, which has itself been undergoing “an identity crisis” (McCrimmon, 2010, p. 209). That is, “the term college-level writing is meaningless in itself, ignoring as it does the enormous variety of institutions, levels of education, and fields of study of college students” (White, 2006, p. 266). Thus, when high school teachers present a single, abstract notion of “college writing,” it does little to prepare students for the wide variety of college writing demands they may face. Because CE composition courses and the professional development opportunities that accompany them put high school ELA teachers in direct collaboration with current college writing programs, they have considerable potential to

move high school teachers out of “the dark” and leave them better prepared to prepare their students for the realities of college writing.

On the other side of the coin, it is “not uncommon” for college faculty to bemoan the under-preparedness of their students and to ask in moments of frustration, “*What* is being taught in the high schools?” (Joliffe, 2010; cf. Denecker, 2013, Kittle, 2006). Moreover, many frequently feel the need to “unteach” many of the writing habits students bring with them from high school (Denecker, 2013, p. 28). Yet, as veteran college composition professor, Miles McCrimmon asserts, “To throw up our [college faculty] hands in despair at what is going on in the high schools and divest ourselves of the opportunity to collaborate in a way that advances our mutual interest is not only foolishly petulant, but also shows a lack of ‘accountability to the environment’ with which we are all implicated” (2010, p. 220). As above, CE composition programs offer one such mechanism for encouraging a shared, mutual interest.

While scholars tend to agree on the potential of CE programs to promote learning and development on both sides of the partnership (e.g., McCrimmon, 2010; Moody & Bonesteel, 2010), the processes by which such development plays out have not been systematically studied. By observing case teachers’ work and interviewing them at multiple points in their first year teaching CE courses, as well as observing all professional development opportunities and investigating how CE teachers interface with university writing programs, this dissertation offers a rich description of this little-understood dynamic.

### **High School and College: A Contrast in Settings**

In spite of recognition of the opportunities for collaboration afforded by CE programs, skepticism about their efficacy is present in the literature due to perceived differences in “culture” between high school and college. To begin, CE programs necessarily “assume that

some high school students are intellectually, experientially, and emotionally ready to do college level work” (Anson, 2010, p. 246). Many take issue with this assumption because the cultures of high school and college are understood to be so different. Such skepticism raises a fundamental and important question: can, in a high school setting, a student (no matter how mature or advanced) possibly engage in a “college experience?”

Because “writing is historically determined and situationally constrained” (Ketter & Pool, 2001) the features of instructional environments cannot be ignored. Differences between high school and university settings begin with practical features of the high school setting including interruptions due to assemblies and other extracurricular activities, the minor status of students, and the fact that high school students typically cannot drop a class – as opposed to college where the focus of coursework is academic, where students are independent adults, and where they are encouraged to take ownership of their actions and behaviors (Hansen, 2010). Further complicating this question are what many see as profound differences in academic culture, such as: a vision of high school as a place where students learn facts about what is currently believed as opposed to college as a “culture of ideas and arguments” where students learn to investigate the basis for those beliefs (Farris, 2010, p. 273-275). Moreover, while high school teachers are expected to “produce graduates with a standard set of skills,” university professors “expect students to work with a degree of independence” and individuality that is difficult to achieve in standardized settings (Sullivan, 2003, p. 25). Crank (2012) is careful to note that secondary teachers frequently report that though they would like to assign more and more intellectually demanding writing work, they are often inhibited in doing so by parameters set up by the larger institutions in which their classrooms are situated. CE courses are thus positioned at the intersection of these cultural and institutional influences. These complex

contextual factors are assumed to impact CE teachers' courses and their experiences planning and teaching them, but research has not offered a well-documented, empirical picture of how this plays out for teachers.

### **High School and College: Curricular Tensions**

Of critical importance in discussions of high school and college writing programs are differences in curricula between high school ELA courses and college composition. The “sheer scope” of high school ELA curricula limits teachers' ability to teach composition, as does the sheer number of students and the ensuing “paper load.” Moreover, the imposition of high stakes writing tests in high school settings impose external criteria that influence instruction in writing (Denecker, 2013; Hillocks, 2002; Sullivan, 2003). On the other hand, college teachers of writing are able to maintain a focus on composition, devote their attention to far fewer students and papers, and are not typically under the influence of government mandated standards (Denecker, 2013; Crank, 2012). Sometimes, this split is interpreted such that high school is the place where students *learn* the form of the essay, and college is the place where students *use* the form of the essay (Denecker, 2013). A potential impact of these perceptions for CE teachers' work is that CE courses may be viewed as simply places to “take care of” one's required writing credits, causing CE teachers and their students, “to confuse the trappings of education with the thing itself or to mistake the completion of one course or one test in writing as evidence they have learned to write, once and for all” (Hansen, 2010, p.33). These notions of *what* the purpose of writing instruction *is* and *how* its purpose *may be attained* have significant impact on teachers' practice. Of particular interest to this dissertation are a few persistent tensions in the framing and practice of writing pedagogy: writing as a set of skills, the role of form and structure, the teaching of genre awareness and rhetorical flexibility, and process writing pedagogies. I summarize these

debates below and discuss what they mean for CE teachers as they learn to enact college pedagogies within high school settings.

**Curricular tension: Writing as universal *or* writing as contextual.** Associated with the above idea is a longer-lasting, wider-reaching tradition of perceiving the ability to write as a finite, “disembodied” set of standardized skills (Hesse, 2010; Hansen, 2010). That is, a perennial tension in the teaching of writing is the tendency to see writing either as a set of universal, finite, and teachable set of skills *or* to see writing as entirely contextual and impossible to define. Hesse (2010) provides a useful analogy envisioning the development of writing ability as akin to the human drive to attain health – there are those, he says, who wish for a vaccine to be administered and to deliver health once and for all, or those who view attaining health as an ongoing pursuit and who look to gain ever increasing levels of health and fitness (best achieved with the help of trained, supportive coaches).

In the first vision, the drive to view writing skill and literacy as finite, teachable sets of universal skills is tied to movements of mandates, standards, and accountability (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Hansen & Farris, 2010; Scherff & Piazza, 2005; Sullivan, 2003). Appealingly - if literacy/writing is universal, neutral, definable, and “neatly bound” (Thalheimer, 2010) one can create and disseminate a “consistent, quality product” (Hansen & Farris, 2010; Wiley, 2000). While such an understanding could make ensuring that a CE course was a functional equivalent to a college offering much less complicated, this view is often met with resistance by those who point out that in college and beyond, students will be called on to respond to a variety of genres and will need expanded conceptions of writing and what writers know and do (Hansen & Farris, 2010). Rather than allowing the completion of a single course to signify that a student is “ready” for college writing, a more fluid vision of ongoing growth allows for an acknowledgement of the

wide array of intellectual work that “college writing” accomplishes. Further, universal, skill-based understandings of writing serve to “[reify] a system of non-porous institutional boundaries” (Gunner, 2006, p. 111) that stifle cross-institutional collaboration and conversation. Ultimately, though finite and concrete curricula for writing may be more convenient or easier to assess, any view that is “neatly bound” is truly only *a* “particular view” of college writing (Thalheimer, 2010, p. 120).

**Curricular tension: What *is* writing? What makes it *good*?** Tied to the above tensions, also of importance to the delivery of secondary and post-secondary writing instruction are a host of debates about what it means to write and how to teach students to do it well. Among these, I will focus here on surface level concerns (style, grammar, mechanics, correctness); notions of form, structure, and process; and genre and rhetorical awareness.

***Surface level concerns.*** An enduring question in the teaching of writing at all levels is how and when to teach grammar. In college, the teaching of grammar and other conventions is typically positioned as of lesser importance, though students are expected to have a command of standard written English and to proofread and edit all work. The need to edit for conventions is typically positioned as a component of communicating effectively in an academic setting. As such, it is expected that students follow disciplinary conventions of citation, structure, and formatting (Harrington, Malencyzk, Peckham, Rhodes, & Yancey 2001; Gross, Dwyer, Holmberg, & Bawarshi, 2011; O’Neill et al., 2012). In K-12 writing curricula, the explicit teaching of grammar is a contested topic, though anecdotal and research-based evidence shows that a focus on grammar and mechanics is still common (Hillocks, 2005; Kittle, 2006; Myhill, Jones, Lines, & Watson, 2011). Hillocks (2005) states that teacher comments on papers function as a primary mode of writing “instruction” in secondary schools and adds that the majority of these comments are about mechanics. Kittle (2006) suggests that, given the typical

lack of depth of composition knowledge among entering ELA teachers, the prevalence of this focus may be because HS teachers are unsure “what else to say” in their commentary. He cautions that this approach to commentary, however easily understood or well-intentioned, may have the unintended consequence of teaching students that “clean presentation trumps smart, complex argument” and adds that correctness and form only have meaning when communicating purposeful ideas (Kittle, 2006, p. 137).

Indeed, when grammar, style, and conventions are viewed as a component of attending to the expectations of one’s audience, their purpose becomes more salient. Graham and Perin (2007) found that instructing students in sentence combining strategies had a significant positive impact on student writing. Teaching sentence combining involves showing students how to combine one or more simple sentences into a longer, more complex sentence. The ability to write more complex sentences enhances students’ ability to express complex ideas. In instruction, such a revision can be framed as a way to more effectively communicate with one’s audience. Similarly, Fearn and Farnan (2007) demonstrated a positive impact on students’ writing through instruction in functional grammar. That is, rather than teaching *descriptive* knowledge of grammar (i.e. the definition of a verb), they investigated teaching that focused on *functional* knowledge of grammar (i.e. what the verb *does* in a sentence). They found that this functional grammar instruction, in the context of writing practice, significantly improved student writing performance; in contrast, the control group who received traditional grammar instruction did not improve their performance. In this way, keeping the focus on communication and purpose in writing enhances the applicability of grammar knowledge. On a related note, many college writing programs frame grammar, citation convention, style, sentence fluency, and language use as issues of audience expectation (Gross et al., 2011; O’Neill et al., 2012). If the members of

academic, disciplinary discourse communities use language, syntax, and convention in a certain way, then students learning to communicate in these communities must learn to follow suit.

When framed in this way, surface level concerns remain important, but for a different reason.

Communicating a consistent focus on audience, purpose, and the communicative goals of writing helps position surface-level editing as purposeful.

Adding another layer, many HS teachers hold fast to the teaching of grammar or “Standard English” explicitly because they believe strongly that fluency and correctness in standard written English is required for career and educational success. In her highly influential work, Delpit (1986, 1988) postulated that the teaching of grammar and other skills to students from traditionally marginalized groups was a part of making “the rules of the culture of power” explicit, thereby making it easier for students in those groups to acquire power in the classroom and society (Delpit, 1988, p. 282). She argues, “Teachers do students no service to suggest, even implicitly, that ‘product’ is not important. In this country, students will be judged on their product regardless of the process they utilized to achieve it. And that product, based as it is on the specific codes of a particular culture, is more readily produced when the directives of how to produce it are made explicit” (Delpit, 1988, p. 287). Put another way, those outside the walls of the school and the grounds of the university (and sometimes within) will judge students “by the way they talk and write” (Delpit, 1988, p. 293). Indeed, if students graduate having been “graded on their courage more than on how others at a university or elsewhere might regard their writing [they may become disgruntled and] complain that they have been lied to, that they thought they were really ‘A’ or ‘B’ writers, only to find that others consider them barely literate” (Villanueva, 1993, p. 94). Delpit and others do not wish, however, for students of marginalized populations to end up in “basic skills” classes. Rather, Delpit (1987) advocates for “helping students gain a

useful knowledge of the conventions of print while engaging in real, useful communicative activities” (p. 295). Of course, the issues of power and privilege that play out in writing (and other literacy instruction) go beyond a product vs. process debate. Many advocate that along with making rules of language use explicit, instruction can also make issues of power and inequity more visible in the classroom (Comber & Nixon, 2000; Dyson, 1993). Kalantzis and Cope (1999) suggest that curriculum and instruction “be a process of lending consciousness, lending language and lending culture for purposes outside the child’s domestic or commonsense purview” (p. 287). This lending, they say, should go both ways. Ultimately, the thrust of functional grammar pedagogies is to work towards the “twin goals of access and critical engagement” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012).

***Product, structure, and form.*** A related tension in the teaching of writing is the extent to which writing teachers should focus on the “product” in terms of the structure and form of a piece. Writing instruction at the secondary level has privileged a pedagogy of structure and form (organization, paragraph structure, sentence structure, style) for a number of decades; so much so that Hillocks (2005) described the situation as “an obsession with form” lasting more than 50 years. This “obsession” is driven by the fact that many high school English departments proscribe the modes and curricula of writing to be followed by their teachers (e.g., Kittle, 2006) and that teachers work within a backdrop of “rigid product formulas designed to satisfy test requirements” (Scherff & Piazza, 2005, p. 273). A large number of districts focus instruction on the five-paragraph theme or the Jane Schaffer model for writing essays (Hillocks, 2005; Wiley, 2000). Hillocks (2005) is critical of this focus because, he argues, it is disconnected from the way people write in most real-world contexts and limits the range of writing forms with which students gain practice. In real life contexts, people write when they have something to say

or a goal to accomplish. Moreover, the ability to reproduce form in writing does not mean that students learn anything about wrestling with and making use of ideas or subject matter (Hillocks, 2005). In spite of evidence that suggests it is ineffective, the pedagogical focus on form persists due to standardized testing and “the pressure for accountability” (Hillocks, 2005, p. 244).

Wiley (2000) takes up the subject of the wide prevalence of formulaic writing, cautioning that it leads to what he terms “pedagogical blindness.” Formulaic models or product approaches are those that view learning to write as learning to use language and structure through guided imitation of models in forms determined by the teacher or pre-set curriculum (Badger & White, 2000). Because these approaches to writing instruction, such as the Jane Schaffer model, produce such apparent success, they relegate aspects of writing instruction that would further students’ development to the background where they are easily missed (Wiley, 2000). Wiley (2000) further argues that formulaic models accomplish significant feats in getting struggling writers to “acquire a rudimentary schema for what can pass as an acceptable academic expository essay, an accomplishment not to be trivialized. In fact, for those students who have no idea what an essay looks like and how to go about putting one together, Schaffer’s curriculum appears to be a godsend” (p. 63). However, he posits that there is an inherent contradiction in the method: if the same structure will work for any task, purpose, or set of ideas, structure cannot actually be that important. Moreover, the reliance on inputting details and commentary into a formula works against students discovering new ideas in the process and stifles inquiry. He notes that formulaic writing programs typically do not encourage instruction or scaffolding in developing ideas and helping students think critically (two things that students tend to find difficult). Thus, the “success” that struggling writers experience when they learn a writing formula is a ruse because it is only deemed successful by teachers who have agreed to adopt the format and consider this

one type of essay preferred. When structure is the sole focus, struggling writers do not receive opportunities for, or instruction in, critical thinking or working through inquiry. As a result, they may plateau in their development as a writer once they have mastered the form (Wiley, 2000). Both Wiley (2000) and Hillocks (2005) argue for a pedagogical shift toward inquiry, where the teaching of models may be a support or strategy, but should not amount to the whole of instruction. In this way, a supported pedagogy of inquiry allows students to work with ideas and to push beyond their abilities with the support of scaffolding.

***Process approaches.*** Sometimes seen as in opposition to product approaches, process approaches focus on the development of skills such as planning and drafting, rather than knowledge of grammar and syntax (Badger & White, 2000). In *Writing Next* (2007), Graham and Perin define process writing approaches as those which provide, “extended opportunities for writing, writing for real audiences, self-reflection, personalized instruction, cycles of planning, translating and reviewing” (p. 20). A key outgrowth of adopting a process approach to writing pedagogy is that students are able to participate in sustained, iterative writing practice. Scherff and Piazza (2005) assert that writing frequently and recurrently with opportunities for feedback and revision is “essential” to student growth (p. 293).

The corollary part of this equation, then, is the feedback students receive that guides them in making improvements during their ongoing, iterative practice. Acker and Halasek (2008) assert that it is the quantity and quality of feedback that lead to significant student growth. Along these lines, Enders (2001), who conducted a survey of college students about those aspects of their high school writing instruction that were most valuable to them in college, found from the survey data that students indicated that more, and more specific, feedback helped them improved their essays. In particular, moving beyond just identifying a problem to offering students ways to think

about fixing it was viewed as most helpful. To this end, he suggests evaluating and commenting on papers with specific grading criteria in mind and modeling and practicing the behavior and thought-processes of the teacher as he or she reads and evaluates student work. This, he says, helps students learn to evaluate their work and the work of others. Engaging in such practice – when accompanied by repeated, clear teacher feedback on papers (and prompts to refer to it in later revisions) – can help students internalize the processes and become better peer reviewers (Enders, 2001).

Though often set up as in opposition to one another, Delpit (1988) argues that the dichotomy between process and product is false; Badger and White (2000) concur and add that in practice, these approaches are often blended. That is, a teacher can engage her students in an instructional sequence that includes all of the elements of process writing, while students use a model or formula to guide form and while they are taught about Standard English. This vision, however, if not carefully interpreted, could lead to a “one size fits all” notion of the writing process, which is counter to fostering meaningful student growth. According to Fanetti et al. (2010), the goal of the writing process and of giving feedback is not to correct error and direct each student toward a “predetermined goal,” but to encourage the development of each individual’s writing (p. 80). Echoing this point, Wilhoit (2005) advocates for a framing of process that emphasizes that a successful text takes multiple drafts, that strategies for writing and revising be flexible, that writing processes are open and collaborative, that students should develop strategies for critiquing their work and the work of others, and that incorporate the use of technologies appropriate to task and purpose. This vision can be a tall order given the constraints of large class size, schedule concerns of the high school setting, and the influence of testing and other curriculum coverage concerns (Moss & Bordelon, 2010). In spite of these concerns, Fanetti et

al., (2010) caution that “frail hybrids” of incorporating writing process approaches under the curricular constraints of curricula hemmed in by testing concerns sometimes lead to a misleading presentation of the writing process as linear – that every writer follows every step (brainstorm, plan, draft, revise, edit) for every piece in the same order. In reality, the writing process of many expert writers is often messy, non-linear, and full of stops and starts (Fanetti et al., 2010). To teach a course according to the university’s model, CE teachers will be unable to rely on a formulaic model and will encounter the expectation that students develop flexible processes (see Description of Program, Chapter 2) for writing and revision. Their navigation of this demand is situated within the contexts of their schools and their departments, which have been permeated by variations of these pedagogies over time.

**Curricular approach: Teaching genre and rhetorical flexibility.** Because current genre theory “emphasizes the dynamic, functional, reciprocal relation between form and situation” a potential response to the tensions of universal or situated instruction, content or form based instruction, and product or process based instruction are the twin approaches of teaching genre and rhetorical flexibility (Artemeva & Fox, 2010, p. 481; cf. Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995). Pedagogies that foreground these concepts tie modes of language use and writing forms to social purpose; in such models, students learn to analyze texts based on their social purposes and to write for different audiences for different purposes (Badger & White, 2000). In so doing, they attempt to prepare students for the various writing situations that they will encounter in college and career. As Wiley (2000) puts it, “...students must develop a repertoire of strategies for dealing effectively with various writing tasks presented to them in different situations. They must also learn to make choices about genre, content, structure, organization, and style; and they must hone their judgments about the effects of their choices as writers” (p. 64). That is, a goal of such

approaches is to teach students the tools they need to have agency in their own discursive choices.

***Current approaches to genre theory and instruction.*** Drawing from the traditions of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), comes the notion that composition courses should endeavor “to make visible to disadvantaged students the connections between language and social function that genres embody” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 43). Though ESP and SFL differ in their target audiences and their ideas about what genres should be taught, both approaches further Delpit’s (1986, 1988) thinking and promote “making the genres of power visible and attainable through explicit instruction” in order to “[provide] access to disadvantaged learners” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 43). These views offer a clear justification for teaching the features of genre, though this teaching looks quite different from the teaching of genre associated with current traditional pedagogies, which taught students the forms and features of particular genres but not their social purpose. Rather than an emphasis on forms, current theories see genre in relation to its significance “in people’s lives” (Freadman, 2012).

Related to this premise is the idea that not only disadvantaged students, but all students, benefit from learning how to analyze and deploy genre features to serve communicative needs. In this context, genres are not just texts that share features, but rather can be conceived of as sets of shared expectations among groups (Russell, 1997) and as tools that are deployed not with universal applicability, but that are called upon and “honed differently to do particular kinds of work” (Freadman, 2012, p. 549). Teaching with this in mind relies on viewing genre knowledge as an instrument that can be used for social purposes within institutional or community parameters (Freadman, 2012).

Given this complex picture, a pedagogy of genre involves students in the analysis of genres and their relationships to communities and practices (Freadman, 2012). This develops students' rhetorical awareness of genres and their dynamic uses in the world. In addition to being tools that support students' communication and activity, genres can be tools that support thinking and that guide and organize students' use of discursive resources (Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011). Offering clarity to this collection of ideas, Reiff & Bawarshi (2011) suggest that as a "teaching tool" genre can provide an entry point "to develop students' awareness of how rhetorical conventions are meaningfully connected to social practices and how, as a result, genre knowledge can help students recognize and adapt more effectively and critically to new writing contexts" (p. 314). Students will likely need to learn multiple genres and be exposed to multiple text types to be able to engage their acquired genre knowledge in writing (Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011). Smit (2004) also cites evidence that the ability to use genre knowledge can be generalized across contexts "if – and the *if* is crucial – novice writers are taught to see the similarities in contexts that might require those rules, formats, and strategies" (p. 150).

***Rhetorical awareness and writing agency.*** "Some of what a writer knows how to do in writing may be applicable to a wide variety of genres and circumstances; some of what a writer knows how to do in writing may be entirely dependent on very particular circumstances" (Smit, 2004, p. 11). Here, Smit (2004) articulates in a simple manner one of the larger conflicts with teaching writing in any context, including the current one faced by CE teachers that is informed by the long traditions and the myriad influences presented in this review. Because the nature of writing is particular, situated, dynamic, and flexible it is difficult to lay out a course that will ensure that a writer has the tools to respond to a novel writing situation and that she knows how to leverage them to support her purpose in that

context and its particularities. Attempts to understand how teachers of writing might aim to prepare students in this way have increasingly taken the form of research in writing “knowledge transfer” and discussion of rhetorical awareness.

In their work, Reiff & Bawarshi (2011) found that in spite of a “wealth of genre knowledge” students did not draw on their prior knowledge of genre when faced with an unfamiliar writing situation. They locate this finding as a tendency of knowledge transfer: “As knowledge and skills do not routinely transfer across dissimilar contexts (e.g., between specialized academic disciplines), [transfer between dissimilar contexts] requires reflective thought, and such reflective thought requires metacognition...as well as the related ability to seek connections between contexts and to abstract and draw from prior skills and knowledge” (Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011, p. 316).

This complex array of skills and mental abilities requires students to coordinate their use of many kinds of knowledge. Students need situational “knowledge of content,” “general knowledge,” “knowledge of form,” “conditional or procedural knowledge,” “task-specific knowledge,” and “community-based knowledge” – all of which intermingle and co-occur (Smit, 2004, p. 26). Likely, to be able to write in any particular case requires a complex combination of all of these. Along these lines, Bacon (1999) contends that, “to know *what* to say, students [need] to develop content knowledge,” to know how to say it, they need “discourse knowledge,” yet students’ strategies for developing this knowledge cannot simply be “imported” from one context to another. They “[depend] on conditions created jointly by the students and [others in the new context]”(p. 60). Reiff & Bawarshi (2011) found that students who were more successful in transferring knowledge and skills into dissimilar contexts were more likely to draw on a wide range of strategies learned in other genres as

opposed to transferring “whole genres.” Thus, they surmise that a “‘crossing’ stance—the willingness to deploy, transform, and even abandon existing discursive resources” and that “comfort with reformulating and transforming existing resources may serve students well in accessing and adapting to future writing contexts” (p. 330). Put another way, students need rhetorical awareness, which enables them to “look for similarities between genres and contexts and build up a repertoire of experience about what principles and strategies apply in what circumstances” (Smit, 2004, p. 158). Thus, the aim of genre and rhetorical awareness approaches to pedagogy is to cultivate these practices. CE teachers will be influenced by this framing of writing in the university’s curriculum, however, given the prevalence of form and process approaches described above, such framing may clash with modes of instruction used elsewhere in their high school settings.

**Teaching practice at the intersection of influences: The work of the CE teacher.**

Taken together, this wide array of curricular influences amounts to a significant number of forces at play in the CE teachers’ work. Teaching writing as a contextual and dynamic endeavor and as a process influenced by genres and their social purposes can be messy and time consuming; with such a framing, the teacher’s practice must be constantly reinvented (Thalheimer, 2010).

Additionally, such views make CE composition courses problematic because if writing situations are always context-dependent, then “college writing courses are designed to help students cope with the increasingly difficult writing tasks presented to them in the intellectual and social context of college,” a context that is “impossible to replicate in a high school senior English class” (Schwalm, 1991, p. 53). If writing ability and literacy is never complete, entirely contextual, and impossible to define, does that mean determining how to teach “college writing” must always be defined in reference to a particular institution? If so, what hope do college

writing teachers (whether situated on college campuses or in high school CE settings) have of preparing their students for their wide and various futures (Hansen & Farris, 2010)? These questions are of critical concern for CE composition teachers, as they speak to the purpose of planning and teaching a CE course in the first place. How teachers think about and negotiate them will impact their practice on many levels; this dissertation will afford a better understanding of the factors that influence teachers' work around these questions in practical contexts.

### **Studying Concurrent Enrollment Teachers and Their Learning**

**Teaching and learning in “the gap”.** Because they straddle the settings of high school and college, CE programs are influenced not only by the curricular histories of both settings but also by the staffing and training patterns of both secondary and post secondary institutions. As such, they come out of a tradition in college composition of relegating the teaching of first year composition on campus to “graduate teaching assistants who [receive] stipends based not on their teaching experience but on their scholarly potential” (Farris, 2006, p. 105). Indeed, Moody and Bonesteel (2010) point out that while many college English faculty oppose the “outsourcing” of college English credits to high schools and high school teachers, on the college campus composition courses are often taught by “the least credentialed and most sparsely compensated teaching staff” (p. 227). Another common characterization is of college faculty as content experts who are not trained to teach, in contrast to high school teachers who are “master teachers with limited content expertise” (McCrimmon, 2010, p. 221). With respect to composition pedagogies specifically, because of these traditional divides, there is evidence that the latter point is frequently true. In pre-service methods courses, for instance, high school English teacher candidates often report that their preparation did not include “sustained attention to the teaching

of writing” (Farris, 2006, p. 113; cf. Davies, 2006). Given this, the perceived divides described above are often maintained in reality because many, if not most, high school English teachers have not studied composition theory or pedagogy in any depth, nor are they up to date on changes in thinking and scholarship in composition pedagogy – such as movements in writing across the curriculum or genre and transfer studies (Farris, 2006). As CE teachers navigate their dual roles as simultaneous high school and college teachers, their collaboration with university composition instructors and their delivery of a college composition curriculum likely affords them a rich opportunity to learn through practice.

***Learning through practice in boundary zones.*** These dynamics make learning to teach college writing in a high school setting uniquely complex and raise tensions critical to the curricular planning and instruction of CE teachers. Some scholars posit that tensions can be viewed as productive, rather than limiting. For instance, McCrimmon (2010) suggests that institutions “would do well to consider how to *take advantage* of [the] liminal space” CE courses occupy (p. 211, emphasis added). Zeichner and Payne (2013) propose that, teachers who participate in collaborative programs with university partners work and learn in “boundary zones” where settings come together. Boundary zones are “polycontextual, multivoiced, multi-scripted, and shaped by alternative and often oppositional discourses, positionings, and practices” (Max, 2010, p. 216). In these boundary zones, the negotiation and sharing of potential expertise can best be conceived of as “horizontal” rather than traditional hierarchical or “vertical” understandings. That is, in contrast to traditional “top-down” notions of sharing knowledge, knowledge that is transferred or created at the intersection of settings can be seen as horizontal. In this vision, the knowledge and expertise of individuals working in multiple settings is seen as valuable and contributing to the work (Zeichner & Payne, 2013). They contend that,

“...these collaborative processes reorganize the traditional hierarchies of expertise (vertical expertise), as they help individuals and groups find innovative solutions to the compelling dilemmas that characterize their everyday work life” (p. 7). For CE teachers and university writing programs, the work of teaching CE composition courses takes place in such a boundary zone; for a college course to be taught in a high school setting, the discourses and practices of both contexts will necessarily influence the work. To make sense of how first-time CE teachers learn to enact university curricula and adapt them appropriately for their high school context, a vertical understanding of sharing knowledge – in this case, knowledge passed down from the university program to the high school teacher – will not suffice. Because of the teacher’s knowledge of her context, of her students’ needs, and of secondary pedagogies, the development of practice will require a dynamic, bi-directional, constantly reinvented and renegotiated sharing of knowledge and expertise.

Teaching in boundary zones is potentially transformative for both learning and practice. Indeed, moving out of “comfortable” traditional modes of instruction makes teaching composition “more complicated,” but also more “productive, and provocative” (McCrimmon, 2010, p. 220). Along the same lines, research in teacher learning suggests that the points of “collision” among contexts or “worlds” are particularly fruitful for learning and teacher development (Edwards, 2011; Norton-Meier & Drake, 2011; Ward, Nolen, & Horn, 2011). “Productive friction at the boundaries” has to do with conflicts that boundary crossers experience in their dealings in multiple contexts and the ways in which these conflicts enable them to reflect on their practice (Ward et al., 2011). More than taking advantage of productive friction and points of collision, the dual positioning of CE teachers means that they are poised to draw from “the best practices and features of both settings” and should *interrogate* the dual positioning of

CE courses rather than seek to “*manage*” it; in this way, CE composition courses can “take full advantage of the merging of contexts” (McCrimmon, 2010, p. 222, emphasis in original). Rather than viewing themselves as either content experts *or* master teachers, McCrimmon (2010) asserts that well-trained high school teachers teaching CE courses are equipped to “wed content expertise with a heightened sensitivity to what works in the classroom” (p. 221).

The visions of CE composition as a potentially uniquely productive setting for both the teaching of composition and the development of teachers are exciting and complex. While scholars have written about their experiences working through such complexity to create better collaborative programs (as in Hansen & Farris, 2010), this dissertation provides a rich description of how these dynamics interact with one another to influence the development and practices of case teachers in particular contexts and a deeper understanding of what happens in the enactment of collaboratively developed curricula intended to transition student writers across “the composition threshold” (Denecker, 2013). Further, by laying bare teachers’ experiences of learning across settings, this dissertation augments understandings of boundary zones and horizontal expertise.

### **Studying The Continuing Learning of Practicing Teachers**

Teacher learning can be difficult to study because it – like teaching itself – is frequently not “linear” and “deterministic” (Feiman-Nemser, 2012) but highly complex, dynamic, and contextual (Hammerness et al., 2005). Borrowing an image from Phillip Jackson’s *Life in Classrooms*, Feiman-Nemser (2012) offers an illustrative metaphor, “...the path of educational progress more closely resembles the *flight of the butterfly than the flight of a bullet*” (p. 7, emphasis in Feiman-Nemser). This image illuminates the problem of studying something as complex as learning to teach, or learning new teaching practices. Thus, approaches to studying

teacher learning are themselves complex and dynamic because they aim to capture multiple, intersecting, and dialectical influences on learning.

**Teacher learning in professional development.** This dissertation views the collaborative practice established by CE programs to be powerful professional development opportunities and sites for meaningful teacher learning. Feiman-Nemser (2012) describes professional development as “transformations in teachers’ knowledge, understandings, skills, and commitments, in what they are able to do in their individual practice as well as in their shared responsibilities” (p. 131). Further, she notes that professional development efforts are most meaningful when they connect, “teachers’ learning to the collective learning of the profession” such that professional development can “widen circles of teachers” making teachers both “constructors of knowledge and transformers of culture” (p. 132). Unfortunately, such a vision is rarely attained in many current K-12 contexts. Meaningful opportunities for teachers to collaborate in working on “problems of practice” are more often “‘luxuries’ than they are essential components of the work” (Lampert, 2000, p. 64). Traditional models of PD, where teachers “get” knowledge from a staff development session or university course and aim to “apply” it later are “not well suited to helping teachers transform complex knowledge and skills into powerful teaching practices” (Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 134). Rather, teachers learn from “sustained and substantive learning opportunities” that are “built into the ongoing work of teaching” and offer “access to knowledgeable sources outside their immediate circle” including the “collective wisdom that thoughtful teachers can generate by working together” (Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 135). Such complex and well-designed professional development is critical for learning complex practices. A professional culture characterized by support, collaboration, and a range of experience is most conducive for substantive development of teacher learning (Feiman-Nemser, 2012). Transformative models of professional learning such as these resist being understood as knowledge that is learned in one setting and applied in another. To study

teacher learning that takes place within “the ongoing work of teaching,” the researcher must aim to understand the teacher, her practice, the settings in which she works, and the interactions among them.

**Understanding teacher learning: practices, principles, and knowledge.** The ultimate goal of professional development is to influence teacher practice. This dynamic, however, is complicated by teachers’ existing conceptions, identities, and practices. Changing existing patterns is difficult, substantive work that involves rethinking and transforming pedagogy, beliefs about subject matter, teacher roles, and teacher values (Feiman-Nemser, 2012; Hammerness, 2005). Further complicating inquiries into teacher learning and changing teacher practice are competing notions of “teacher practice.” In her discussion of the topic, Lampert (2010) asserts that the term “practice” is simultaneously used to describe what, how, and when teachers learn. Unraveling some of these conceptions will help prepare this inquiry for meaningful analysis. In line with Lampert and colleagues (2013), this research is interested in teacher learning with regard to the development of teaching practices, principles that guide teacher judgment, and knowledge of composition and composition pedagogies. In the context of this study, teachers’ practices, principles, and knowledge are likely to be influenced by the particulars of their contexts (students, departments, schools, districts) and their subject matter (traditional ELA in their contexts vs. the CE program).

**Teacher practice in the classroom context.** In addition to being understood in the context of the communities, districts, schools, and classrooms in which they takes place, teachers’ practices must also be understood in relation to the course content (Lampert, 2010). Day in and day out, teacher practice depends on how a teacher responds to the needs of her

students and with regard to the subject matter she teaches to those students; this dynamic is at the center of classroom work (Lampert, 2010). These relationships play out continually in the work of the classroom. Lampert explains, "...every teaching act is simultaneously part of a momentary exchange, part of a group of similarly structured exchanges, part of a lesson, part of a unit of lessons, and part of the yearlong relationship between teacher and students" (p.22). As they navigate these ongoing acts, teachers learn new teaching practices. The work of CE teachers, then, develops as they relate to their students, their changing needs, and the demands and expectations of the university writing curriculum. To prepare and support teachers' development, the university program and its support structures will need to recognize this complex and contextual dynamic.

**Teacher practice and tool use.** Further, classroom practice depends on the use of teaching tools – which are the frameworks, practices, and strategies that support teachers' planning and implementation of classroom instruction (Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999). In preparing for the implementation of new practices, teachers must be introduced to tools to support those practices *and* understand *how to use them* in the classroom (Lampert, 2010). Because teaching practice responds to in-the-moment, contextual situations, to effectively change teaching practice professional development must also show teachers *how* to employ novel tools in their classroom practice. This research will aim to capture both what teachers know and what teachers do; that is, how teachers *use* what they know *in* what they do.

**Teacher learning in nested, interwoven contexts.** In sum, Lampert (2010) suggests teacher learning from and through practice is best supported by clear understandings of: the learning teacher's context, the relationships among the many related features of effective teaching practice, and how the teacher can best be supported by coaches or instructors – in this

case, university staff, faculty, and graduate student stewards. Because CE teachers practice in contexts that are nested and woven together (Cobb, McClain, de Silva Lamberg, & Dean, 2003) and because the teaching practices in which they will engage and the support that they will receive will be influenced by multiple institutional contexts, the learning of CE teachers will take place within a complex web of factors and settings.

Thus, studies of teacher learning in other contexts suggest that learning how to teach CE composition courses is a complex endeavor. However, because it affords CE teachers rare opportunities for collaboration across institutional settings, their teaching of the course may open up unique opportunities for learning and professional growth. Due to this positioning, this dissertation uncovers rich description of teachers engaged in cross-institutional work and offers insight into the complexity of cross-institutional partnerships and individuals' learning and development.

## **Theoretical Framework**

### **Individuals Learning *Through Practice Within Complex and Interacting Settings***

As outlined above, the practice of teaching and learning for CE teachers is particularly complex given that it sits at the intersection of the worlds of high school and college, the worlds of English Language Arts and college level composition, and the schools of thought surrounding the teaching of writing within these contexts. Moreover, as Feiman-Nemser (2012), Hammerness et al. (2005), and many others have suggested, ongoing teacher learning and professional development is highly complex and difficult to capture in study. As such, to conceptualize teacher learning and development, this research begins with Beach's notion of consequential transitions (1999, 2003). Developed to reconceptualize traditional notions of the transfer of knowledge and skills, Beach's developmental view of knowledge propagation provides a

framework for understanding learning as “the construction of new knowledge, ways of knowing, and new positionings of oneself in the world” (Beach, 2003, p. 42). The central construct of Beach’s framework is what he terms “consequential transitions.” A transition is a “developmental change in the relation between an individual and one or more social activities.... A transition is consequential when it is consciously reflected on, struggled with, and shifts the individual’s sense of self or social position” (Beach, 2003, p. 42). In this way, consequential transitions help us not only understand the “trajectory” (a term that Beach complicates in his framework) of an individual’s development, but they also help us situate this development within the context of practice and identity work. In this section, I examine the key concepts at play when employing Beach’s framework to analyze the development of CE teachers. As such, I will provide further insight into how this study conceives of learning in practice with a particular emphasis on a situative understanding of learning that takes place in settings because, as established in the previous section, the settings of practice for CE teachers are of a complex and unique nature. I will then go into some detail on concepts central for understanding what is meant by identity for the purpose of this study. Finally, I will outline the four types of consequential transitions proposed by Beach and discuss how this construct – informed by the complex understandings of learning afforded by a situative frame and notions of identities in practice – is useful in analyzing the learning and development of teachers new to teaching college composition in a high school setting.

### **Learning in Practice**

To begin, it is useful to posit some ideas that further clarify how this study conceives of learning. Because it is interested in learning that takes place by virtue of participation in practice (teaching writing via a CE program, specifically), this study views learning as arising in a

dialectical relationship between person and practice as individuals take actions and engage in activities within practices <sup>2</sup>(Edwards, 2015). Practices, in this conception, are understood to be “historically accumulated, knowledge-laden, emotionally freighted and given direction by what is valued by those who inhabit them” (Edwards, 2010, p. 7). Thus, to understand learning in practice, we need to attend to demands in practices, the contexts in which practices occur, as well as to what the learner brings to the practice. As such, this research takes up the situative perspective of learning (Gee, 2008; Greeno, 2005; Sawyer & Greeno, 2008).

**The situative frame.** On a basic level, the situative perspective moves from viewing learning as a simple cognitive act to a process that emerges from “interactions between people and resources in the setting” (Sawyer & Greeno, 2008, p. 348). Lave (1988) provides a useful example when she describes grocery shoppers whose decision-making and goals are shaped by their initial intentions upon their arrival at the supermarket, as well as the images and experiences they encounter in their trip. Ultimately, their behavior and the outcome of their shopping trip are mediated by the setting. Like the shoppers at the grocery store, teachers’ practice (and their learning *in* practice) is mediated simultaneously by a number of factors including their intentions, preparation, and features of the settings in which they practice. Because this study looks at the learning of teachers that occurs when engaging in teaching practice, it must also look at the settings within which that practice occurs. Such settings are

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<sup>2</sup> The framings of this study use the terms “practice,” “learning,” and “development” to refer to a number of similar and overlapping ideas. For clarity’s sake in this study, I use “practice” to refer to all the things that teachers *do*, including: teaching, collaborating, finding resources, and even presenting one’s teacher identity in the context of various activities.

I use the terms “learning” and “development” to denote change in practice and conceptual understanding over time. Further, because I was interested not only in *what* or *if* teachers learned, but also *how*, I also use the term “learning” to signify the *learning process* of teachers.

complex and can be thought of as systems that are dependent on the individual teacher, as well as departmental histories, district policies, student needs, and many other contextual factors. As Sawyer and Greeno (2008) explain, “school learning is situated in a setting of a complex social organization that contains learners, teachers, curriculum materials, software tools, and the layout of the physical environment” (p. 348). Such settings are of particular importance to CE teachers’ work, as CE teachers work in overlapping settings that are each complex social systems containing and influenced by a wide range of resources, tools, and practices. Sawyer and Greeno (2008) propose analyzing the processes of work in contexts, to what extent these processes result in individual learning, and to what extent that learning can be used by the individual within his or her context. Put another way, “learning [in] real-life learning contexts is characterized by mutual dynamic interactions between individuals' effectivities and the affordances of the context” (Volet, 1999, p. 637).

As characterized by Volet (*above*), any environment contains affordances or action possibilities posed by features in the environment (Gee, 2008; Gibson, 1977; 1979; Norman, 1988). Yet, these affordances are of no use if the individual cannot perceive them. Moreover, “a human actor must also have the capacity to transform the affordance into an actual and effective action” (Gee, 2008, p. 81). These capacities are termed “effectivities.” A situated perspective focuses on the relationship between affordances (environment) and effectivities (individual). Gee (2008) offers a useful analogy: “A hammer,” he says, “affords certain actions better than others... if one perceives the hammer in functional terms” (p. 81). Yet the affordances of the hammer cannot be put to use unless one “has the capacity to take up the hammer in the right way to transform its affordances into action” (Gee, 2008, p. 81). The work of CE teachers is acutely affected by affordances of the environment and the effectivities of the individual because while multiple

contexts influence their practice and learning, much of CE teachers' practice is guided by individual thinking and decision making and is typically enacted by the individual in his or her classroom without the guidance or support of other CE teachers.

**New and everyday knowledge.** Within their day to day practice, CE teachers' new roles and experiences are likely to be influenced by "every day" ways of knowing and being (Gee, 2008, p.100). For CE teachers, their "every day" work could be conceived of as their "normal" high school ELA teaching, whereas CE teaching requires learning new, increasingly specialized ways of knowing and doing. Gee (2015) has also written about such ways of knowing as primary and secondary Discourses. A person's primary Discourse is the "way of being an everyday person" one acquires early in life in "whatever constitutes [one's] primary socialisation," usually in the home (Gee, 2015, p. 173). Gee (2015) argues that secondary Discourses (those that are specialized and acquired in institutions outside the home):

...build on, and extend, the uses of language and the values, attitudes and beliefs we acquired as part of our primary Discourse.... It is, of course, a great advantage when any particular secondary Discourse is compatible (in words, deeds and values) with your primary one. But all these secondary Discourses involve uses of language, either written or oral, or both, as well as ways of thinking, valuing, and behaving, which go beyond the uses of language in our primary Discourses... (p. 194).

One aspect of teachers' Discourses of central importance to the development of focal teachers in this study is what I term their conceptual frameworks for writing instruction. Below, I provide further explanation of what is meant by "frameworks" in the context of this research. From the outset of the study, each focal teacher approached his or her current work through an established framework for writing instruction.

That is, each teacher came in with an established set of ideas or conceptual structure through which they understood writing, what makes it “good,” and how to teach it. Borrowing a metaphor from Anne Lammott (1995), in their existing frameworks, the teachers each brought with them a basket. The baskets that teachers carry with them represent “all of the stuff that makes each [person] think that life [or, in this case, teaching and writing] sort of makes sense” (p. 48). “The basket,” Lammott adds, “is an apt image because of all the holes.” Over time and through practice, each teacher continues to fill her basket, using the existing structure of her frameworks for writing and writing instruction to make sense of new ideas, tools, and practices encountered in the teaching of the CHS course. And, over time, some aspects of teachers’ incoming frameworks and structures fall away as teachers add to their constructed understanding of writing and writing instruction. In this way, teachers’ incoming conceptual frameworks for writing instruction, influenced by their prior experiences with writing and teaching writing, afforded them a starting place from which to make sense of new ideas. Gee (2008) notes that such conceptual frameworks and prior experiences help learners build the sort of “powerful representational schemes” that allow learners to “make sense of things and prepare for action in the world” (p. 78, 85). Such models are of particular importance for making sense of abstract concepts (as CE teachers frequently encounter in unfamiliar approaches to teaching writing) and must be responsive to different contexts (Gee, 2008). For CE teachers, this meant that beginning the year with fewer well-developed ideas about teaching writing and with fewer experiences teaching writing would be likely, over time, to afford fewer opportunities to learn.

Gee (2015) further argues that one’s path toward socialization into a secondary Discourse shares much with second language acquisition. This analogy proves useful in many ways. Firstly, like languages, “aspects of one Discourse can be transferred to another Discourse, as one can

transfer a grammatical feature from one language to another” (p. 195). Secondly, “... if one has not fully mastered a particular secondary Discourse... one can fall back on one’s primary Discourse..., one can use another, perhaps related secondary Discourse..., or one can use a simplified... version of the required secondary Discourse” (Gee, 2015, p. 195). As the focal CE teachers engaged in the practices of planning and teaching the CHS course, they were becoming socialized into a new secondary Discourse for writing instruction. In this process, their their established Discourses for teaching and teaching writing (rooted in their prior work and existing settings) interacted with their attempts to become fluent in the Discourse(s) of writing pedagogy of the CHS course. Learning in this way is no easy task because, in contrast to Discourses like that of Law School (as discussed in Gee, 2015) that are *internalized* when people are *immersed* in them, CE teachers cannot immerse themselves in the environment of the university and rather practice in separate high school environments, each imbued with its own traditions, cultures, and Discourses.

Thus, each CE composition teacher’s experience in teaching the shared university composition curriculum will differ due to the influence of the particularities of his school and department environments, including the colleagues with whom they share environments, goals, and tools (Lampert, 2010); these shared experiences are the everyday teaching cultures of new CE teachers. Of importance in these cultures are the “relatively inconspicuous, recurrent, and taken-for-granted aspects of school life” including “grading and testing practices, patterning and punctuation of time, uses (not contents) of textbooks, bounding and uses of the physical space, grouping of students, patterns of discipline and control, connections to the world outside the school and interactions among teachers as well as between teachers and parents” (Engeström, 1998, p. 76). These features are important because they “characterize what it means to be a

teacher or a student within the institutional setting” (Cobb et al., 2003, p. 13). CE teachers and students are asked to operate with two (potentially different) notions of what it means to be a teacher or student at once due to the dual positioning of the courses. Importantly, Gee (2008) argues, if one’s prior experiences are similar to new practices, one’s prior identity will overlap with the developing one and, “this is a powerful form of affiliation” (p. 102).

As this overview of a situative frame for understanding teacher learning has begun to show, there is a complex interaction among setting, practice, and identity in the work of teaching. All of these are key to applying Beach’s (1999, 2003) framework of consequential transitions to the work of CE teachers. Taken together, these interactions also mean that though CE teachers may be offered the same resources and the same professional development opportunities, they do not ultimately have the same opportunities to learn (e.g., Gee, 2008).

Also important in coming to understand teachers’ experiences of teaching and learning and their consequential transitions are teachers’ experiences with practice-linked identities. In the next section, I detail the conceptions of identity that are central to this study.

### **Identities in Practice**

Both how an individual interacts with the setting and how the individual engages in and learns from activity are impacted by that individual’s personal history, sense of self, dispositions, knowledge, goals, and beliefs (Enyedy, Goldberg, & Welsh, 2005). A construct for understanding this impact is the notion of identities in practice (Holland et al., 1998; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Lave, 1996; Varghese et al., 2005; Wenger, 1998), which “begin[s] with the premise that identities are lived in and through activity and so must be conceptualized as they develop in social practice” (Holland, Lachiotte, Skinner, & Cain, 1998, p. 5). Centrally, the theory posits that there is “mutually constitutive relationship between identity and practice” (Kanno & Stuart, 2011) and that “a person’s identity is shaped and negotiated through

everyday activities” (Enyedy et al., 2005).

Within the context of teaching practice, this notion of identity also takes into account individual teachers’ relationships with the discipline and subject matter, with students, with the classroom community, and with the school – including his or her department and school administration (Enyedy et al., 2005). Teacher identity is a significant consideration in any analysis of teacher practice and/or development because it impacts how teachers navigate or negotiate their roles within contexts, thereby directly impacting their teaching practice and the transformation of that practice over time (Enyedy et al., 2005). Further, attending to teachers’ identities in practice in this study offers insight into how teachers navigate and are impacted by the shifting contexts of practice embedded in CE teaching that “afford different opportunities and motivation for learning and participation” (Hull & Greeno, 2006, p. 79). Moreover, the professional development work of CE teaching offers “a space for acquiring new knowledge, re-crafting identities, and challenging existing cultural and social practices” (Battey & Franke, 2008, p. 128).

Within the domain of identities in practice, researchers and theorists have identified a few key constructs. This research was influenced by conceptions of practice-linked identities (cf. Nasir & Cooks, 2009) and will employ the constructs of identity resources (Nasir & Cooks, 2009) and of figured worlds, positionality, and spaces of self-authoring (outlined by Holland et al., 1998<sup>3</sup>).

**Practice-linked identities.** Nasir and Cooks (2009) define practice-linked identities as those that arise when individuals view “participation in [a] practice as an integral part of who one is” (p.44). In line with Beach’s (1999; 2003) notion of consequential transitions, this research is

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<sup>3</sup> Holland et al. (1998) draw heavily on the work of Bakhtin, Vygotsky, and Bourdieu.

interested in understanding how participation in the practice of CHS teaching came to, over time, shift teachers' sense of who they were as a teacher (Nasir & Cooks, 2009). Battey and Franke (2008) found that, "As teachers participate[d] [in new practices] they develop[ed] new knowledge, skills, and ways of talking, and these facilitate[d] a shift in identity of what it [meant] to be a [particular sort] of teacher" (Battey & Franke, 2008, p. 130). Given the distinct cultures of high school and college, this study looks at how CE teachers did or did not develop professional identities linked to "college level" teaching and the ways in which CE teachers came to understand themselves as being a new sort of teacher through teaching the CHS course.

**Identity Resources (Material, Relational, and Ideational).** In their 2009 study of high school students learning to become track and field athletes, Nasir and Cooks developed a conceptualization of identity resources. This framework offers a useful construct for thinking about how focal teachers come to develop practice-linked identities. Specifically, Nasir and Cooks (2009) outline three types of resources available to individuals engaged in new practices that influence their development of new, practice-linked identities: material, relational, and ideational resources. Material resources include practice-linked resources and how individuals come to use these in expert ways. Relational resources are the social interactions and relationships with colleagues and mentors embedded in settings and practices. Finally, ideational resources are, "ideas about oneself and one's relationship to and place in the practice and the world, as well as ideas about what is valued and what is good" (Nasir & Cooks, 2009, p. 44). As individuals participate in new practices, they interact with the identity resources available to them. "Over time," according to Nasir & Cooks (2009), "interactions with identity resources [accumulate] to form trajectories of identities" (Nasir & Cooks, 2009, p. 47). This construct

offers a way to understand focal teacher's experiences of engagement when they teach the CHS course for the first time.

**Figured worlds.** CE teachers' identity development was situated within the figured worlds that they engaged with and constructed. Figured worlds are, "socially and culturally constructed realm[s] of interpretation in which particular characters and actors are recognized, significance is assigned to certain acts and particular outcomes are valued over others" (Holland et al., 1998, p. 52). The concept of a figured world comes from a recognition of people's tendency to understand the world through "as if" lenses. For instance, in some cultural settings, learning and scholarship are viewed "as if" they have inherent value and enrich the social and historical landscape. In others, however, they are viewed "as if" they are valuable only so far as they advance the economic well-being of individuals or communities. Key components of these "as if" worlds are shared understandings of and orientation towards the goals of shared activity, shared "frames of meaning" through which to make sense of experience, and a propensity for the participants in a figured world to produce and re-produce the world through appropriation of valued behaviors and means of communication such that "the figured world becomes embodied over time, through continual participation" (Holland et al., 1998, p. 52). Thus, the identities of participants "are formed in the process of participating in activities organized by figured worlds" (Holland et al., 1998, p. 57).

Communities, districts, schools, departments, and classrooms can all take on features of figured worlds in which actions are interpreted in particular ways and a shared understanding of values is constructed. CE teachers, for their part, navigate multiple figured worlds at once. CE teachers share one context (the CHS program), but also practice in unique local settings. Each of these settings can be understood as a different figured world. Indeed, while the figured world of

the CHS program is shared among CE teachers, it may be understood through different “frames of meaning” (Holland et al., 1998) by each individual. As mentioned briefly in the previous section, when CE teachers participate in the activities of these worlds, they will deploy tools and artifacts – some shared – to serve the purposes valued within the settings of their practice.

***Goals of activity and developing motivation in figured worlds.*** As people understand the settings – or worlds – in which they participate, a crucial component to that understanding is how they interpret the goals of the activities in which they participate. Leontiev (1975, 1978) described such goals as the “object of activity.” The ‘object of activity’ objectifies that which is worked on in an activity – and the needs, emotions and feelings associated with it – to create the “object motive.” Within this construct, the object of activity is therefore seen by different actors in different ways. Further, the relationship between actor and object is mediated by *what matters* in a practice. The object of activity looked at through the lens of values becomes the object motive. These relationships and lenses are necessarily impacted by the figured worlds of which they are a part.

To be more precise, Holland et al. (1999) take the neo-Vygotskian approach that “thoughts and feelings, will and motivation are formed as the individual develops” (p.100). Engagement with others in a new activity affords individuals an opportunity to learn how to engage in that activity and “how to attend to and value the experience” (Holland et al., 1999, p. 100). Ultimately, their research suggested that motivations are constructed “in the process of learning about the figured world” (p. 101). In the context of this study, if the object of CE composition programs is to engage high school students in college level academic writing practices, each actor involved in the work looks at the object through the lens of what matters to him or her about the teaching of college level writing – and these values are impacted by the figured worlds in which the teacher

engages in the activity (teaching college writing in a high school setting). Further, teachers' motivations continue to be constructed as they engage with the activity in their figured worlds. And, following from above, teachers whose engagement with the activity is supported by relational resources are likely to develop fuller conceptions of their motivations in relation to the activity.

***Tools and artifacts in figured worlds.*** The use of tools and artifacts is embedded in figured worlds. Tools and their use take on significance within figured worlds through their common usages, the meanings they have come to embody, and the conceptions of those who employ them (Holland et al., 1998). The use of tools comes to “evoke the worlds to which they [are] relevant, and position individuals with respect to their worlds....” Significantly, tools and artifacts within figured worlds have the “capacity to shift the perceptual, cognitive, affective, and practical frame of activity” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 63). Moreover, learning in and through practice involves using cultural tools in increasingly informed ways; knowledge is generated by individuals using tools in practice (Edwards, 2015). However, different settings (or figured worlds), as well as different practices, call for tools to be refined differently for different purposes. Thus, the knowledge tools produce is mediated by the practices *for which* they are used and the settings *in which* they are used (Edwards, 2015). Language, especially specialized language (Gee, 2008) and shared understandings of key concepts and terms (Greeno, 2005) are critical tools in the propagating of knowledge through practice in figured worlds. These tools impact both how teachers engage in the activities of CE teaching and how they create meaning out of their experiences doing so.

***Positional identities in figured worlds.*** Within figured worlds, individuals are impacted by their positionality and they develop a positional identity, or, “a sense of their relative social

position” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 132). Positional identity is described aptly by Hull and Greeno (2006) as, “the variety of ways in which individuals are entitled, expected and obligated (by themselves and others) to participate in the practices of a community” (p. 78). Holland and her colleagues (1998) note that positional identities are tied to figured worlds and the activities enacted within them, though some social positions (including gender, race, ethnicity, and class) are features across most figured worlds. Individuals’ actions and behaviors are mediated by their sense of social position; moreover, in some instances, actions taken by individuals can be “claims to [new, or traditionally denied] social positions” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 126). Positional identities mediate “day-to-day” and “on-the-ground” practice in that they impact how comfortable (or not) one feels to speak, act, or enter spaces of participation in particular ways within figured worlds (Holland et al., 1998). CE teachers are positioned in their settings by their roles within their departments, their prior experiences teaching, and their developing roles within the CHS program; these positionings mediate how they engage in new and existing practices, as well as what they learn through engaging in practice.

In addition to their roles within settings, a key component of positional identities for CE teachers is the extent to which they are or are not afforded agency (Greeno, 2005; Holland et al., 1999). One critical facet of teacher agency in the delivery of the CHS course is the notion of conceptual agency; that is, how much agency does the teacher have to “interact with the subject matter constructively - interpreting meanings, formulating questions, choosing and adapting a method...” (p. 88)? Moreover, an individual’s sense of identity is likely to influence *how* she takes up the conceptual agency available in a setting, as is how she understands the figured world of that setting. In spite of this variation, conceptual agency can be intentionally reinforced in a setting when individuals are positioned as authors of concepts or practices (Greeno, 2005).

Another key consideration with regard to teacher agency is how much autonomy and power teachers feel as they implement the course in their setting. This has to do with “relations of power, deference and entitlement, social affiliation and distance” that afford relative “access to spaces, activities, genres, authoritative voices, or any voice at all” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 127-128) in teachers’ settings of practice. Moreover, as individuals develop conceptions of themselves in relation to a practice that are “conscious and objectified,” control over these conceptions can afford them a greater sense of agency in their practice. That is, a clear sense of “who they are” in their settings and in relation to a given practice can help individuals develop more “agency, or control over their own behavior” (Holland et al., 1999, p. 40).

**Self-Authorship.** Acting within these constructs, individuals also “present and represent themselves to others and to themselves, thereby authoring and coauthoring their identities in [figured worlds]” (Hull & Greeno, 2006, p. 78). Aiming to complicate simplistic notions that “identities are internalized” by the reproduction of “the collective upon the individual,” Holland et al. (1998), posit what they term the “space of authoring.” Building on Bakhtin’s concept of dialogism, the space of authoring has to do with the individual’s continual need to “answer the world.” Because of this need, authorship, they say, “is not a choice – but the form of the answer is not predetermined” (p. 272).

The authoring of the self, in Holland et al.’s framework, is the orchestration of voices into a vision of the “I-for-myself.” This vision, however, is necessarily constructed of the words and categories learned to describe the “I-for-others” and the “other-in-myself” (p. 178). The voices, symbols, and images available for an individual to orchestrate into an identity, may be complementary or they may be in conflict. The way in which the individual puts them together is the process of self-authoring. Over time, this process leads an individual toward an “authorial

stance” by moving through an “internally persuasive discourse” that takes up the voices of others as one’s own to a practice of self-fashioning that uses available voices as “personal tools for affecting one’s own behavior” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 182-185).

Moreover, the ways in which people answer to the world and take up voices in the process of self-authoring change as their figured worlds change. That is, “...what we call identities remain dependent upon social relations and material conditions [...]. If these relations and material conditions change, they must be ‘answered,’ and old ‘answers’ about who one is [and what one does] may be undone” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 189). The degree to which an individual forms an identity relevant to a figured world likely depends upon his relative level of engagement and identification with that world. Some actors do not identify with the figured world enough to forge an identity within that figured world, some simply do not spend enough time actively engaged in the practices of that world for it to have significant impact on their identity development (Holland et al., 1998, p. 189).

Individuals also employ improvisation when using “what others say about [them] to figure an identity or rather identities, as ways to interpret and organize [their] actions in the social contexts important to [them]” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 276). This improvisation allows “new identities” to act as vehicles through which to “craft new answers” to dilemmas faced in day-to-day practice. That is, self-authoring takes place within a context of practice and of social positioning. CE teachers take up visions of what it means to teach, what it means to teach well, what it means to teach college level writing, and what it means to teach “their students” in a process of self-authorship that mediates their self-perceptions, their practices, and their appropriation of roles within their settings. As their settings change, and as they come to embody (or not) the features of the CHS context, this process is necessarily impacted.

**Identities in practice as a construct for understanding teacher development.** An understanding of figured worlds, positionality, and self-authoring from Holland et al.'s (1998) construction of identities in practice will afford this study greater insight into the linkages among identities, practices, and knowledge construction. In prior work, scholars have found that participation in new practices can co-occur with the development of a different sense of self (Hull & Greeno, 2006, p. 80), that a learner's motivation to learn is keenly influenced by whether or not the activities and practices through which they learn support the development of their identities (Greeno, 2005), and that, "identity is shaped by the knowledge and skills we acquire and shapes the knowledge and skills we seek to develop" (Battey & Franke, 2008, p. 128). Enyedy and colleagues (2005) urge researchers of teacher learning "to consider practice and identity simultaneously, as they are intertwined. At times, if a teacher is aware of their identity as a science teacher [or, in this case, a College in the High School teacher] and how it is linked to their practice, they will have more 'control' over changing or adapting a current teaching practice and be able to use their identities as a compass to navigate teaching dilemmas" (p. 25). This study will use the lens of identities in practices to illuminate CE teachers' development and practice as they negotiate new professional identities, in addition to existing professional identities.

### **"Trajectories" of Development at the Intersection of Settings**

Because CE teachers' work is simultaneously influenced by both the high school and university contexts, analysis of their learning takes on another layer. Understanding learning and growth that takes place at the intersection of contexts is necessarily more complicated than a simple application or transfer of knowledge from one setting to the next. Learning in one setting can influence behavior in another system, but "explanations in terms of aspects of activities in

practice are much more promising than explanations in terms of transfer of knowledge structure that individuals have acquired” (Greeno, 2005, p. 80).

**Consequential transitions: Lateral, collateral, encompassing, and mediational development.** Given that the sharing of expertise among imbricated settings for practice often moves horizontally rather than vertically, the development of teachers’ learning and practice often does not progress in a linear or uni-directional manner (Feiman-Nemser, 2012). Engeström (2008) envisions developing practice as a “vessel on a giant potter’s wheel emerging gradually” as it is “shaped” and “added to” by the influences within settings (p. 95). To help clarify how such a learning process might take place, this research returns to Beach’s (1999, 2003) theoretical model, which is useful in understanding alternatives to the traditional model of linear progression.

As noted briefly above, Beach’s (1999, 2003) framework centers on reimagining notions of the transfer of learning or knowledge gained in one context to applied use in another. Learning professional practices is not, he contends, as simple as the individual transferring knowledge or skills from one setting to the next; rather, “our experiences of continuity and transformation across time and social situations are a function of neither the individual nor the situation, but rather of their relation” (Beach, 1999, p. 112).

To better explain how an individual makes use of prior learning or develops within an activity setting, Beach reconceives the idea of learning transfer in a model of “consequential transitions” which “involve transformation, the construction of new knowledge, identities, ways of knowing, and new positionings of oneself in the world. They are consequential for the individual and are developmental in nature, located in the changing relations between individuals and social activities” (1999, p. 113). Beach’s consequential transitions allow for transitions in

multiple directions in terms of progress, ideas, and time – and they allow for changes in both the individual and in the context or situation. They also account for both transitions between real-world contexts and simulated or mediated environments. They involve, “the construction of knowledge, identities, and skills, or transformation, rather than the application of something that has been acquired elsewhere” (Beach, 1999, p. 119). Influenced by Dewey (1916), Beach argues for understanding development as the process through which “systems of artifacts weave together changing individuals and social organizations in such a way that the person experiences becoming someone or something new” (Beach, 2003, p.41). Beach’s model reorients the relationship among learners, knowledge, and situation, making it useful for thinking about how CE teachers incorporate new knowledge and skills, make sense of changing identities, and develop and/or transform understandings within social organizations over time – “how they become someone or something new.”

Consequential transitions, Beach argues, involve knowledge construction (and reconstruction) “across social space and time” through “associations,” “artifacts,” “continuities, discontinuities, and contradictions” (Beach, 2003, p. 42). Beach outlines four types of consequential transitions: lateral, collateral, encompassing, and meditational – all of which will be useful in explaining the development of CE teachers.

***Lateral transitions.*** Lateral transitions involve an individual moving “between two historically related activities in a single direction” and “most closely [resemble] classic transfer” (Beach, 1999, p. 114). In a lateral transition, one activity is typically seen as preparation for a new activity, e.g. an algebra course as preparation for a later progression to trigonometry. “Participation in one activity precedes and is replaced by participation in another activity during lateral transition” and this transition is considered to be a developmental advancement from the

previous activity (Beach, 2003, p. 43).

***Collateral transitions.*** Collateral transitions, by contrast, allow for the potentiality of “back and forth movement between activities” (Beach, 1999, p. 114). In these transitions, individuals participate in two or more activities simultaneously (such as home life and school life) and sometimes “run in opposition to societal norms of progress” (Beach, 1999, p. 116). That is, while learners typically develop by virtue of engaging in collateral transitions, they do not necessarily develop in a vertical or hierarchical manner. A useful example comes from Newell, Tallman, and Letcher (2009) who describe a teacher candidate’s movement between and development within student teaching and university coursework as a “collateral transition.” Reflecting on her shifts between these two activity settings allowed her “to understand each setting’s differing motives and to consider how to modify teaching tools to accommodate these differences” (p. 97). This teacher undoubtedly developed from such transitions, though not in a linear manner. At other times, movement between activities in a collateral transition might potentially not be characterized as developmental. Depending on individuals’ effectivities and understandings of the purpose of activity (among other things), collateral transitions could lead to knowledge transformation (as above) or simply require the transitioning individual to engage in code-switching between environments (Beach, 2003). These complexities mean that collateral transitions offer a complicating construct to simple notions of developmental progress, which “generally value knowledge proportional to the degree to which it is seen as higher in a hierarchy...from its origins in particular social activities” (Beach, 2003, p. 45). For CE teachers, this complicated notion is apt as they will continue to participate in both high school teaching and the teaching of college level composition even though the latter could ostensibly be seen as “higher” up a hierarchy. Moreover, participation in both types of teaching stands to make the CE

teacher better equipped for both types of teaching practice – that is continued “normal” high school teaching could inform the teaching of college level composition for CE teachers just as much as teaching college composition might influence their practice of “normal” high school teaching.

***Encompassing transitions.*** Encompassing transitions “occur within the boundaries of an activity that is itself changing” (Beach, 1999, p.117), as might occur when teachers respond to the influence of education reform initiatives. The development experienced in encompassing transitions often involves “adapting to existing or changing circumstances in order to continue participation within the boundaries of the activity” (Beach, 1999, p. 117-118). Echoing the trajectory of lateral transitions, encompassing transitions typically involve a “clear notion of progress, though it is associated with the direction taken by the changing activity rather than the direction of individuals moving between activities” (Beach, 2003, p. 45). Beach (1999) is also careful to note that boundaries themselves are not static and “can be crossed developmentally and through the use of boundary objects” (p.117). Encompassing transitions can help explain an individual’s growth within activities and settings that change relatively rapidly over time.

***Mediational transitions.*** Mediational transitions take place when individuals participate in activities that “project or simulate involvement in an activity yet to be fully experienced” (Beach, 1999, p. 118). These transitions take place for teachers when they try out new tools or practices in simulated environments before working them into their classrooms. Thus, “they always maintain a ‘third object’ or mediating status with regard to where participants are currently and where they are going developmentally, roughly equivalent to Vygotsky’s concept of a zone of proximal development” (Beach, 1999, p. 118).

***Consequential transitions in the teaching of college writing in a high school setting.***

These four types of transitions allow for an understanding of CE teachers' development that reflects the complex and potentially recursive relationships among practices, settings, and identities. In this research, the bulk of teacher learning and development is likely to be best explained by Beach's description of collateral transitions because CE teachers continually move back and forth between the activities of "normal" high school ELA teaching and the teaching and development of their CE course, as well as between the identities available to high school teachers and college instructors. However, within each of the positions occupied by CE teachers, there is the potential for the activity itself to change and for teachers to experience encompassing transitions (all of the high school departments, for instance, were navigating the full implementation of the Common Core State Standards at the time of the study). Moreover, opportunities afforded for teachers to practice using the "tools and practices" of the CE program in professional development settings (such as collaborative norming of paper and portfolio scores at university workshops) or in teachers' early preparatory work also mean that teachers may experience meditational transitions. Each type of transition "involves the propagation of knowledge and engages identities rather than the application or use of something that has been acquired elsewhere." Such a framing, "not only acknowledges the recursive relationship between persons and activities, but makes it the explicit object of study" (Beach, 2003, p. 47).

### **Practices, Setting, and Identities: Inextricable and Co-occurring**

To study learning in a way that accurately reflects its complexity, Greeno (2005) posits that multiple levels of analysis can co-occur simultaneously. He argues that these might include: the thinking process of an individual, the identities of an individual, the activities and practices engaged in by the individual, the ways in which the activity is supported and constrained by the settings of practice, and the relationships among all of these features. The intersecting and

complementary frameworks described here provide a structure for performing such a multi-layered analysis. In this study, I use them to answer this overarching question: “How do teachers’ Discourses, material and relational resources, and identities interact to mediate their learning in practice?” The following sub-questions guided data collection and analysis: 1) How are the sense-making processes of focal teachers mediated by the affordances and constraints of their settings? 2) How do teachers’ Discourses for teaching mediate teachers’ capacity to recognize and make use of affordances in the environment? 3) How do focal teachers “construct and reconstruct” (Beach, 2003) knowledge as they learn in service of their teaching practice and, simultaneously, learn as a result of reflective practice? 4) What is the relationship among focal teachers’ engagement with identity resources, practice-linked identities, and agency?

### **Organization of the Rest of the Dissertation**

Chapter Two provides an outline of the research design and analysis process that generated the findings of this dissertation. The chapter also includes descriptions of the CHS program, its conceptual framing, and its pedagogical tools. Chapter Two concludes with introductory portraits of the cases to serve as a backdrop for the findings and discussion included in the remaining chapters. Chapters Three, Four, and Five offer rich description the case participants and analyze teacher learning across several themes. Chapter Six situates the discussion of prior chapters theoretically and poses implications for practice and future research.

In Chapter Three, I describe and analyze focal teachers’ situated sense-making processes. In this chapter, I assert that teachers’ learning is influenced by their settings (the water they swim in), the affordances of those settings, and the capacities and tools they have at their disposal to make sense of new ideas. Thus, I use the concepts of the affordances of the environment and the effectivities of the individual to capture a dynamic, situated picture of teacher development at a

moment in time (Gee, 2008; Volet, 1999). In making sense of this dynamic in each focal teacher's case, I engage the concept of Discourses for the teaching of writing in understanding the relationships among settings, learning, and practice (Gee, 2015). Chapter Three explores the plurality of Discourses that make up teachers' "thinking, valuing, and behaving" in relation to writing pedagogy (Gee, 2015). The Discourses of interest to this study include teachers' existing frameworks for writing and writing instruction; cultures around teaching generally and teaching literacy and writing, specifically (including shared values and motivations); common instructional practices, and specialized language or ways of talking about writing and teaching. Just as Gee (2015) noted that socialization into a secondary Discourse shares much with second language acquisition, Chapter Three posits that CE teachers' acquisition of CHS Discourse(s) was mediated by their existing Discourses, including those present in their high school teaching settings. In some cases, when their "fluency" in the new secondary Discourse was lacking, they fell back on comfortable, established Discourses for teaching or writing. In other cases, teachers imported aspects of one Discourse to another, creating "pidgin" Discourses for teaching or writing. In all cases, as teachers became socialized into CHS Discourse(s), their many established Discourses for teaching writing proved a critical mediating influence on their sense-making processes. Further, Chapter Three's discussion of teachers' sense-making processes demonstrates *how* the dynamics among teachers' new and existing Discourses mediated their learning and practice. In particular, I trace two themes across cases: the influence of alignment among Discourses and the potential for disjuncture among Discourses to engender "productive friction" (Ward, Nolen, & Horn, 2011).

Chapter Four takes up Beach's (1999, 2003) conscious decision to discuss knowledge *propagation* rather than knowledge *transfer*. In Chapter Four, I argue that teachers did not

simply learn about the CHS course and its framing for writing instruction at university workshops and then import that knowledge into their settings. Rather, as teachers worked to implement new practices in their settings, they propagated – bred, grew, cultivated – knowledge that was new<sup>4</sup>. Consider the realm in which the word “propagate” is most readily associated – agriculture. When farmers plant crops, they spread seed from place to place, but the process of producing fruit from those plants is not so simple as transporting the seeds from their origin and tossing them into new dirt. The plants that grow, and the fruits that they bear, differ depending on the nutrients of the soil that feeds them, the method by which they were planted, the elements to which they are exposed, the nature of the support structures available to guide growth, and the actions the farmer takes to care for them. In this way, for CHS teachers, seeds of knowledge were sown in new settings, and they grew in different ways and grew to have different characteristics depending on the features of their settings of practice and the actions taken by individuals in their propagation. Ultimately, Chapter Three takes up the “big picture” discussion of teacher learning as situated within settings and mediated by Discourses, and Chapter Four “zooms in” to the local details of teachers’ learning in iterative cycles as situated within their day-to-day practice.

Chapter Five argues that focal teachers’ participation in the practice of CHS teaching came to, over time, shift their sense of who they were as a teacher (Nasir & Cooks, 2009). To investigate this, Chapter Five looks at how teachers did or did not develop professional identities

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<sup>4</sup> This research takes up the term knowledge propagation to discuss this new knowledge. The type of learning that is captured by this term is akin to “tool appropriation” as discussed in sociocultural teacher literature learning (e.g. Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999). While CE teachers’ learning undoubtedly involved tool appropriation, I use the term knowledge propagation here and elsewhere as it captures the dimension of CE teachers’ learning that takes place in the crossing of settings and the growth from the “ground” up. Further, I also discuss teachers’ “learning” and “sense-making processes.” Together, these terms capture complexity and nuance of teacher learning, while still remaining broad enough to talk across cases.

linked to “college level” teaching and the ways in which CE teachers came to understand themselves as being a new sort of teacher through teaching the CHS course. To do so, Chapter Five engages the concepts of figured worlds and self-authoring (Holland, et al., 1998) and their interactions within teachers’ sense-making processes. I argue that appropriation of new practices within their high school settings necessitated that their responses to figured worlds be met with “new answers” to questions of who they are and what they do, particularly when teachers’ “craft[ed] new answers” to dilemmas faced in day-to-day practice. Moreover, the ways in which people “answer to the world” and take up voices in the process of self-authoring, change as their figured worlds change (Holland et al., 1999). Chapter Five also engages Nasir and Cooks’ (2009) conceptualization of identity resources. Findings suggest that focal teachers’ interactions with identity resources over time accumulated “to form trajectories of identities” (Nasir & Cooks, 2009, p. 47). In this chapter, I also consider teachers’ positional identities (Holland et al., 1998) in their navigation of their roles within settings. Ultimately, Chapter Five argues that, for CE teachers, this sense of position was also related to how much agency they felt to interpret and adapt curriculum and instruction (cf., Greeno, 2005). Taken together, these concepts afford a rich analysis of developing CE teacher identity in and through practice.

Finally in Chapter Six, I return to Beach’s (1999, 2003) framework to consider each teacher’s experience of consequential transition holistically. I then situate the findings of this study in the context of their theoretical and practical implications. Building on these discussions, I propose six Design Principles for CE programs that aim to support teacher learning via cross-institutional partnerships.

## Chapter 2. STUDY DESIGN, ANALYSIS PROCEDURES, AND PORTRAITS OF CASE STUDY TEACHERS

This study posits that CE programs have more to offer than positive student outcomes. By looking at CE programs as potential sites for cross-institutional collaboration and meaningful professional development for CE teachers, this study aims to capture a rich description of CE teacher experiences as they navigate nested settings of practice and to offer insight into what, how, and why teachers learn from these experiences. To investigate both the experience of individuals and the settings in which they work and develop, I designed a qualitative case study to analyze and bring together these multiple, complex strands of inquiry (Merriam, 2009). With the findings of this investigation, this study seeks to contribute to the knowledge base for teacher learning in practice, composition pedagogies, around CE programs in particular, and K-12 university partnerships in general.

In the previous chapter, I noted that while research has investigated student outcomes of CE programs and while CE programs are generally viewed to be a positive experience for CE teachers, there is little empirical evidence of CE teachers' experience, learning, and development. My study offers such evidence. In this chapter, I explain the study design, sampling data collection procedures, coding and analysis, and the limitations of the study. I also offer initial portraits of the cases, including descriptions of the individuals, their settings, and their experiences and development in their first year teaching the course.

### **Study Design and Analysis**

I employed a qualitative case study design to follow three high school teachers new to teaching a CE composition course in collaboration with a large, four year, public university in the Pacific Northwest. Because my aim was to capture holistic human activity in meaningful, real life contexts, a qualitative case study was most appropriate (Merriam, 2009; Stake, 2005;

Yin, 2003). I followed teachers from August-June of a single school year, tracing their experience teaching the CE course for the first time – from their first orientation and training on the university campus to the culmination of their first year teaching the course. I observed on-campus university workshops and trainings, I observed each teacher’s classroom at five points stretched throughout the school year (for multiple days each session; a total of 10-15 total observations per teacher), and I observed department meetings and high school site professional development opportunities when possible to capture the role of the course in the larger context of the setting. I conducted interviews with each teacher in coordination with each observation and I interviewed others in the teacher’s school site critical to the teacher’s experience, including department heads and principals. Finally, I interviewed key university site collaborators including two faculty members central to the College in the High School (CHS) program<sup>5</sup> and three graduate student program “stewards” who acted as go-betweens between the university’s Expository Writing Program and CHS. (Table Two summarizes the study design.)

**Participants.** Participants in this study included new CE teachers in the CHS program, others in the CE teachers’ high school settings, other CE teachers in the CHS program, graduate student stewards to the CHS program, and university faculty associated with the CHS program. The university CHS program has operated for more than thirty years, partners with more than one hundred schools across the state, and offers courses in a wide array of disciplines including English, Computer Science, Math, Biology, and Psychology. The English Composition offerings in the CHS program are a collaboration between the university’s English department, specifically its expository writing program, and the CHS program.

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<sup>5</sup> Names of programs, schools, and participants are pseudonyms.

Because the CHS program has reached a wide variety of schools across diverse regions for a number of decades, I used purposive sampling to seek cases that represented a wide range of potential teacher experiences. I posited that key features of the setting, the length of the course offering in the school, and teachers' prior teaching experiences would be important variants among cases. As such, I selected cases that varied in the community and population of students, the institutional history of the CE course at the high school, and the focal teacher's teaching experience. These choices helped ensure a relatively representative sample of the types of schools and teacher served by the program, as well as affording me the opportunity to examine variation among teacher experiences.

Having identified these criteria, I approached faculty and staff members of the CHS program for approval and for support in coordinating participant recruitment. With their support, I began by contacting new CE teachers. I sent an initial email to teachers to introduce myself, to explain the project and the details of participation, to solicit any questions the teachers had about the projects, and to offer to set up an informal meeting to discuss the project further. Around the same time, I attended the first CHS on campus meeting (the summer orientation) and introduced myself and my study to the cohort of teachers. After receiving initial replies of interest from five teachers, I narrowed my selection to those that would afford me the greatest variety in setting and experience. Table One summarizes the cases; I provide detailed case portraits later in this chapter.

Table 1 <i>Details of Focal Cases</i>			
<b>Focal Teacher</b>	<b>Dr. Ryan</b>	<b>Ms. Ware</b>	<b>Mr. Alexander</b>
<b>Teaching Experience</b>	First year of high school teaching.  Prior to teaching high school, taught freshman level writing at a large, public four year university and later at a public two year college.	11 years of high school teaching.	23 years of junior high and high school ELA teaching.
<b>Training/Education</b>	PhD in Literature.	Trained as an elementary reading teacher, transitioned to teaching high school to meet needs of her district.	Traditional secondary ELA teacher education program training.
<b>School Size and Location</b>	Mid-size, suburban high school in a small school district.	Mid-sized rural high school in a small, rural district.	Large urban high school in a large urban district.
<b>Student Demographics</b>	75% white 11% Latino/a 5% Asian 5% identify as 2 or more races 2% Black 1% Native American <sup>6</sup>	85% Latino/a, 9 % Native American, 3% white	57% White 15% Black 12 % Asian/Pacific Islander 11% Latino/a 3% identify as 2 or more races 2 % Native American
<b>Free and Reduced Lunch</b>	22% qualify for free or reduced lunch	86% qualify for free or reduced lunch	34% qualify for free or reduced lunch
<b>IEP, 504, and ELL Services</b>	16 % of students have IEPs or 504s  1% receive ELL services.	15% of students have IEPs or 504  35% receive ELL services (16 % transitional bilingual; 19% migrant)	13% of students have IEPs or 504s  1% receive ELL services
<b>Graduation Rate</b>	90% graduation rate	95% graduation rate	85% graduation rate

<sup>6</sup> School demographic data comes from the State Education Agency (2014-2015)

**Data collection.** Data was collected from summer to the following spring of a single school year. At each stage of data collection, data was collected from multiple sources to triangulate findings. (Table Three summarizes the collection of data in relation to research questions and presents sample analysis questions.) The focal settings of this study were the university CHS setting and teachers' high school settings. To understand the complexity of each setting, multiple data points were used. For the university setting, these included: observations of on campus meetings with CHS teachers, collected artifacts from those meetings, focus groups with focal teachers after on-campus meetings, a group interview with graduate student CHS program stewards, and a group interview with university English Faculty associated with CHS. For the high school settings, data points included: classroom observations, teacher interviews, school site collaborator interviews, department meetings and high school site PD observations, and instructional as well as departmental artifacts. Below I describe data collection procedures in greater detail.

***On campus university observations.*** I observed all on campus CHS meetings and workshops, including a two-day summer orientation, a fall orientation for the second semester CE course, ENGL 112, and a spring workshop focused on assessment practices for portfolios based on the Course Outcomes. During observations, I audio recorded and took field notes on my laptop. During whole group interactions, I sat in the back of the room and typed notes quietly. During small group interactions, I floated among groups, making sure to spend some time with each focal teacher during the group activity. After introductions, CE teachers and CHS leaders proceeded as though I was not there.

In addition to field notes, I collected artifacts from these observations, primarily in the form of handouts used by CE teachers to support the day's activities. I was also granted access to

the CHS group's "sharepoint" webpage to view resources referenced in these meetings or by focal teachers in their planning. These artifacts enriched my understanding of the resources available to teachers and those that university stewards and faculty wished, specifically, to share with CE teachers.

Finally, after the fall and spring meetings (at the summer meeting, focal teacher selection was still in process), I met with the three focal teachers to briefly discuss their impressions of the meeting and capture their thoughts immediately following the PD opportunity. (Observation and interview protocols are included in Appendix A.)

***Group interviews with university stewards and faculty.*** To supplement my observations of the university settings, I also conducted interviews with key figures at the university supporting CHS. First, I met with the three graduate student stewards charged with acting as liaisons between the university's expository writing program and CHS teachers. In this interview, I asked questions aimed at uncovering the stewards' views about the purpose and goals of the program, the pedagogical orientation of the program, the efforts of the program to foster collaboration among and support of CE teachers, and their role in these efforts. (The group interview protocol is included in Appendix A.)

***High school site classroom observations.*** To see focal teachers practice within their high school setting and observe the development of their practice over time, I observed each focal teacher's classroom instruction at five key points throughout the school year. These points of interest included:

- early in the school year when the teacher is most confronted with new demands and practices;

- near the end of the first semester when the students will be compiling the course portfolio for the first time, as this process relies heavily on the university curricular model and course outcomes;
- early in the second semester as teachers transition to teaching English 112 and will be framing how the course will build on prior work and how it will differ;
- any time in the second semester that teachers will be supporting students in writing an academic argument as this skill is central to the curriculum;
- and near the end of the school year when students are compiling their second course portfolio.

This selection of data points allowed me to obtain a variety of data over time and it allowed me to observe instruction around key emphases in CHS instruction, namely: early year framing of the course, instruction in argument writing, and the compilation of the course portfolio.

Additionally, in an effort to capture a more complete picture of context and instruction during these times, I observed in each classroom two to three days in a row at each data point. During classroom observations, I observed and recorded field notes on my laptop computer. (A copy of my observation protocol is included in Appendix A.) Observations attended to the physical classroom environment, captured the content and flow of classroom instruction, periodically captured levels of student engagement, and paid special attention to notable moments of writing pedagogy. I also audio recorded classroom instruction to supplement data captured by field notes.

***Focal teacher interviews.*** In conjunction with each set of classroom observations, I conducted semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews with focal teachers. For all observations, this included pre- and post-observation interviews to get a sense of the place of the lesson in the

instructional sequence, the teacher's goals for the lesson, and the teacher's sense of how the lesson went. During the early year observation, I conducted a more thorough interview to gather background information on each teacher and to get a sense of their prior work with writing instruction, including the beliefs and practices about writing and writing pedagogies that they brought to the CE course work, and their initial impressions of the CE course and CHS program. In conjunction with the end of first semester observation, I conducted a follow up interview that tracked continuity and change in teachers' practices, principles, and knowledge. During the third and fourth observations, I conducted the pre- and post-observation interviews as well as asking targeted follow-up questions about teacher practice and knowledge based on what was observed. Finally, in the final observation at the end of second semester, I conducted a thorough final interview meant to act as a bookend to the initial interview with each teacher. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. (Interview protocols are included in Appendix A.)

*School site collaborator interviews.* To gather additional information on each focal teacher's practice, the context of each setting, and the role of the course in each setting I also conducted interviews with key others in the high school setting. (The school site collaborator interview protocol is included in Appendix A.) All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

I asked each focal teacher for referrals to people with whom they worked closely and/or who would have knowledge of the history and role of the course in the school. Dr. Ryan referred me to her department head, Lisa Holmes, whom I interviewed near the end of the school year. Neither Dr. Ryan nor Ms. Holmes thought there were others in the setting who could offer additional insight. Mr. Alexander suggested that I interview his school principal, Mr. Jonathan Murato. This interview was a key component of understanding the development of the course in

Mr. Alexander's setting. Mr. Alexander also recommended that I observe multiple department meetings and professional development workshops in his high school setting. More information about this is included in the next section. Ms. Ware did not offer any referrals for interviews in her school site, but did recommend that I attend a department meeting for observation.

*Department meeting and high school PD observations.* Both Mr. Alexander and Ms. Ware headed the English Departments at their schools. Both recommended that I observe department meetings to learn more about their contexts. In Ms. Ware's site, I observed a department meeting in January in which the members of her department were in the process of developing a department Vision and Mission Statement as a part of a district initiative toward purpose and alignment. In Mr. Alexander's site, I observed a January professional development workshop to which Mr. Alexander had invited all three of the CHS graduate student stewards to lead his department in a workshop about the CHS way of teaching writing. I also observed a follow up department meeting in March, in which Mr. Alexander and members of his department continued their professional development around CHS practices in a movement toward vertical alignment. During these meetings I sat unobtrusively in the back of the classroom and recorded field notes on my laptop. (Observation protocols are included in Appendix A.)

	August 2014	September – October 2014	November – December 2014	January – February 2015	March – May 2015	June 2015	
<b>School Site Data collection</b>		Early School Year Observation	Portfolio Development Observation	ENGL 112 Framing Observation	Argument Paper Development Observation	Portfolio Development Observation	
	<i>2-3 consecutive days of instruction were observed for each teacher at each data point.</i>						
	<i>Throughout the school year, I also observed departmental or PLC meetings and workshops when possible. I observed one meeting of Ms. Ware’s entire department, along with multiple informal lunchtime conversations. I also observed two departmental workshops in Mr. Alexander’s site and one PLC meeting. Departmental observations were not possible in Dr. Ryan’s site.</i>						
		Initial Focal Teacher Interview	Follow Up Focal Teacher Interview	Pre-Post Observation Focal Teacher Interview	Pre-Post Observation Focal Teacher Interview	Final Focal Teacher Interview	
	<i>One main interview was conducted with each teacher at each data point. In each case, the Initial Interview was completed in two sittings on consecutive days of observation.</i>						
			School Site Collaborator Interview(s)				
			<i>School Site Collaborator Interviews were conducted with Dr. Ryan’s department head and Mr. Alexander’s principal. A school site collaborator interview was not possible in Ms. Ware’s site.</i>				
<b>University Data collection</b>	ENGL 110 Orientation Observation	ENGL 112 Orientation Observation		University-Based Collaborator Interview:	Portfolio Norming Session Observation		

		Post-PD Focal Teacher Focus Group		Graduate Student Steward Group Interview	Follow-up Post-PD Focal Teacher Focus Group	
					University Based Collaborator Interview: CHS Faculty Group Interview	

**High school site document and artifact collection.** During classroom observations and department meeting observations, I also collected documents and artifacts that were used in instruction or to support group work. Additionally, I asked each focal teacher for copies of all assignments and any key scaffolding materials from their CE courses. These artifacts supplemented insights garnered in observations and interviews and afforded opportunities for triangulation of findings.

**Data Analysis.** Spanning an eleven-month period, this research tracks multiple data sources over time. Table Three, below, shows the central research question and its sub-questions, their corresponding data points, and sample analysis questions.

Table 3		
<i>Matrix of research questions, data sources, and analysis questions</i>		
<b>RESEARCH QUESTION:</b> “How do teachers’ Discourses, material and relational resources, and identities interact to mediate their learning in practice?”		
<b>SUB-QUESTIONS:</b>	<b>Data Sources</b>	<b>Sample Analysis Questions</b>
a) How are the sense-making processes of focal teachers mediated by the affordances and constraints of their settings?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Field notes and transcriptions of classroom observations.</li> <li>Field notes and transcriptions of university meetings and workshops.</li> <li>Transcriptions of audio-recorded interviews with</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What is the nature of teachers’ school and departmental contexts? What structures, features, or individuals support or constrain them in their implementation of new practices?</li> </ul>

	<p>teachers and school site collaborators.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transcriptions of audio-recorded interviews with university collaborators.</li> <li>• Analysis of documents and artifacts.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What are the unique needs of students in this context? How does the teacher respond to these needs?</li> <li>• What factors characterize the relationship between CE teachers and the university?</li> <li>• How are both (CE teachers and the university program) influenced, encouraged, challenged, and/or transformed by this relationship?</li> <li>• What are the affordances and constraints for teacher learning of their school contexts and student populations? Of the teacher's prior experience, roles, dispositions, sense of self, and positioning? Of the teacher/university program steward dyads? Of their relationships/interactions with others members of the CE/university community?</li> </ul>
<p>b) How do teachers' Discourses for teaching mediate teachers' capacity to recognize and make use of affordances in the environment?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Field notes and transcriptions of classroom observations.</li> <li>• Field notes and transcriptions of university meetings and workshops.</li> <li>• Transcriptions of audio-recorded interviews with focal teachers, school site collaborators, and university collaborators.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What values and/or motivations does the teacher bring to CE teaching practice? How do these values influence their interaction with CE curricula and practices?</li> <li>• What "frames of meaning" do CE teachers bring to their work? How do these frames of meaning influence how they interpret and take up ideas?</li> <li>• How do teachers transition within and among settings?</li> <li>• How has the community of practice responded to their environment? What goals and tools do they share?</li> </ul>
<p>c) How do focal teachers "construct and reconstruct" (Beach, 2003) knowledge as they learn in service of their teaching practice and, simultaneously, learn as a result of reflective practice?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Field notes and transcriptions of classroom observations.</li> <li>• Field notes and transcriptions of university meetings and workshops.</li> <li>• Transcriptions of audio-recorded interviews with focal teachers, school site collaborators, and university collaborators.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does the CE course offer teachers opportunities to "[acquire] new knowledge, [re-craft] identities, and [challenge] existing cultural and social practices" (Battey &amp; Franke, 2008)?</li> <li>• How does their navigation across settings impact their instructional practices? (Use of tools? Collaboration with colleagues? Responsiveness to students?)</li> <li>• How do teachers' describe their</li> </ul>

		<p>prior instructional practices and approaches to teaching writing?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What does teachers' instruction look like in their CE courses?</li> <li>• How do teachers use resources (Course Outcomes, Course Textbook, Other Resources)? How does their use of tools change over time?</li> <li>• How does teacher practice change over time? How is it "shaped" or "added to"? How is this related to their experiences enacting the course?</li> <li>• To what extent are they operating within a context of activity that is itself changing?</li> </ul>
<p>d) What is the relationship among focal teachers' engagement with identity resources, practice-linked identities, and agency?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Field notes and transcriptions of classroom observations.</li> <li>• Field notes and transcriptions of university meetings and workshops.</li> <li>• Transcriptions of audio-recorded interviews with focal teachers.</li> <li>• Transcriptions of audio-recorded interviews with teachers and school site collaborators.</li> <li>• Transcriptions of audio-recorded interviews with university collaborators.</li> <li>• Analysis of documents and artifacts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What identities are available for CE teachers in their CHS practice?</li> <li>• How does teaching the CE course change patterns of interaction, responsibilities, entitlements, and agency of CE teachers? What features of this support learning?</li> <li>• What instances of self-authoring can be observed? What does this self-authoring reveal?</li> <li>• How are teachers positioned by their work in different settings? How do teachers position themselves in relation to the work and to the university?</li> <li>• How much agency are teachers' afforded within and among settings?</li> </ul>

***Post-Observation and Interview Memos.*** Shortly following each observation and/or interview, I returned to my field notes to add short memos capturing initial thoughts and reactions, and tracking themes developing over time both within and across cases. Areas I tracked included: 1) focal teachers' use of university tools and resources, including the course outcomes and course structure; 2) focal emphases of writing instruction, e.g. argumentation, surface level concerns, or metacognition to support the writing process; 3) the nature of focal

teachers' settings and any observable impact on practice; and 4) evidence focal teachers' sense of self (i.e., professional identity) in interviews and/or instruction.

**Coding.** I derived an initial coding scheme for data analysis from details of the CHS course structure and framing, this study's theoretical framework and literature on cross-institutional partnerships, writing instruction, and teacher learning (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). These initial codes informed data analysis by laying bare themes and patterns in instructional practice and discourse, by identifying key features of each focal teacher's setting, by illuminating teachers' navigation of roles and expectations within and across settings, and by tracing teachers' learning and identity work over time. For example, I used the code family "Curriculum Emphases" to trace what areas of emphasis occurred in each teacher's writing instruction. Codes identifying particular emphases were drawn from the CHS's course outcomes and the literature on composition and writing pedagogies.

<b>Settings (S)</b>		<b>Practice (P)</b>		<b>Identity (I)</b>		<b>Learning (L)</b>
Setting: High School	HS: Students HS: Department HS: School Culture	Planning	P: Response to students P: Trajectory P: Use of Resources P: Uncertainty	Positioning	Role: HS teacher Role: University instructor Role: Leadership	Explicit mention of teacher learning (EL)
Setting: University	U: People U: Resources U: PD	Curriculum	C: Emphases C: Alignment	Motivation	M: Goal of Activity M: Value	
		Instructional Resources	IR: Outcomes IR: Course textbook	Agency		

Subsequent coding created “pattern codes” that chunked data to map out patterns in the data both within and across cases (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). In one such instance, while all teachers spoke to the influence of their students on their teaching practice, Ms. Ware’s talk around student relationships took on a distinctly personal tone. To track instances of this in her data and in other cases, I added the code “Students: Personal Relationships” to differentiate these more personal narratives from other mentions of student influence. A refined list of codes was used to analyze data in *Atlas.ti*. This multi-tiered approach allowed analysis to be at once informed by literature *and* “capture novel findings [in] the data” (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 541). In the coded interview excerpt in Figure One, Dr. Ryan discussed her understanding of the course framing, as the university had communicated it, and her work to implement that framing in her high school setting. Because Dr. Ryan discussed her use of the course framing to plan her high school instruction, the code “Planning tools: Course Structure/Framing” is used. Moreover, because she said “I’m still figuring out...”, the code “Planning: Uncertainty” adds to the description of the segment. Furthermore, because she was describing her attempt to make sense of a construct from the university’s college composition course in her high school setting, the code “Settings: Navigation” is applied. Finally, because she was actively reflecting on her own development, the segment is coded as pertaining to “Teacher Learning.”

Dr. Ryan: I think I'm okay with the framing, I think I'm still figuring out the application. I think I understand better everything that comes down from the university, just actually applying it in this setting is a whole other thing. I can totally see how to apply it in a college classroom, like, “Yeah, I could do that,” but doing it here is harder.

Planning tools: Course Structure/Framing  
 Planning: Uncertainty  
 Settings: Navigation  
 Teacher Learning

Figure 1. Example Coding

***Memoing.*** Throughout the analysis process, I wrote analytic memos to capture relationships in the data (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). Early memos allowed me to distill large amounts of interview and observation data into early, descriptive patterns and themes. As analysis progressed, I wrote memos in service of answering my analysis questions (as in Table Three, above) as well as memos in which I put my descriptive observations across data sources into conversation with key theoretical constructs, such as identities in practice (Holland et al., 1998; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Lave, 1996; Varghese et al., 2005; Wenger, 1998) and consequential transitions (Beach, 1999; 2003). For instance, for each focal teacher I wrote a memo analyzing the ways in which he or she talked about his or her professional identity and the ways in which this changed over time with experience teaching the CE course. These within-case memos served as the starting point for cross case memos tracing key ideas across cases and settings.

***Data displays.*** With nearly a year's worth of interviews and observations, the size of my data set proved challenging to analyze, identify patterns, and trace themes. As such, I turned to visual representations to push my thinking around within and cross case patterns and themes at various points throughout the analysis and memoing process. For instance, having coded all of Ms. Ware's observations and interviews and written a corresponding descriptive memo to distill important points, I transferred these points onto post-it notes coded by data source and arranged them visually such that patterns could be seen developing over time. One such visual representation is displayed in Figure Two, below. It shows details of Ms. Ware's self-described learning process and allowed me to trace her learning and development and to posit some initial themes, which I could then triangulate with additional data sources and return to in future analytic memos. This recursive process of analysis, memoing, and visual representations of data

allowed for a detailed and complex rendering of data, a rich description (Geertz, 1973) of teacher development and experience, and a thoughtful development of patterns, themes, and claims.

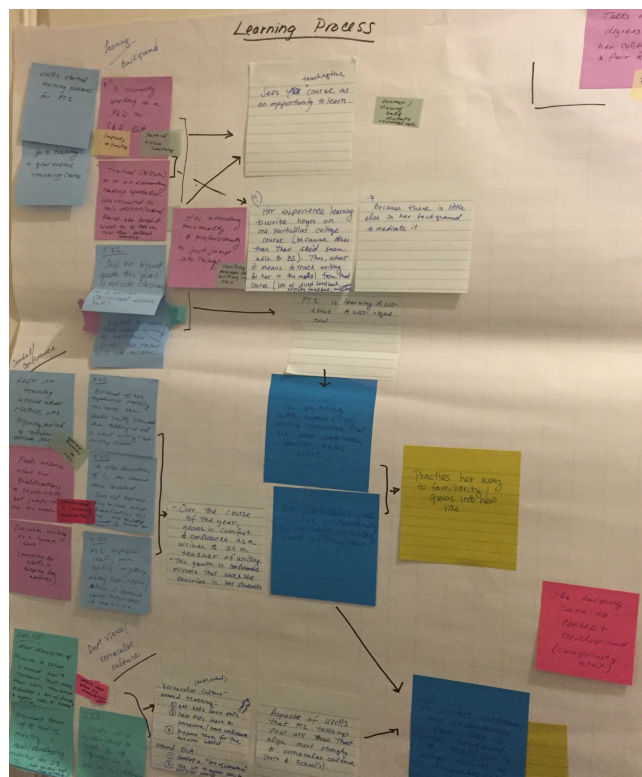


Figure 2. Example Data Display

**Limitations.** As with all studies, the research methodology of this study has some limitations. Firstly, this study was limited due to time and geographic constraints. In response to practical realities and placing a boundary on the terrain of a single dissertation, I was only able to investigate the experiences of teachers in a single CE program. One potential complicating factor with studying this program was my previous experience teaching for this CHS program. Seven years prior to this study, I taught the CHS composition course affiliated with this CE program at an area high school. Previous experience afforded me familiarity with the course structure and framing and with a few individuals associated with the program and this familiarity had the potential to influence my perspective as a researcher, though a number of years' distance

facilitated my ability to look at collected data with fresh eyes. To further this endeavor, I rooted my data analysis in the interview and observation data. Further, I continually interrogated my position as a researcher with the aim of letting focal teachers and their experiences speak for themselves.

Additionally, because all data is tied to a single CE program, I was unable to study the impacts of variation in CE program administration, understood purpose, and professional development opportunities. Furthermore, working with a single program meant that I would be drawing participants from a small pool of new and willing teachers. Fortuitously, I was able to choose three teachers (from a group of five who were willing to participate) who represented the diversity of high school settings in the state in which the CHS program partnered and who represented a diversity of prior teaching experiences. These teachers did not represent racial or socioeconomic diversity as all were white, middle class individuals. This is, however, representative of demographics in the teaching force statewide, where roughly 93% of all secondary teachers are white (Central Washington University, 2014). This study is also limited by time. Following focal teachers for another year or more would have provided the opportunity to see how learning processes continued to develop as teachers grew more and more comfortable with the curriculum.

I also experienced barriers in gaining access to others in focal teachers' schools. I relied on focal teacher recommendations for others who were important to the delivery of their course in the school setting. While this yielded two important interviews (as described above), my efforts to reach out to others in teachers' school settings were met with non-response. While the two interviews that were arranged afforded a backdrop to my investigation of the central research questions of this study, these interviews were not essential to answering the research questions.

Finally, while I analyze the development of teachers' instructional practices and their learning over time, I did not collect data on student achievement outcomes. While improved understanding of the course curriculum and development of teaching practices would presumably lead to improved student work, I am unable to draw these connection based on my data collection in this study.

## **Conclusion**

This study endeavored to capture the experiences of teachers participating in an existing cross-institutional collaboration that likely facilitates “teachers transform[ing] complex knowledge and skills into powerful teaching practices” (Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 134). The process by which this unfolds for CE teachers and what influence it has on their teaching practices is not well understood. Though the study is limited by the concerns addressed above, the design and methodology are well-suited to answer its research questions. By studying teachers who work and learn in multiple settings, are influenced by multiple actors, and who navigate a pedagogical world shaped by various conceptions of writing instruction and of teaching and learning more generally, this research adds to existing research and scholarly work on teacher learning as well as on composition/writing pedagogies.

### **Study Participants: Overview of the CHS program and Portraits of the Cases**

The remainder of this chapter is a descriptive backdrop for the following chapters in which I present cross case analysis. I begin with a description of the CHS program practicalities, structure, goals, and framing. I then present a portrait of each case teacher – who he or she is, the features of his or her setting, and a picture of his or her “moment in time” during the school year under study. In Chapters Three through Six, I will build on this backdrop to analyze how

teachers' settings, identities, and practices interacted in the course of a year of consequential transitions (Beach, 1999; 2003).

### **The CHS Program**

As briefly explained above, the CHS program under study in this research is a National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships (NACEP) accredited CE program with a thirty year history at the university in partnership with more than one hundred high school partners across the state. The CHS program has multiple offerings across disciplines in the Arts and Sciences; this study investigates teacher learning among new teachers to the English Composition offerings in the CHS program, English 110 and English 112. ENGL 110 and ENGL 112 are offerings of the English Department's Expository Writing Program on campus. ENGL 110 is a survey in expository writing that focuses reading, writing, and discussion on non-fiction texts; ENGL 112 is also a survey in expository writing, however it focuses reading, writing, and discussion on literary texts. University students on campus take one of the two courses to satisfy their 5-credit composition requirement for graduation. When offered as a CE course in high school settings, the courses are typically taught back to back, ENGL 110 during the first high school semester and ENGL 112 in the second. For each course, what university students do in the 10-week quarter, CHS students do in an 18-week semester. Students in the CE courses have the option to register and pay for university credit, but they can also complete the course for high school credit only. Those who do register for, pay for, and earn university credits earn ten composition credits that transfer to the majority of four-year schools nation wide.

When ENGL 110 and ENGL 112 are taught as CE courses, they follow the course curriculum structure used by all on-campus university instructors. That is, CE teachers share a set of learning outcomes and a basic course structure – two assignment “sequences” each

including 3-4 short (2-3 page) papers and one long (5-8 page) paper and a culminating portfolio that requires students to revise half of their work and to reflect on their learning with each other and with instructors who teach the courses on campus. Most CHS courses use the same textbook as the expository writing courses on campus. Outside of the shared outcomes, structure, and textbook, teachers are given autonomy over day-to-day instruction, curriculum, and pedagogical decisions.

The course outcomes (included in Appendix B) act as conceptual tools framing the purpose and goals of the CHS course. These tools are a link to the composition instruction on campus. The course outcomes for this particular course were derived from the Writing Program Administrators (WPA) Outcomes Statement, which is the result of an effort among college and university writing programs across the country to distill “what composition teachers nationwide have learned from practice, research, and theory” into a statement of student outcomes for composition courses, such as ENGL 110 and ENGL 112. The WPA outcomes emphasize four primary areas of composition instruction: 1) Rhetorical Knowledge; 2) Critical Thinking, Reading, and Composing; 3) Processes; and 4) Knowledge of Conventions (WPA). The course outcomes for the expository writing program of the university under study, including the CHS course, share the bulk of the WPA outcomes (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014). They are, however, slightly distinct in their emphases. The CHS program outcomes emphasize: 1) Rhetorical Awareness; 2) Critical Reading; 3) Academic Argumentation; and 4) Strategies for Revising, Editing, and Proofreading. The Outcome document (included in Appendix B), is the primary conceptual tool for the framing of the EWP/CHS way of teaching writing upon which teachers can build their conceptual understanding and the details of their curricula. With these outcomes at the center, the university’s EWP also developed its own

textbook to support the composition pedagogies build on the foundation of the expository course outcomes. Dr. Chapman, incoming CHS faculty coordinator, described the course outcomes as very important:

The outcomes are really important, and [they allow] students to learn to think strategically and develop habits of mind, and learn strategies and tools that they can transfer to different situations, because [they give students] a set of questions they can ask and think about, and interrogate their own work. So I think it's both the specifics of what we might be asking them to do and reflect on, and then how that pedagogy helps them learn to think about themselves as writers and learners, and transfer that. I would say that is really similar—and needs to be similar—in both settings.

To support their planning and teaching, CHS teachers had access to the university's textbook and an online resource bank. Further, they came to campus in June for an introduction to the CHS program overall (practical, rather than curricular, training), returned for a two-day ENGL 110 curricular training and orientation in August, an ENGL 112 training in October, and a “portfolio norming” session in March. The two-day training in August provided new teachers a detailed introduction to the outcomes and the course structure, provided opportunities to plan for their upcoming courses using the outcomes and course textbook, and offered collaborative opportunities with other CE teachers across the state. The following training in October, built on the introduction to the course tools in August, and asked teachers to make sense of teaching with the outcomes in ENGL 112, a literature course. Providing additional support and gathering an understanding of the high school contexts served by the program, graduate student stewards from the university English department visit classrooms 1-2 times per year and are often the CE teacher's primary contact within the university. One of the graduate student stewards, Simone, described working with CHS teachers in the workshops and in the field as a unique opportunity. She says, “[they are] people who are already experts in what they're doing, and to be able to explain the roles, or the outcomes or the program, all those aspects to [EWP], and to be able to

explain that and work with people who already have a pretty good sense of how they might want to do it already.... is really cool.”

During the year under study, the CHS program was in a process of administrative change. In its thirty-year history, the involvement of faculty had been somewhat limited. The director of the EWP would serve as a faculty contact point for the CHS program and would traditionally give a brief talk at orientations and trainings, however, the bulk of the work on the “university side” of CHS was done by the graduate student stewards. Since graduate students’ tenure is necessarily time-limited and since there had been requests for more faculty support from CHS teachers, the English department had recently decided to dedicate a faculty coordinator for CHS. The faculty member chosen for this role, Dr. Joyce Chapman, shadowed Dr. Sark (the director of EWP) and the stewards during this year to observe and learn the workings of the program. Dr. Sark was pleased as he says Dr. Chapman, in just a few months had already started to suggest innovations to the program. He said, “...with this move, the program has gone from being a way of insuring articulation and accreditation—which is a [steward’s] job, primarily, ...to being a partnership, faculty development, learning communities type of thing. Which [was] not what [it had been] designed to do, [in the past], but I think that's what's happening.” Dr. Sark added that prior to this move, “not much had changed” over the course of thirty years, besides an increase in the number of courses offered by the program.

### **Focal Teachers: Portraits of the Cases.**

#### ***Dr. Ryan.***

*“Writing has always been a part of my life.”*

Dr. Ryan came to CE teaching via a different route than is typical. Dr. Ryan earned her PhD in 19<sup>th</sup> Century American Literature from the State University; as she worked toward her PhD, she taught English courses to undergraduates including composition. After she graduated, she got a job at a university in the American South as Assistant Professor of English, where she taught mostly composition courses. When family concerns necessitated that she move back “closer to home,” she taught composition courses at a local two-year college.

While Dr. Ryan enjoyed teaching at the college level, she had recently made the transition to teaching at the high school level. Her decision to teach high school was born out of realizations that arose from her most recent position. Teaching composition at a local community college, a large number of her students were high school students enrolled via Running Start. She noticed that these students, and others, were unprepared for college writing both in terms of their writing ability and their ability to take their writing through a drafting process. Further, they struggled with, as she put it, “being a college student.” Seeing these struggles persistently across her college teaching experiences caused her to think deeply about what it takes for students to be successful in college:

...there's this whole other side of being a college student that they're not prepared for: being to class on time, turning your work in on time, just taking things seriously, talking to your professor during office hours if you have a question. Just being proactive.

Over time, she began to feel that, rather than observe the problem and regret its impacts on her college teaching, she might be able to do something to interrupt the cycle. Her efforts to make a difference in the college setting were frustrated by a number of factors, especially the short instructional time frame. As she puts it: “So you have a group of students, and it's ten weeks, and you're just starting to get to know them, and then they're gone.” For these reasons, Dr. Ryan thought she could have a greater impact by teaching in a high school setting.

Upon accepting a position at a local high school, Dr. Ryan was asked to teach the CHS course given a recent vacancy in the position and the alignment of her college teaching experience. Fortuitously, Dr. Ryan felt that the CHS program's approach to writing was similar to her prior experience. She was familiar with and preferred a portfolio-based course and, she noted, the course outcomes reflected her own thinking about what matters in writing.

In addition to her experience and her particular affinity for the structure and framing of the CHS course, Dr. Ryan also expressed a long-standing identity as a writer and a writing teacher, stating:

I've always been a writing teacher, so I think [writing is] extraordinarily important.

Writing [has featured prominently] in my own life. My dad is a writer [...], so that's just what we did..... I was excited to write a big, long dissertation.

In reflecting on her experience, she noted that her experiences and views are very different from what she's observed in students. "They see writing as such a chore, and they don't understand how it connects to everything else, and why it's important."

Given her prior experience, Dr. Ryan felt prepared to deliver a college composition curriculum. A hurdle she did not anticipate was the impact of her very sparse amount of experience teaching in a high school setting. Given her PhD, to transition to teaching high school required only a teaching certificate, rather than either a BA or MA, so the her teacher education program waived a number of their requirements for her. The result of this was that she was only in a high school setting for a quarter of full time student teaching. As the year progressed, Dr. Ryan increasingly expressed feeling the "gaps" of her preparation for teaching in secondary settings.

***Dr. Ryan's high school setting.*** Dr. Ryan worked to bridge these gaps teaching at a mid-size, suburban high school in a small school district located about 40 miles north of a major

urban center in the Pacific Northwest where 75 percent of students are white. Still learning the ropes, Dr. Ryan said that she was not really sure what issues of equity and access exist for students in her high school setting, but had not heard other teachers talk about much in the way of concerns.

*The institutional history of the CHS course.* The CHS course had a long history at the school. For more than a decade, a single “rock star” teacher had taught the CHS course; he retired one year before Dr. Ryan came on staff. After he retired, another teacher taught the CHS course for a year before leaving to go into administration. Dr. Ryan was hired late in the hiring cycle and thought to be a perfect fit to fill the vacancy given her experience. Dr. Ryan was able to rely on some of the former teachers’ materials to begin her planning processes and picked up the program that had been built prior to her arrival.

*The nature of the English department.* Dr. Ryan described her department as open and collaborative. Dr. Ryan, as a new teacher, was still learning the department and how it worked. She participated in collaborative planning meetings where the emphasis is on aligned assessments. Ms. Holmes, the head of Dr. Ryan’s English department described her as well liked and respected among the group, which included a total of five new teachers that school year. As far as Dr. Ryan had been able to gather, the department’s primary focus in writing instruction was a single argumentative construct: CSE – Claim, Support, Explain. The primary focus in reading was, she said, on close reading through annotation.

*Students in the CHS class.* As noted in Table One and above, there was a significant majority of white students at Dr. Ryan’s school. This trend held up in her CHS course. The make up of students in the CHS course was also influenced by the institutional history of the course and by district policies for tracking. Dr. Ryan described her students as bright and motivated.

However, both she and Ms. Holmes describe the impact of district's tracking policy, which was that students were tracked into Honors classes before they began middle school. Furthermore, the long-standing prior teacher of the CHS course had instituted strict requirements to "get into" the CHS course, meaning only the "best of the best" students in the school took the course. "Honors" students who did not "get into" the CHS course took the AP Literature and Composition course their senior year and other seniors choose from a menu of English elective options (including a creative writing course also taught by Dr. Ryan). The net result of this policy, since the district is a small one (one middle school and one high school), was that the students in Dr. Ryan's CHS course had all been in classes with one another for many years and were a comfortable tight-knit group. Dr. Ryan saw this as a benefit because her students knew each other well and trusted one another. She admitted, however, that their familiarity became problematic at times as they had a tendency to chat and get off track. Moreover, as a cohort of sorts, they had developed some shared feelings about particular teaching practices, including text annotation and seminar discussions, based on the classes they have all shared with one another. On more than one occasion, this led to Dr. Ryan meeting with resistance from the group of students when she introduced these practices and meant that she had to do some re-training of students' perceptions and expectations.

*Access to resources.* Dr. Ryan's setting afforded ample access to resources, in particular students' access to the course textbook and easy and consistent access to laptop computers. Firstly, while in the university setting students would be expected to buy the required course textbook, CE student access to the textbook is dependent on policies and conditions in the high school setting. In Dr. Ryan's setting, students were asked to purchase the textbook as though it were a college course. All of her students were able to do so and, thus, all of her students had

copies of the textbook for use during classroom instruction *and* for homework. This meant that: a) there were always enough copies of the text in the setting; b) they students could write in the text, take it home, etc.; and c) that Dr. Ryan could reasonably rely on it to guide HW and instruction. This made the textbook a valuable tool for Dr. Ryan in both her planning and her instruction.

Furthermore, in class, students had easy access to laptop computers. In Dr. Ryan's room, there was one laptop computer for every student desk. Students had a district log-on that granted them access to computers, a drive to save and store their documents, and a shared drive that facilitated collaborative work. Dr. Ryan was also able to share documents, including homework assignments, in class writing prompts, and structural tools, with students via the shared drive which they could then use in class and have access to from home. As far as Dr. Ryan knew, there were no students for whom home computer or internet access was a problem. Dr. Ryan recognized access to technology as a significant advantage for her teaching and liked that it reflected what students encounter in modern universities. She noted that students could collaborate easily and that she could easily share documents with students, but regretted from the beginning of the year that her students got distracted on laptop computers easily. In spite of this, Dr. Ryan remained committed to integrating technology because she learning and composing with technology as a component of an authentic college experience.

***The moment in time: Dr. Ryan's school year.*** The school year under study was an important one for Dr. Ryan. Not only as she teaching a new course in the CHS course, but she was making a significant career move in moving from teaching at the college level to teaching high school. Because this move was one that she had made deliberately and had given much thought, it motivated her to make a difference in the lives of her students and their college

preparedness. Since it was her first year teaching high school, however, Dr. Ryan was faced with some additional challenges. Namely, she needed to not only learn the realities of teaching high school in general, but also the particulars of her specific context. This proved to be more of a challenge for her than she originally anticipated. Notably, the two struggles she talked about the most – how to grade in a high school context (particularly when CHS students receive a high school grade and a university grade) and not knowing how long particular activities or instructional sequences will take and being surprised by interruptions to the schedule – were closely related to the short amount of time she had spent working in high school contexts and with high school students.

**Ms. Ware.**

*“My plan was to stay here for two years and then find a first grade position somewhere else. But I fell in love with the kids and I fell in love with the curriculum because that's where my heart is...in reading and that's where my expertise lays.”*

As indicated by the quote above, while Ms. Ware had been teaching high school for eleven years, she had been trained as an elementary reading specialist during her undergraduate degree at a small public university. After graduation, she was offered a job at her current high school (a remote, rural school) by a district official, who thought her reading expertise would make her a good candidate to develop a reading program at the high school (something that had been identified by the district as a need). Once at the high school level, she was asked to teach ELA as well. Ms. Ware was not confident in her ability to do so, but found that she loved it and so jumped in. A few years into working as a high school ELA teacher, Ms. Ware earned her Masters in English as part of the first class of a small, newly opened, private liberal arts university in her rural town. After she finished her degree, she was asked by her mentor there to teach a course in literature and later one in linguistics. She was not sure how it would go, but she

figured she would learn a lot along the way. These experiences are examples of what she described as a tendency “to just jump into things and learn how to do them along the way.” The CHS class followed a similar course. When the teacher who had been teaching the course for a number of years wanted to transition out of the course leading up to retirement, Ms. Ware wanted to take on the challenge, though she once again felt she had a lot to learn.

When asked about how she learned to write, Ms. Ware described getting by with pretty good writing skills through high school and most of college. Eventually, she had a course in which the goal was to write a single research paper. The professor read multiple drafts, questioned everything, and gave detailed feedback, especially at the sentence level. She felt it prepared her well for what was to come –until she began preparing to teach the CHS course. Ms. Ware realized at the outset of her experience teaching CHS that there was much she did not know about teaching writing, but was excited and saw teaching the CHS course as an opportunity to learn. In fact, she described herself as “going on a bender” with writing and writing pedagogy books in the summer leading up to her first year teaching the CHS course.

***Ms. Ware’s high school setting.*** Ms. Ware taught in a setting that is remote and unique. Her school is in a small, relatively isolated, rural community of only 9,000 residents. Most of the residents of the town are low income and, though the whole town is situated within the boundaries of an American Indian reservation, 81% of its residents are Latino/a. Because she felt her setting to be unique, Ms. Ware described feeling “on her own” in the CHS community.

***Ms. Ware’s students.*** The student population school-wide was predominantly Latino/a and a significant majority qualified for free or reduced lunch (full demographic information included in Table One, above). More than a third of students received ELL services, though Ms. Ware and her colleagues thought that many more students needed language support above and

beyond those who qualified for services. She said, “They all do have—no matter how advanced they are—they all have some level of language issues. They're more generation 1.5, so they have a hard time with Standard English.” Students in Ms. Ware’s CHS course were, but for one Native American student, 100% Latino/a. Ms. Ware described the group as “eclectic,” and “lively;” as “incredibly hard workers,” “very socially conscious,” and as having “amazing hearts.”

*The institutional history of the CHS course.* Ms. Ware was not entirely sure how long the CHS course had been a curricular option at her school, but knew that it has been present for all of her eleven years there and that in that time, it had been taught by a single teacher. This teacher was nearing retirement and wanted to make sure the course was “in good hands” prior to her departure. Traditionally, the CHS course had been the culminating course in the school’s “Honors track” and was the only option for earning college English credit in the school. In its history at the school, students in the CHS course had been the “top students” and only students who had tested into the Honors track in the eighth grade were allowed to register for the course as seniors. When she took over the course, however, Ms. Ware decided to let in students who had not been in Honors if they had a conversation with her first in which she laid out the rigor and demands of the course and made sure they understood how hard they would need to work. She says she made this decision because when she was in high school a teacher “took a chance” on her as well, and rising to that occasion was a very powerful and formative experience.

The school district superintendent adamantly supported the CHS class because it offers college level rigor and credit that will transfer. To facilitate students’ opportunity to take advantage of the course, the school district paid a bit more than half of the tuition cost – which Ms. Ware says was a huge help, but did not fully mitigate the barrier of the cost for students. In

general, Ms. Ware felt very supported by her school, administration, and school district. Because of this, she may ask for funding for university textbooks next year.

*Ms. Ware's English department.* Ms. Ware was department head of a group of seven teachers. Five of these seven were quite close and ate lunch together daily, chatting about their classes, grading, how the CHS class was going for Ms. Ware, their students (including worries about undocumented students and parents who were under threat of deportation), and their personal lives. At the end of the year, Ms. Ware thought expanding some of the CHS practices toward vertical alignment among the grades would be a good idea. She thought it might be easier, however, to wait for the two teachers who were “resistant to change” to retire.

*Access to resources.* In contrast to Dr. Ryan's setting, limited access to key resources placed constraints on Ms. Ware's planning and instructional practice. Firstly, while Ms. Ware had a copy of the CHS textbook provided by the CHS program, her students were unable to purchase their own copies and the school had not yet allocated funds to purchase a class set. Consequently, Ms. Ware's students did not have access to the course text. Thus, while Ms. Ware used the textbook as an initial learning tool for herself and copied one or two sections she found particularly key to give out to students, the textbook does not end up featuring prominently in either Ms. Ware's planning or her instructional practice

Additionally, access to computers was limited in Ms. Ware's school site. In the whole school, there were two computer labs and one additional “space with computers” in the library. One of the two labs was located quite far from Ms. Ware's classroom, so she did not consider it an option given the amount of time that traveling there (and getting logged in and set up for work) would take out of her class period, which was already interrupted by lunch (her students

had “second lunch” during a fourth period that hosted three lunches). These practical realities meant that access to computers to support instruction and student work was inconsistent.

***The moment in time: Ms. Ware’s school year.*** There were several features that made this particular school year a unique one for Ms. Ware. Firstly, as a part of a larger movement of goal setting within the district, the English department at Ms. Ware’s school was engaged in ongoing work crafting a “Vision” and a “Mission Statement.” I was able to observe her department working on developing these statements. The details of this process and its impact on Ms. Ware and her practice are detailed in Chapters Three and Four.

Furthermore, Ms. Ware was also in the first year of a PhD program at an online university during the course of this study. She said she decided to pursue a PhD because her experiences teaching ELA left her wishing she knew more about it and that after completing her MA, she had continued interest in advancing her education. Additionally, on a practical level, Ms. Ware served as department head, was a PhD student, was teaching the CHS course for the first time, and she was also treasurer of the state ELA association. Put simply, Ms. Ware’s school year was very, very busy.

**Mr. Alexander.**

*“At this time a year ago, I didn’t have any idea this existed.”*

*“It’s been a pretty productive year.... It opened up a whole new world of ideas.”*

At the time of data collection, Mr. Alexander had been teaching for twenty-one years – four at a middle school and seventeen at his current high school. In the course of his seventeen years teaching high school, he had taught all levels (9-12) of ELA, as well as English electives journalism and yearbook. This was his first time teaching AP or upper level courses. During the year under study, he taught two CHS course/AP hybrids, another class of seniors completing a

CE composition course from a smaller public university, as well as journalism and yearbook. This course load is unique among CHS teachers and was the result of the particularities of a complex dynamic in his school site. While I will explain this dynamic in greater detail later in the section, the net result was that he and his departmental colleagues had created a CHS/AP hybrid to satisfy pressures from district officials who did not want CHS to supplant AP curricula.

Mr. Alexander did not have a lifelong story of becoming a teacher. As a young man, he worked on fishing boats and in construction sites and, over time, realized that was not how he “wanted to spend [his] life.” So, he sought a college degree and “stayed in school until [he] figured it out.” After more than twenty years as a teacher, Mr. Alexander was well-respected among his departmental colleagues. He had been his department’s head for a number of years by the time of this study. In this role, Mr. Alexander was seen as a true leader and his colleagues looked to him for guidance and support.

***Mr. Alexander’s high school setting.*** Mr. Alexander taught in a large, urban high school in a large district in a mid-size urban port city in the Pacific Northwest. The student population, while 58% White, had significant Latino/a, Black, and Asian/Pacific Islander populations. Roughly one third of students qualified for free or reduced lunch. This demographic mix provided an important backdrop for Mr. Alexander’s work. Mr. Alexander’s current motivation for his teaching generally, and his CE teaching in particular, came from his discovery (through data analysis) that White students at his school were succeeding “at the highest levels,” but students of color were not.

***Access to resources.*** Like Dr. Ryan’s setting, Mr. Alexander’s students had consistent access to laptop computers. He was able to keep a cart of laptop computers in his classroom the majority of the time, though there was one noted instance when these computers were not

available because they were out in service of computer-based testing. This generally consistent access facilitated Mr. Alexander's students' consistently productive use of work time, which Mr. Alexander stated was one of the primary benefits of teaching a college level composition course in a high school setting, in that the extra time to work in class with the availability of their teacher supported high school students' ability to complete college level work.

While Mr. Alexander's students did not each have their own copy of the CHS course textbook, his school had purchased a class set that students were able to use during class time and were able to check out and take home. Mr. Alexander used the text to support the introduction of new ideas, though he did not integrate it with consistency.

*Mr. Alexander's English department.* Mr. Alexander's department was active and engaged. Most of the teachers had been on staff together for a number of years. Together, they had developed a system for teaching writing that emphasized structure and form. Students got practice in similar assignments (literature analysis essays) every year and collected their work in a continuing portfolio to show evidence of their growth over time. There was a sense, both in Mr. Alexander's talk in interviews and in my observations of department meetings, that this department operated like a true professional learning community. When Mr. Alexander spoke about his practice or his learning, he invariably used the pronoun, "we," indicating that he felt he is part of a collective effort. At this moment in time, he and his department were being asked to shift their practice from what they had built, to a new system. In responding to this shift, and in general, Mr. Alexander's principal, Mr. Murato, was very supportive of him, his department, and their work.

*The moment in time: Mr. Alexander's school year.* Mr. Alexander's department could not continue their long-standing way of teaching English because the district had launched an

academic acceleration initiative that was forcing change. Mr. Alexander, Mr. Murato, and his department shared a goal with officials at the district level of increasing opportunities for minority students to prepare for and engage with college curricula. They disagreed, however, on the appropriate curricular paths to achieve this goal.

The district's initiative would put every student who passed the tenth grade state test into an AP course (at his school, this was about 90% of students). To support this goal, the district had adopted the Springboard ELA curriculum (from The College Board) from 6<sup>th</sup>-12<sup>th</sup> grade. Mr. Alexander and his principal found this plan to be problematic for a few reasons. Firstly, Mr. Alexander realized after working with AP test result data that "only the white kids" were passing the AP tests and earning credit. Secondly, he and Mr. Murato saw their students taking four to six AP courses and "burning out under the pressure." Thirdly, Mr. Alexander noted that teachers and students alike "hate" the Springboard curriculum because "amounts to six years in a workbook."

Around the same time that Mr. Alexander learned of this planned shift, he had a casual conversation with a biology teacher in his building who taught a CHS biology course. He said that before this conversation, he did not know the CHS program existed. "Within a week," he said, "I was in a meeting with [the CHS program coordinator], saying 'We're going to do this.'" He followed up and sought Mr. Murato's support for using a CE model for Academic Acceleration rather than Springboard/AP as proposed by the district. Mr. Murato shared Mr. Alexander's concerns with the district's initiative and came to share his excitement for CE programs as an alternative as well. Together, they moved forward attempting to seek approval through the appropriate channels in the district.

Unfortunately, because the district was “invested” in AP, Mr. Alexander says he and his team faced resistance. Soon, he felt it had become a “battle” between his team (with Mr. Alexander in the lead role) and those in the district office. Essentially, the district seemed to see “academic acceleration with the college board” as a known entity and did not see a need to do something different. Mr. Alexander and his colleagues saw CHS as a way to remove barriers for low-income Hispanic and African American students – including the AP test, which they saw as having acted as a gatekeeper for students of color in their setting. Mr. Alexander, his department, and Mr. Murato were deeply committed to giving a CE path of academic acceleration a chance for success. He said of the tensions: “We’ve [found a way to] eliminate this barrier... and they don’t even listen to us.”

After being given a tentative green light to bring the CHS program to their school, Mr. Alexander reviewed the curriculum and realized it would be “too much” for some of their students. So, he investigated other options and found that a rural, midsize state university also had a CE option that appeared a bit more manageable in terms of content complexity. He and Mr. Murato then worked to bring this program to their school in addition to the CHS program. The final compromised long term plan was to offer ENGL 110 and ENGL 112 from the CHS program, combined with enough AP curricula that those students who wanted to take the test could do so and do well. Ultimately, *ENGL 110/AP Language and Composition* would be taught to juniors and *ENGL 112/AP Literature and Composition* would be taught to seniors. (In the roll out year, i.e. the year under study, seniors who chose the advanced track took both courses, and advanced juniors began CE work second semester with the ENGL 110 course.) Seniors who choose not to take the CHS/AP series took the other CE course in their senior year, with an option to sign up for college credit if they wished.

Even as this initial plan went forward, Mr. Alexander's long-term plan went back and forth through different channels of district approval processes for most of the year, with different district officials giving different answers. Some of the interactions gave Mr. Alexander the impression that those at the district were hostile toward both the plan and to him, including an air of contention around the district's commitment to College Board. With this "battle" and its uncertainty as a backdrop, Mr. Alexander and his department worked to implement their CE plan as successfully as possible even as they continued learning about it.

### **Conclusion**

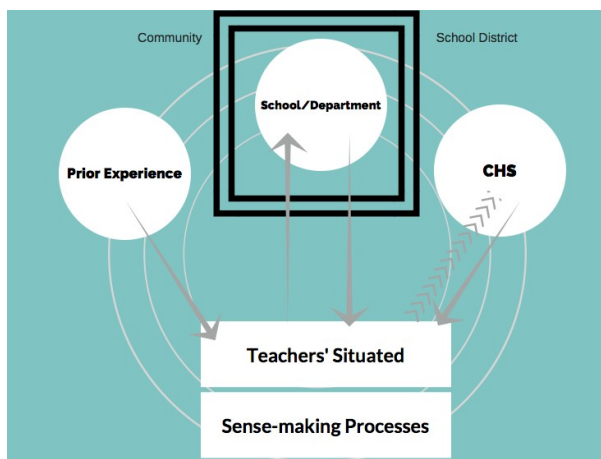
In this chapter, I have outlined my study and provided portraits of the cases to serve as a backdrop for analysis. The cases of the focal teachers each represent a complex interaction among identity, setting, and practice. Though each case is unique, several themes across cases add insight into their experiences. These include: the interaction of teachers' situated sense-making processes as mediated by their Discourses for writing pedagogy and features of their settings, teachers' learning as situated within practice, teachers' developing practice-linked identities as they learn and teach the CHS course, and the dynamic interactions among these as explained by Beach's (1999, 2003) consequential transitions. These themes are explored across cases in Chapter Three-Chapter Six.

### Chapter 3. “IT WAS A PRETTY PRODUCTIVE YEAR”: FOCAL TEACHERS’ SITUATED SENSE-MAKING PROCESSES

High schools and universities have distinct cultures – around teaching generally and teaching writing specifically (Crank, 2012; Farris, 2010; Hansen, 2010; Sullivan, 2003) – and they have differences in curricular and instructional traditions, including the framing of writing instruction, its purposes, and its place in curricula (Crank, 2012; Denecker, 2013; Hesse, 2010; Hillocks, 2005). Because they teach university courses in a high school setting, CE composition teachers are simultaneously influenced by the cultures and traditions of both worlds. In Chapter Two, I provided a portrait of each teacher’s setting and practices. This chapter analyzes the relationships among focal teachers’ settings, learning, and practices by looking at the affordances of teachers’ school environments and teachers’ capacities to make use of those affordances. This central dynamic characterizes teachers’ situated sense-making processes, which are further mediated by their Discourses for teaching writing – and, as a subset of these Discourses – teachers’ conceptual frameworks for writing instruction (see Figure 3, below). These influences make up the landscape CE teachers’ opportunities to learn in context (cf., Gee, 2008).

Conceptually, my approach applies Gee’s (2008) reasoning that just because two learners are exposed to the same information, does not mean these two learners have had the same “opportunities to learn” (p. 77). I argue that focal teacher’s sense-making of CHS frameworks for writing instruction took place via recursive interactions among the Discourses for teaching writing available to them from their prior experiences, their school and departments, and the CHS program (Figure 3, below). To address these dynamics, I begin by documenting the key features of each teacher’s sense-making process within cultural and value-laden settings, and then seek to situate teachers’ sense-making processes in a broader discussion of two themes that

resonate across cases. Firstly, I examine instances when there was alignment among teachers' established Discourses for writing instruction and those of the CHS course and I argue that alignment afforded teachers' access to CHS Discourses. Building on this, I then discuss instances of disjuncture among focal teachers' Discourses for writing instruction and those of the CHS course. I argue that when interrogated or approached productively by focal teachers, these instances also led to teacher learning. My general conclusion is that it is not just the affordances and constraints of focal teachers' school settings (including the policy environments of their school districts and the unique concerns of their communities) that mediate teachers' sense-making processes, but that teachers' capacities for recognizing and transforming affordances into action are also critical to teachers' opportunities to learn.



*Figure 3.* Teachers' sense-making processes as situated within settings permeated with Discourses.

### Focal Teachers' Situated Sense-Making Processes

#### Dr. Ryan

**Dr. Ryan's incoming conceptual framework.** Dr. Ryan's incoming conceptual framework for writing and writing instruction was closely aligned to the framework outlined in the CHS course curriculum. Her composition teaching experience included several years

teaching in a portfolio-based system that she described as “very similar” to the expository writing program university courses upon which the CHS course is based. In fact, Dr. Ryan felt this affiliation from her very first interaction with the program – when she wrote a letter in support of her application to the program. To write the letter, she learned about the CHS course. As she wrote about how her experience prepared her for the position, she realized that it shared a great deal with her prior teaching experiences, particularly her post teaching composition while a PhD student at the State University and her post as an Assistant Professor of English following her degree. She shared that both of these composition programs followed a portfolio system similar to that of the CHS course and she expressed that a portfolio based writing course was something she had come to “believe in.” She says, “I was trained in teaching composition at [The State University], where it's all portfolio, so I'm all about the portfolio, especially for writing [classes].”

In addition to her affinity for the CHS course structure, Dr. Ryan’s conceptual frameworks also placed value on curricular emphases similar to those at the center of the CHS program. Her personal emphases in writing instruction were maintaining focus, developing good practices for revision, and developing the “habits of mind” that support college level work. Because she was familiar with CHS concepts, she took in new ideas about writing and writing instruction quickly and responded to nuanced differences between the specifics of the CHS course and its framings and those of her prior college teaching. In one instance, she described finding a name for the concept of “The Rhetorical Situation” in the course textbook. Prior to working with this book, she said she had been “trying to talk” about responding to rhetorical situation, but had not had a firm sense of how to “frame it.” When she first read the CHS course textbook, the section on rhetorical situation resonated with her, because it “frame[d] [the

concept] perfectly.” She said further of the CHS course textbook: “it emphasizes so many things that I've already been talking about. It's like they're all in one place.”

**Dr. Ryan's school culture and Discourses.** Because of Dr. Ryan's unique position as a first year high school teacher with a college teaching background, her experiences with secondary teaching Discourses were unique as well. Particularly at the beginning of the year, Dr. Ryan's established ways of thinking and behaving as a teacher were not yet those of the school and department in which she practiced, but rather she brought with her the Discourses of her college teaching experiences. That is, Dr. Ryan's prior experiences teaching writing, which share much with the CHS course in terms of curricular content and in terms of culture, were still operating as her established Discourses for writing instruction. Because the “everyday” experience of her prior composition teaching shared much with the CHS structure and framing, she experienced a very “powerful form of affiliation” (Gee, 2008, p. 102). This initial alignment acts as a bridge for Dr. Ryan's experiences with high school teaching.

While Dr. Ryan was already socialized into a culture of teaching similar to the CHS course, she was also simultaneously being socialized into a new teaching culture – that of her high school setting. Put another way, Dr. Ryan's lived experience of teaching aligned with that of CHS, but this experience differed from the culture of her new HS setting. This made her both an insider and an outsider during her first year of teaching the CHS course and her first year of teaching high school. She stated that, in many ways, she was still learning “what it means” to be a teacher at her high school. As she practiced her way to greater levels of comfort within this new culture, Dr. Ryan taught with a clear sense of purpose that was directly informed by her prior experience. Having long seen students struggle to succeed in the college level, she saw the

CHS course as a way to interrupt the patterns of under-preparedness that she struggled against as a college instructor.

**The dynamics of Dr. Ryan’s sense-making process.** Responding to the realities of teaching in the high school setting posed a greater challenge to Dr. Ryan’s transition to teaching at the high school level than she anticipated. The unforeseen stumbling blocks of becoming accustomed to the realities of her high school setting caused Dr. Ryan not to experience the relatively uncomplicated lateral transition that seemed likely as she moved from teaching college level writing in one context to teaching it in another (Beach, 1999; 2003). Rather, her trajectory was characterized by a number of stops and starts. Dr. Ryan noted that she struggled to “get [her] feet under [her]” and that she rarely felt like she could “take a breath” due to her inability to develop long-range plans for her course.

This feeling developed early as her initial plans all needed to be revised multiple times because class time was interrupted for reasons Dr. Ryan did not anticipate, like class pictures or student announcements, and because sequences of activities simply took longer with her group of high school students than they did in her past teaching. This trend continued throughout the year. On one occasion, I observed a day when two thirds of her class was absent to participate in a “Knowledge Bowl” competition. Dr. Ryan explained that just a few days earlier an equal number of students were absent due to a whale-watching trip to celebrate having taken the AP Biology test.

Features of the high school setting, like interruptions and absences described above, took her by surprise because she simply had not previously spent much time in high schools. In the interview that followed the sparsely attended class day, Dr. Ryan expressed considerable uncertainty about how to adjust to some of these features of the setting. She explained:

I think I came into it thinking, “This will be much more like a college class on a high school campus,” and it's not. It's like a very high-level high school class on a high school campus, so I have to rethink a lot of things. I need to change policies and expectations, and just basic things like daily work and things like that. I kind of had a college class in mind, and it just doesn't work.... I don't know if that really clicked for me this year, I don't know if it did. [There are] things I need to figure out for next year.

In addition to the uncertainty she expressed above, Dr. Ryan also reflected back on her work during the year in the final interview and noted that the two assignment sequences that she had planned on her own rather than relying on the materials of others were “much more successful.” She took this as a cue for her planning in coming years. Now that she had a picture of how the course operated in a high school setting, she could put her conceptual framework for writing instruction to better use by creating new curriculum to marry her solid conceptual understanding with her developing understanding of how to teach in a high school setting. Ultimately, while Dr. Ryan understood the content and framing of the CHS course quite well from the outset, her process was a non-linear, but productive, one of learning how to deliver the curriculum in a high school setting.

### **Mr. Alexander**

**Mr. Alexander's incoming conceptual framework.** Mr. Alexander was an experienced ELA teacher whose twenty-one years of teaching afforded him many opportunities to create and refine his ideas and practices around the teaching of writing prior to teaching the CHS course. Put another way, he had developed an established conceptual framework for teaching and writing through his long career of teaching and collaborating with others in his department to develop a four-year program for teaching writing.

For him, teaching students to “write well” had always been about teaching structure and organization. His basic tenet was that, “if your writing isn't organized, it doesn't matter what you say.” Within this central focus, Mr. Alexander further emphasized an initial reliance on models

and formulas with a gradual release toward more student agency in making authorial organization decisions. He said, “as you go up in grades, the reading material gets more complex, the ideas get more complex, the writing becomes more sophisticated, and we also release the kids from that strict organization.”

Because Mr. Alexander already had a strong sense of what it meant to teach students to write well, he began the year with comfort and confidence teaching writing. Moreover, his thorough understanding of structural elements of writing often served as a mechanism through which he made sense of new ideas from the CHS course, working as a starting point of sorts. For instance, when engaged in teaching students to write in a genre that was new to him (the screenplay) in order to work toward the CHS course’s vision of teaching students to write flexibly in other genres, he fell back on his structural emphasis. His assignment sheet for students’ screenplay assignment, and the bulk of his instruction in support of the assignment, focused on structural features of the screenplay as a genre: the dialogue must be centered, be only a few inches in width on the page, and be in *Courier New* font. When asked about the goal of this assignment, Mr. Alexander simply said he was working to engage students in writing in more genres. Thus, in trying out this new and, in some ways, uncomfortable pedagogical practice, Mr. Alexander relied on aspects of his established framework to serve as an entry point. In addition to his focus on structure, Mr. Alexander’s incoming framework also afforded him well-developed pedagogical tools for peer review and structured independent work in the writing classroom that support his uptake of CHS practices.

**Mr. Alexander’s school culture and Discourses.** Mr. Alexander’s framework for writing instruction were situated within the Discourses of his school and English department. Mr. Alexander’s department had a well-developed teaching culture including a vertically aligned

four-year program for teaching writing that had constituted the ways of teaching writing at this school for many years. Members of the department “believe[d] in” and coalesced around “the way [they] teach writing.” Their shared way of doing things, however, was already being forced to change due to movement at the district level (i.e. the policy concerning AP/Springboard/Academic Acceleration discussed in Chapter 2). Mr. Alexander and his department actively resisted the district’s intention to increase rigor solely by putting more students in AP courses. He argued that minority students were the “whole reason we’re doing this [CE courses instead of AP].... ‘The white kids’ pass AP tests and get credit.” In contrast, Mr. Alexander noted that even their hardest working and most talented students of color tended not to pass AP tests and, so, did not earn college credit. Further, he saw CHS as a way to get students college credit at the high school “in a more authentic and accurate way than the AP.” He saw CHS as authentic because it came from the university, was focused on writing, and required process writing (rather than timed tests). Thus, the CHS course became a powerful mediating influence not just for Mr. Alexander, but also a guiding force for his department’s shifting practices. In this way, while he was the primary link between his school and the CHS program, his sense-making process and his socialization into the Discourse(s) of the program were shared experiences.

**The dynamics of Mr. Alexander’s sense-making process.** Because Mr. Alexander and his department felt strongly that the AP acceleration model disadvantaged students of color and because they did not like its reliance in earlier grades on the Springboard “workbooks,” there was a sense of deep investment in the success of the CHS course among members of his department and this bolstered their commitment to their work around vertical alignment to its framing and practices. Thus, Mr. Alexander actively sought help from faculty and stewards at CHS to ensure

his movement would be a success. In doing so, he *facilitated his own socialization* into the CHS teaching Discourses and actively reshaped the teaching culture at his school. When he encountered stumbling blocks or uncovered questions, Mr. Alexander did not hesitate to ask for help from CHS faculty and stewards. Ultimately, this central dynamic characterized his process of making sense of the CHS course framing and its concepts and practices.

In normal CHS program operations, each CE teacher typically works with a single CHS graduate student steward and that person is typically his or her primary contact at the university. Mr. Alexander, however, was regularly in contact with both faculty members affiliated with the CHS program and with all three stewards. As described in Chapter Two, he asked Dr. Sark to review the English Department syllabi for all their courses (notably, a task that was only possible because his department already had such a structured and clear program) with an eye toward how they aligned with and built toward the concepts and skills students would need in the upper grades to succeed in the CHS program (and, by extension, in college writing). Dr. Sark's response to this request netted a number of suggestions, centrally a shift toward argumentative writing and a greater emphasis on rhetorical awareness and rhetorical flexibility. These suggestions were immediately put to use in Mr. Alexander's CHS course and in guiding his department's redesign. As Mr. Alexander and his department worked to implement these changes, they discovered that they were not quite sure how to do so. To address these areas, Mr. Alexander worked with his principal to arrange a series of workshops with the CHS program stewards and a number of paid departmental PLC meetings centered on collaboratively revising their courses and syllabi to reflect their new understandings.

Essentially, Mr. Alexander engaged in repeated cycles of (1) planning as much as he could based on what he knew, (2) running into questions he could not answer on his own, (3)

reaching out for help from people (or sometimes online resources) from the university, (4) learning something new and putting it into action, then (5) planning as much as he could based on what he *now* knew, (6) until he found that he needed more help, and (7) repeating the cycle again. Mr. Alexander's willingness to engage in these cycles and his leadership in facilitating not only his learning, but also the learning of other members of his English department, truly transformed his teaching and his department's approach to teaching writing.

### **Ms. Ware**

**Ms. Ware's incoming conceptual framework.** When Ms. Ware described her own experiences learning to write, she described an experience common to many students: she was able to coast along and "BS" writing assignments for much of her life before finally being challenged to do more by a particular college writing course. As she described it, the course centered on writing a single research paper the whole semester – from conception of ideas, to research, to drafting, and through individual conferences with the professor and several rounds of very detailed editing and revision. She said her professor questioned everything and, from him, she developed a "nit-picky" eye toward writing that she could not "turn off" when reading, even for pleasure. Ms. Ware felt that this course was where she really learned to write. Thus, since there was very little else in her training as an elementary reading specialist to mediate its influence, this course and its approach to writing formed her foundational model for what it means to teach writing.

As she planned for the CHS course, Ms. Ware realized that she needed support in developing her own curriculum and instructional tools to teach college level writing. Rather than reaching out, however, she attempted to facilitate her own support by virtue primarily of resources she gathered by herself. As she planned, she relied on the materials of the prior CHS

teacher, the university textbook, and books by Jim Burke and Kelly Gallagher as resources. As a result of this initial planning and a tendency to fall back on her established Discourses for writing learned in her prior experience, Ms. Ware emphasized (in both interviews and in her instructional practices): surface level concerns first, then argument, rhetoric, and research. The concept of revision, in Ms. Ware's early CHS teaching, ended up primarily emphasizing correctness, clarity, and students' inclusion of the "right" elements in their papers. During an observation in the autumn, Ms. Ware asked students to revise their own papers. She modeled a process for them that involved first highlighting the paper's claim. After highlighting the claim, students were to highlight all of the "to-be" verbs in the paper. Finally, students were to mark all of the evidence in the paper that supported the claim. In her modeling, Ms. Ware does not discuss with students *why* these components of their papers are important or *what to do* with them after the highlighting process. As the class period unfolded, students had so many questions about the "to be" verbs in their papers that this component of the activity took up the bulk of the instructional time and many students did not make it to the third step of addressing evidence. Further, in response to a student question about revision on this day, Ms. Ware told students that when they revised for the portfolio, as long as they "fix" the things she marked on their papers, they'll "be good." The CHS vision of editing and revision posits surface level concerns as of lesser importance than having strong claims and using evidence well. This occasion exemplifies how Ms. Ware's underdeveloped frameworks for parts of the writing process, such as revision, limited her ability to enact the practices of the CHS curriculum with her students and thereby impacted her students' understanding.

From the beginning of the year to the end, surface level concerns dominated her talk in interviews and in instruction. In interviews, Ms. Ware emphasized Standard English, correctness,

and clarity as primary concerns. She viewed these skills as important for her students because they were largely “generation 1.5” and a major motivation of her work was to ensure that they “made it” outside of their community. In interviews and practice, cultivating research skills were also a primary concern for Ms. Ware. This is an interesting feature of Ms. Ware’s instantiation of the course, because while research often appears in CHS courses, it is not a central concern of the curriculum or the course outcomes. For her part, Ms. Ware felt that research (specifically primary research) was an important addition to the course, primarily because it had proven to be so useful in her own educational experiences. This impulse to emphasize a type of writing simply because it featured prominently in her own experience reflects a trend discussed in the literature of high school teachers relying on their own college experiences as they teach their students about college (e.g. Davies, 2006; Jordan et al., 2006). As the year developed, Ms. Ware worked to take up two of the central concerns of the CHS course: academic argumentation and rhetorical awareness and flexibility. As above, due to her own developing frameworks, her efforts in these areas met with unexpected hurdles and limited opportunities to learn.

**Ms. Ware’s school culture and Discourses.** In addition to her prior experiences, Ms. Ware’s established Discourses were also influenced by the culture of her English department. Her department was a generally supportive and engaged group of teachers, including a core group of four to five (of seven total in the department) teachers who regularly planned and collaborated with one another. The department’s Discourses for teaching English were laid bare when I observed the department’s ongoing efforts to define a mission statement and set of values. The group articulated its purposes as: (1) ensuring students develop basic skills in reading and writing, (2) helping students learn to persevere and have confidence, (3) preparing students for the “outside world,” (4) developing a “love of literature,” and (5) using literature to

expose students to the “outside world.” These five stated values served as a backdrop for Ms. Ware’s planning and practices and were clearly tied to the particulars of the remote setting of her high school and the particular perceived needs of their population of students. As writing was only specifically included as one piece of the stated goal of ensuring all students graduate with basic skills, the school-based Discourses for writing pedagogies offered little in the way of affordances for Ms. Ware’s sense-making process in her CHS undertaking.

A related and unmistakable feature of how Ms. Ware made sense of teaching in her high school setting was how she thought of, and worked for, her students. Strong, personal relationships with students characterized her thinking, being, and doing as a teacher. These, in turn, influenced classroom practices designed to foster community and build trust. This strong central characteristic of her teaching can be traced back to the nature of her setting, her beliefs about that setting, and how those beliefs related to her stated central goal for the CHS course: to prepare students for a college level challenge in a comfortable setting. Because that was her primary goal, strong trusting relationships were critical to her teaching endeavor. Her goal of preparing students in this way motivated her to develop relationships with students and help them develop relationships with one another. Ms. Ware’s relationships with students and her motivation to foster their success acted as a filter through which she approached making sense of the CHS course and through which she made instructional decisions. One instance of this influence on her instructional decision making resulted in her taking the suggestion of Calvin, the graduate student steward assigned to her school site which I discuss below.

In general, Ms. Ware had been reluctant to seek out the advice of anyone from the CHS program. In fact, Ms. Ware told me mid-year that, while she thought Calvin had good ideas, she had not reached out to him because she felt that her questions were too particular to herself or her

setting. By the end of the year, she still had not reached out to anyone from the university for any reason, though she described Calvin's two visits to her school as initially "nerve-wracking" but ultimately pleasant. The primary reasons she gave for continuing not to reach out was that the pedagogical problems that she had been working the most on were problems that she felt were unique to implementing the curriculum in her context or ones that had to do with her own "confidence levels" and "time management issues."

One of Calvin's suggestions to her during a visit, however, did end up serving as an entry point to CHS concepts in Ms. Ware's sense-making process. On one of his site visits, Ms. Ware noted she had been struggling with her students' tendency to procrastinate. She explained that in the rest of their careers as students, they had always been able to "get away with it" and so they had not developed good strategies for managing themselves as learners. Due to the challenge and the workload of the CHS course, their old habits were causing them to struggle and to fall behind. In response to this, Calvin suggested that Ms. Ware have students engage in some metacognitive reflection at the end of each writing process to reflect on the process, how it went, where they struggled, and what they might want to do differently next time. Ms. Ware took up this suggestion and encouraged her students to use this reflective writing to notice patterns in their own tendencies and to use this knowledge to take more control over their own learning. For her, this practice was an ideal entry point given her placement of supporting student growth as the central concern of her teaching practice.

**The dynamics of Ms. Ware's sense-making process.** The instance described above, however, acted as a "foot in the door" for Ms. Ware that gave her some confidence to try out additional new teaching practices. She readily admitted that her understanding was still developing as the year came to an end. As the year progressed, she endeavored to take up the

concepts of academic argument and a rhetorical approach to writing in her CHS course. These concepts, to a lesser extent, also had their roots in the teaching Discourses of her ELA department. She identified the concept of rhetorical analysis from CHS materials as a sort of extended or more in depth version of the literary analysis essays she and her colleagues had been assigning, though her schema for this concept remained underdeveloped. Further, Ms. Ware mentioned near the end of the year that the core group of teachers she met with regularly had “started to talk about” including “more argument” in their curriculum due to the framing of writing instruction of the Common Core State Standards. In her CHS course, Ms. Ware asked students to write several argumentative papers, though she was still developing her strategies for teaching academic argument. She described attempting to teach them the Toulmin model (Toulmin, 2003) for argumentation and how she and her students both were confused by the lesson. She decided, then, to backtrack and teach them just the parts of it they “needed” (Claim, Warrant, Evidence). She had greater success teaching students Aristotle’s approach to argument and engaged them in analyzing arguments in terms of *ethos*, *logos*, and *pathos*. In her sense-making process, Ms. Ware learned persistently alongside her students, was able to note where they struggled, and used her efforts to further *their learning* to support significant *learning of her own*.

Even though Ms. Ware’s teaching and reflections showed many instances, like the one above, of movement toward taking up the CHS conceptual frameworks for writing, she continued to fall back on her more comfortable Discourses for writing instruction when pressed by the limits of her understanding. When asked at the start of second semester about what she planned to address in her teaching in the rest of the year, Ms. Ware returned to her central surface level concerns, “Like bringing in the passive language sooner, bringing in vague

terminology, focusing more on making sure that they can paraphrase, quote, summarize properly. Some of the basic skills that they know, but maybe need a little tweaking on.” Though she had her foot in the door, Ms. Ware’s developing frameworks for college writing remained underdeveloped and so she still fell back on her central, surface-level focused Discourse for writing instruction.

Another feature of Ms. Ware’s sense-making process was that her efforts to implement the course forced her to grapple with some previously unquestioned assumptions about the nature of the discipline. Specifically, she began to question “what it means” to teach English Language Arts in a high school setting and “what it means” to teach writing in particular. These questions came to bear on a handful of occasions scattered throughout the year. Firstly, she began to wrestle with these questions when she worked to build primary research into her curriculum. In working with students to write up their “results” in the format of a scientific research report, she found that students struggled to communicate in this genre. This led her to speculate about how writing was and was not taught in other disciplines within her building and whose “job” it was to teach scientific writing skills. A similar tension was present when she noted that her students did not have the necessary factual background knowledge about The Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. or the Black Panthers to unpack the texts included in one of her assignment sequences. She found that she needed to backtrack to “teach some of the history.” This also had her wondering if teachers in other departments had done their “job.” Together, these experiences left Ms. Ware thinking about why these issues came up and what they meant for her and the CHS course. As the instructor of a college level course that trains students to analyze a rhetorical situation and write in different discourses, her “job” was necessarily different from that of a 9-12<sup>th</sup> grade ELA teacher. Pondering this notion forced her to think about

what it means to teach writing from a perspective outside of her established perspective as an ELA teacher, which in turn made her think about the role of writing instruction in ELA curricula. While she did not come to any final conclusions on these questions, they were productive ones for her to consider for her CHS teaching, for her traditional ELA teaching, and for her role as department head.

In general, Ms. Ware's sense-making process was characterized by a relative lack of affordances in her setting (particularly with regard to detailed conceptual frameworks for writing instruction) and by the limits placed on her capacities to make use of CHS program curricular materials given her own underdeveloped frameworks for writing instruction. That is, Ms. Ware's incoming framework and available Discourses in her setting limited her opportunities to learn from the outset and, when her implementation of new practices pushed her too far outside her established ways of teaching writing, she returned to those that she felt more comfortable and confident with, such as teaching surface level concerns.

This dynamic was further complicated by the fact that Ms. Ware did not have others in her setting with whom collaborated around the CHS course. Though Ms. Ware was also the head of the English department in her setting, her learning was not shared in the way that Mr. Alexander's was. Since the CHS course had existed in her setting prior to her arrival and since her learning to teach the course was not situated within a larger context of change, there was no pressing reason for anyone else in her department to learn about the CHS course. Thus, though they were a convivial and open group, Ms. Ware felt as though the CHS course was hers alone to plan and teach. This factor, combined with the uniqueness of her setting (and that she interpreted that uniqueness to mean that people and resources from the university were of limited use), mediated her efforts to make sense of and enact the CHS curriculum such that she was the

primary sense-maker of CHS ideas in her setting and that she was the sole filter through which university ideas reach her students and ELA colleagues. In general, the relative affordances of her setting and her relative effectivities with regard to writing pedagogy meant that Ms. Ware's opportunities to learn were limited in ways the other teachers' were not.

### **Themes Across Cases**

Though each teacher's situated sense-making process was different given variation among their prior experiences, settings, and available Discourses, there were a few patterns that emerged across cases. Firstly, alignment – large or small – between established teaching Discourses and those of the CHS course operated as starting points or footholds that supported teachers' experimentation and risk taking with novel CHS ideas and practices. Secondly, teachers' response to disjuncture had the potential to turn points of disjuncture into opportunities to learn; these responses were mediated by teachers' effectivities. In the remaining sections of this chapter, I discuss examples across these themes.

### **Alignment Among Frameworks for Writing Instruction and Teaching Discourses**

Just as alignment among one's vernacular culture or primary Discourses and newly encountered specialized cultures serves as a “powerful form of affiliation” (Gee, 2008, p. 102), alignment among teachers' established Discourses for writing instruction and the ways of thinking and doing of the CHS course created bridges to appropriation for CE teachers. These bridges act as a “foot in the door” for teachers to explore more unfamiliar aspects of the CHS curriculum. In this section, I offer stories of alignment and analyze how that alignment offered entry to subsequent learning processes.

**Wholesale conceptual alignment.** Like the other two focal teachers, Dr. Ryan was engaged in a consequential transition between familiar and comfortable ways of teaching and

some substantially new ways of teaching. However, for her, the part that was comfortable and familiar was the teaching of college level composition. As described above, Dr. Ryan described feeling an affiliation with the CHS way of teaching writing from the very beginning of her interaction with the course. Dr. Ryan “believed in” the portfolio-based structure on which the course was built and also felt an affiliation with the concepts at the center of the CHS course. Further, Dr. Ryan used her engagement with CHS course resources to refine and add nuance to her understanding of writing instruction concepts, such as when she took to the description of “rhetorical situation” in the course textbook. In many ways, Dr. Ryan used her experiences planning for and teaching the course to help clarify her thinking. Her well-established framework set her up to take in new concepts and add to her established Discourses.

In particular, in addition to the concept of rhetorical situation (which is a key component of Outcome One in the CHS course outcomes), the concepts of revision, having a clear focus, and working with text (all of which feature prominently in the CHS curriculum and all of which Dr. Ryan described as central to her approach to teaching writing) acted as bridges for Dr. Ryan in using CHS conceptual and pedagogical resources, the course outcomes in particular. Early in the year, Dr. Ryan stated that she was grateful for the outcomes because they reflected her thoughts about what matters in teaching writing. Specifically, she felt that Outcome Four reflected the way that she understood revision and helping students to develop their own writing processes, that Outcome Three aligned with her way of talking about developing and maintaining a clear focus in a piece of writing, and that the thrust of Outcome Two matched her concern with responding critically to texts (See Appendix B). Dr. Ryan’s extensive familiarity and affiliation with these concerns afforded her the capability to recognize them in the course textbook and the

course outcomes and thus she was able to use the course materials to support her teaching early and often.

**Familiar ideas as entry points.** Very much in contrast to Dr. Ryan's experience, Ms. Ware felt very little alignment with the CHS curriculum and very connected with her high school setting and her role within it. The features of the setting, and Ms. Ware's beliefs about it, shaped the process by which Ms. Ware engaged with the frameworks, teaching culture, and resources of the CHS course. In general, Ms. Ware believed her context to be so unique that any resources from the university or help from the people associated with it were of limited use. Because of this stance, Ms. Ware displayed consistent hesitance to reach out to CHS faculty or stewards to support her learning and instructional processes. She broke away from this pattern, however, when Calvin's suggestion about incorporating metacognitive reflection offered her a way to respond to a specific concern she had with her students' progress. Because supporting her students' progress toward success outside her community (particularly in college) was a primary concern of her practice, this suggestion was an ideal place for her to establish a foothold within the teaching Discourses of the CHS course.

In this way, Calvin's suggestion resonated with her established teaching Discourses for supporting students' confidence and developing their sense of self-efficacy. This resonance meant that Ms. Ware's established Discourses afforded her the capacity to recognize this practice as useful and transform it into action in her setting. Further, the practice fit within her ELA department's vision that, while short on specific goals for writing instruction, included an emphasis on "habits of mind" – thinking critically, developing a growth mindset, and developing student self-efficacy. Thus, this value – of supporting students' growth in risk-taking, persistence, confidence, and self-efficacy – crossed contexts and supported Ms. Ware's

developing understanding and implementation of one aspect of the CHS course's framing and practices. Put simply, Ms. Ware identified with this suggestion and this gave her the confidence to try something new. With this relatively early "foot in the door," Ms. Ware continued to engage in a significant personal and professional learning process throughout the year and she continued to develop her frameworks for writing and writing instruction.

Mr. Alexander's pattern of emphasizing structure in his application of new concepts in practice also operated as a familiar way of thinking supporting the implementation of new teaching Discourses. When he supported students in learning new genres (such as the screenplay described earlier in this chapter), his natural entry point was in helping them analyze and replicate the genre's typical structure. Making use of his established Discourses for writing instruction in this way played a key role in his development of deeper conceptual understanding of new ideas central to the CHS course. Rather than simply falling back on his prior ways of teaching writing, Mr. Alexander leveraged his established framework to support his sense-making process. Focal teachers' experiences with alignment among new and established conceptual frameworks (and other elements of teaching Discourses) suggest that when teachers are able to consciously identify (on their own or with support) familiar ideas within new Discourses, they can make use of them as entry points that support future engagement and risk-taking.

### **Productive Friction at Points of Disjuncture**

Just as focal teachers experienced powerful instances of alignment among established and new Discourses, their first year teaching the CHS course surfaced notable examples of disjuncture as well. Ward, Nolen, and Horn (2011) applied the term "productive friction" (coined by Hagel & Brown, 2005) to instances of conflict among the "social worlds" of teaching that

“[initiate] positive changes” in practice and understanding (p. 15). All three focal teachers experienced instances of such productive friction, though to varying in degrees of productivity. In this section, I share examples from each focal teachers’ practice. Taken together, these examples show that disjunctures among frameworks can be productive when they surface questions or problems, engender reflection, or prompt resource-seeking behavior.

**Friction surfaced disciplinary and pedagogical questions.** As outlined in the section above, there was little in the way of alignment among Discourses for Ms. Ware. While this lack of alignment inhibited her growth in many ways, when she was able to consciously acknowledge a disjuncture and reflect on what it meant for her practice, she could use points of friction to further her sense-making process. As described earlier in this chapter, disjunctures within and among frameworks and cultures brought a few previously unacknowledged questions to the fore. Specifically, as she considered teaching the CHS course within her setting, there was friction for Ms. Ware between her department’s literature centric, soft-skill focused, high-level goals and the university’s composition focused, academic argument driven course outcomes. In trying to make sense of this tension in her planning and practice, Ms. Ware found herself thinking deeply about what it means to teach ELA and what it means to teach writing. These thought processes were also furthered when she questioned whose “job” it was in her setting to teach scientific writing or provide historical background. While she did not come to fully answer these questions during the course of the school year under study, the fact that she raised them is evidence of her ongoing sense-making process.

Similarly, Dr. Ryan ended the year with uncertainty about whether or not the CHS course could truly operate like a college level course. As she wrestled with her efforts to adapt the course for her students in her setting, she unearthed big questions about what it means to teach a

college course in a high school setting. Like McCrimmon (2010) who wonders if either “college” or “high school” are places that can be understood as static or general, Dr. Ryan found herself necessarily complicating what she had thought would be the easiest part of her transition to teaching in high school – teaching a college level course similar to her prior teaching experiences. Ultimately, the answers she began to posit to the questions surfaced by complications in delivering the course reflected her developing understanding of the CHS course as being not just a “college” course delivered in a high school setting, but rather being a *particular college course* delivered in her *particular high school setting*. Though Dr. Ryan was unsure exactly how she would adjust her teaching to respond to this realization, she intended to return to it in her planning for the following year. Ultimately, her ability to recognize and make sense of the tension among settings serves as a productive force in her long-term development as a CHS teacher.

**Disjuncture met with productive response.** While Mr. Alexander’s strong existing Discourses for writing instruction afforded him a useful starting point for making sense of the concepts and practices of the CHS course, multiple points of disjuncture existed in Mr. Alexander’s path toward enacting the CHS course due to the larger context of he and his department’s disagreement with district level decisions around curricula and academic acceleration. This dynamic included disjunctures among the district’s proposed curriculum changes, the department’s teaching culture, Mr. Alexander’s writing framework, and the CHS framework for teaching writing. Because Mr. Alexander’s response to these disjunctures took on an active, problem-solving stance, the friction in the setting became a highly productive force.

It is worth noting that Mr. Alexander’s well-developed Discourses for writing instruction positioned him to be able to recognize disjunctures among his established framework and that which was new in the CHS course. Further, because he was motivated

by the larger concerns of his context and moment in time, when Mr. Alexander saw distinctions or when he felt disjunctures that raised questions for him, his immediate inclination was to seek resources from and ask questions of university faculty and stewards. This dynamic took shape in Mr. Alexander's response to the school district's AP centered academic acceleration plan. As outlined earlier in this chapter, Mr. Alexander, his principal, and his department did not believe AP courses and tests delivered equitable outcomes for their students from low income and minority backgrounds. Mr. Alexander's response to this break with the district's vision, made possible by the chance conversation in which he learned about the CHS program's existence from a colleague, was one that sought another, better option for his school and its students. His inclination was to find ways to solve the problem productively rather than react to it in a resigned or passive way. Further, after learning about the CHS program, he sprang immediately into action – learning about the program and scheduling a meeting with the CHS program director. Mr. Alexander was also familiar enough with his high school setting that he knew to seek out the help of his principal and together they navigated a complicated system of channels of approval for new courses at the district office. As explained in Chapter Two, this effort met with resistance and further tension as it navigated those channels. Disjunctures between the CHS framing and that of the district's AP plan reinforced Mr. Alexander's work to enact the CHS model. Mr. Alexander's response to this was also productive – because he saw their new program as being vulnerable in their “battle” with the district, he committed to do everything necessary for it to succeed.

This commitment drove Mr. Alexander's response when he discovered disjunctures among his department's frameworks for and cultures around writing instruction and the framing

of the CHS curriculum. His reaching out to Dr. Sark, continual engagement in reflective planning and teaching cycles, and development of workshops to support the larger goals of his department all reinforced his sense-making process and made his department's revision of its writing program possible. By the end of the year, Mr. Alexander's conceptual framework for writing instruction had clearly shifted. Where in autumn, he spoke almost exclusively of structure and clarity as his guiding principles for writing instruction, by late May he identified teaching the difference between a thesis and a claim, teaching different genres and scaffolding rhetorical awareness and flexibility, and teaching students to reflect and think metacognitively as central to his teaching of writing. More detail is offered on how Mr. Alexander's daily practice interacted with his developing conceptual framework in Chapter Four. Ultimately, Mr. Alexander reflected, "It was a pretty productive year, I think." Indeed, it was Mr. Alexander's productive response to friction in his setting that transformed significant tension into meaningful opportunities to learn.

### **Conclusion**

In summary, while the three focal teachers taught in very different environments with different established Discourses for teaching, writing, and teaching writing, there were trends among how their uptake of CHS frameworks and practices interacted with their situated sense-making processes. Firstly, areas of alignment and affiliation acted as entry points that allowed teachers to take up CHS practices and then encouraged them to continue taking up unfamiliar or uncomfortable practices and ideas. Secondly, when moments of disjuncture among frameworks and cultures were approached as opportunities to investigate questions or problems, seek resources or guidance, or engage in reflective practice, they resulted in productive friction that furthered focal teachers' sense-making processes. Ultimately, each teacher's established

Discourse(s) provided the “basis on which” the CHS Discourse(s) were learned (Gee, 2008; 2015). More than this, each teacher’s response to these dynamics shaped the nature, the efficiency, and the depth of his or her sense-making and appropriation of CHS course concepts, practices, cultures, and frameworks.

The findings presented in this chapter offer a backdrop of focal teacher learning situated in settings. In the next chapter, I zoom in to look at the details of learning focusing on what is learned in teachers’ day-to-day practices, including planning, delivering instruction, and interacting with students.

#### Chapter 4. “IT’S LIKE BUILDING AN AIRPLANE WHILE IT’S FLYING”: LEARNING IN AND THROUGH PRACTICE

This chapter examines the knowledge propagation of focal teachers situated within their ongoing practice in their high school settings. This examination builds from the descriptions of the cases provided in Chapter Two and adds to the analysis of teachers’ sense-making processes in Chapter Three by capturing what CE teachers learn in and through practice as defined (for the purposes of this chapter) as planning practices, classroom instruction, and interactions with students. In this chapter, I posit that teachers not only learn and practice simultaneously, rather, they learn in service of their practice as they determine repeatedly *how* to put their developing understandings *into practice* in the day’s lesson. That is, to plan instruction for the day (or week, or unit, or semester), they must develop new knowledge. Moreover, in the implementation of instructional plans based on developing knowledge, they further foster and refine their understanding of and their abilities in teaching composition in the CHS course.

Conceptually, my approach shares much with Beach (2003), who reminds us that, “Knowledge is constructed and reconstructed during transitions” (p. 42). This chapter details the knowledge that teachers construct and reconstruct as they experience consequential transitions. Like seeds planted in so many environments, teachers’ knowledge propagation took on different shape and nuance depending on their prior experience, the availability of material, conceptual, and social resources, and the teacher’s ability to recognize and make use of those resources. I argue in this chapter that teachers “learn on the job” as they take up new concepts and practices and engage in iterative cycles of learning to plan instruction, learning as they implement plans in the classroom and respond to student needs, and reflecting after instruction. Building on this, I argue that resources in teachers’ settings and from the CHS course afford teachers opportunities

to engage with the concepts, practices, and framing of the CHS course. As teachers gain experience with these resources in the iterative, practice-embedded learning cycles described above, they come to use them in increasingly informed ways. I further this analysis by investigating how the availability of technological and material resources supported and constrained teachers' real and perceived opportunities to learn in planning and practice. My general conclusion is that, in spite of their very different settings, identities, and starting points, all three teachers engage in knowledge propagation (Beach, 2003) as they integrate CHS tools in their thinking and practice.

### **The Monday Morning Problem: How Teachers Learn Even As They Teach**

Teaching is a profession filled with rewards, challenges, daily stresses, and daily triumphs. When schools are engaged in reforms or teachers are learning to do something new, one of the biggest and most persistent challenges with simultaneously learning and teaching is simply: "What will I teach on Monday, first period?" Known colloquially as, "the Monday morning problem," this notion that the students keep showing up class period after class period *even if* a teacher is involved in a significant learning process that is changing her existing practice, speaks to the complex and dynamic nature of teacher learning situated in practice. During their first year teaching the CHS course, all three teachers described negotiating the "Monday morning problem" (in so many words) even as they engaged in significant learning processes. A theme of uncertainty and nearly constant "in the moment" decision-making pervaded all three teachers' discussions of planning and practice. In the face of this uncertainty, teachers' responses were mediated by their understanding of the purpose or goal of the activity. While it sometimes seems on the surface that the "Monday Morning Problem" stymies teachers' ability to engage in depth with new concepts and practices, it is in repeatedly answering the

question of “What will I teach next?” that much knowledge propagation takes place. Ms. Ware offered a useful analogy for this process when she referenced a video that was a part of her school’s professional development to begin the year – teaching while learning something new is like building an airplane while it is flying (Electronic Data Systems, 2000). She says:

...since I've never taught [the CHS course] before I don't have a bunch of stuff already set up, so *it's like trying to build the plane when it's flying*.... It's that whole thing of, “Okay, let's try this. Oh, this didn't work, okay, let's start an argumentative essay. It's okay, that didn't work for you, so we're going to try something else.” So we do. That's the only [way] to do it, is test it, see if it works, and if it doesn't, we'll go back and fix it.

Ms. Ware was not alone in her characterization. All three teachers described a learning and instruction cycle that tested out approaches in practice and all three expressed a great deal of uncertainty as they spoke about their planning at various points in the year. Ultimately, teachers took up new concepts and practices as they engaged in iterative cycles of learning to “answer the Monday Morning problem,” learning as they implemented plans in the classroom and responded to student needs, and learning in reflection after instruction. Through these processes, their understandings and their practice became more sophisticated over time.

In the sections that follow, I will use observational and interview data to provide an overview of how this phenomenon worked in Dr. Ryan’s experience, offer details of what Mr. Alexander learned in his iterative cycles of planning, resource seeking, and practice, and offer analysis of how Ms. Ware moved through her process of learning in and through practice.

**Dr. Ryan: Applying familiar ideas in an unfamiliar context.** As discussed in Chapters Two and Three, Dr. Ryan began the year with a solid conceptual understanding of

the CHS framing, but her efforts to implement that understanding in the unfamiliar setting of her high school classroom moved forward in a series of stops and starts. As she endeavored to implement the CHS course in her high school setting, Dr. Ryan frequently made “on the fly” decisions both in her planning and her instruction. For the most part, she shared that this was due to her continued struggle to gauge how long assignment sequences and instructional activities would take in the high school classroom. While the other teachers worked with similar uncertainty, this particular struggle featured more prominently in Dr. Ryan’s experience. Further, Mr. Alexander and Ms. Ware were often unsure how long activities would take because they had never implemented similar instructional activities before, where Dr. Ryan’s uncertainty was in regard to how her students would pick the concepts up and due to unanticipated interruptions to instructional time.

Simply, Dr. Ryan’s high school context, and high school contexts in general, were, in many ways, foreign to her. In addition to this being her first year teaching high school, Dr. Ryan also noted that she had relatively little preparation for teaching in high school settings. Because she already had a PhD, she completed a “credential only” program to obtain her teaching certificate. Because she had significant teaching experience at the college level, her credential program waived a significant number of courses and required only a brief student teaching experience. A few weeks into the school year, Dr. Ryan began to feel what she called the “gaps” in her preparation. Most significantly, she noted not having had a secondary ELA Methods course and having spent so little time actually in a secondary context.

As she worked to make sense of this, she described trying to work out “what it means to be in the secondary system” and struggling with becoming accustomed to the “technical” aspects of high school teaching (scheduling, CCSS, grading practices and procedures) and the

day-to-day workings of a high school building. Where she had a “great comfort level” in the college setting, she was new and finding her way in her high school. Dr. Ryan noted many features of the high school setting, including disruptions from fire alarms, drains on instructional time due to interruptions like the flag salute and student announcements, issues with attendance, and the nature of grading that she did not anticipate. While she chose to move from teaching at the college level to teaching high school to try to “have more of an impact” in preparing students for the demands of college, on multiple instances, these factors built-in to the high school setting inhibited Dr. Ryan’s ability to deliver a college curriculum. Thus, in responding to the challenges that arose in this process and then in reflecting on those responses, Dr. Ryan developed a more complex and nuanced understanding of her stated goal of preparing high school students for college success. She did not import her understanding of college writing to a high school setting without complication. Rather, as she negotiated the implementation of the CHS course and learned about working in her high school setting, she cultivated new knowledge situated at the traditional divides between high school and college.

*Solving dilemmas of practice and knowledge propagation.* When asked about “what she is still working on” in her enactment of the CHS course, Dr. Ryan’s biggest consistent confusion was grading, specifically how to navigate giving students one grade “for the university” and another for their high school transcripts. She sought advice from the program and other CHS teachers on the university campus workshop days, but mainly got advice that she just needed to, “figure out what worked for her setting.” Given that she was new to her setting, this advice did not offer significant guidance. Interestingly, neither of the other two focal teachers said much about grading. They appeared to have made sense of the tension between settings, i.e. that grades are important in the high school setting because (among other

things) high school students “need” grades to participate in sports, but the university’s portfolio model gives feedback but not scores on all work prior to the portfolio to underscore the need to revise the work that goes into the portfolio. Throughout the year, Dr. Ryan frequently stated “figuring out grading” was “what [she was] working on.” This response indicated that the learning for her was about learning her setting, her students, and how to be a teacher in her high school setting rather than about CHS concepts and curriculum.

Dr. Ryan continued to wrestle with this tension as the year progressed, trying out a handful of different strategies before developing what she called “revision plans.” Before Dr. Ryan would put a grade in the high school grade book for an essay written for the CHS course, each student needed to submit a detailed, reflective “revision plan” based on both peer reviews and teacher feedback that they would then save and to use later in support of their portfolio revision. This construct facilitated Dr. Ryan’s negotiate the tension between the grades needed for school and the university’s (and her own) emphasis on revision and learning from feedback. Thus, Dr. Ryan’s response a persistent dilemma in her implementation of the CHS produced new knowledge and a valuable piece of scaffolding for the revision process.

*Putting all the concepts together into a “whole.”* Another point Dr. Ryan made about her efforts in planning and classroom instruction was her aim to deliver a consistent, quality “whole.” On this point, she articulated that one of her struggles in teaching the course was just “remembering all of the pieces at once” – that is, how all the outcomes “fit together” and remembering to highlight for students when they were practicing a particular skill, practice, or way of thinking attached to a particular outcome by working on an activity or an assignment. She figured that her ability to know all the pieces well enough to stitch them together would

come with time. Indeed, even her ability to articulate this is evidence of how her firm foundation in college level writing pedagogies supports her development of a more nuanced understanding. In her consequential transitions between the world of college writing that she knew well and the high school context in which she was immersed, Dr. Ryan experienced tension, learned in iterative cycles, and experienced knowledge propagation as she solved instructional dilemmas.

**Mr. Alexander: A “first draft” of the course.** Providing an additional analogy to complement Ms. Ware’s airplane (above), Mr. Alexander described planning and instruction of English 110 for the first time as a “first draft.” He said of this first draft that once he figured out the anchor texts and the major assignments, it was “just [him] winging it and building stuff to scaffold into it.” His situation in the first year was unique, in that he got a “second draft” the following semester when he taught English 110 to his junior class. Looking forward to that opportunity, he anticipated that looking at student work, the portfolios in particular, would allow him to better understand the course. Indeed, when he went on to prepare English 110 for his juniors, he made several adjustments. He described the adjustments he made to a particular assignment, explaining that he watched students and their decision-making as they crafted the assignment. He knew, based on where a significant number of students “got stopped,” how he needed to modify the assignment and the assignment sheet going forward. These adjustments were part of a larger sense in Mr. Alexander’s commentary of “learning through doing.”

Further, there was a sense among others at his school that, as he piloted the CHS course, Mr. Alexander was “learning on the job.” Mr. Murato, the principal with whom Mr. Alexander worked closely, explained, “the ‘ahas’ only come as you teach it.” Mr. Murato

expressed that he thought Mr. Alexander and his team would learn a great deal as they implemented the course. He was particularly encouraged because he knew that the whole department planned “to do some reflection” at the end of the year in which they would continue working to get their CHS/AP hybrid programs set for the following year and continue refining their 9-12<sup>th</sup> vertical alignment in their ELA courses toward the CHS composition course. As Mr. Murato described it, the team’s goal for the next few years was to learn and to “stabilize” so that they were able to refine the “drafts” put into place this year. Within this general sense of learning in practice, Mr. Alexander described a few specific areas of significant knowledge propagation throughout the course of his first year of practice.

These learnings came in three areas central to the CHS course’s framing of writing: metacognition (a “totally new” learning for Mr. Alexander), the distinction between a claim and a thesis (a refinement or update to his existing knowledge), and rhetorical awareness while engaging students in writing multiple genres (something Mr. Alexander previously had not thought of as a part of ELA courses). In the course of a year, Mr. Alexander moved from stating that his teaching of writing emphasized structure above all else (and identifying the most significant difference between high school and college writing as the sophistication of the texts) to stating that his teaching of writing emphasized argumentative claims, metacognitive reflection, and genre awareness. For Mr. Alexander, this knowledge propagation took place in the initial planning of each stage, in the day to day implementation of those plans, and as plans were expanded and repeated.

***Claims vs. Theses.*** About mid-way through his first time through teaching the English 110 course, Mr. Alexander noted that he and his department were working on how to transition “their vocabulary” from “thesis/topic sentence” to “major claim/minor claim.” As a

department, their work on this started about mid-year and continued throughout the remainder of the year, with the goal being the development of a scaffolding sequence to support student thinking around claims and theses within their four-year ELA curriculum in a “way that makes sense.” In early February, a department workshop put on with help from the CHS graduate student stewards featured learning around this distinction. Though the whole department began “confused about the difference between a claim and a thesis,” he felt they came to “a good understanding” as a result of the workshop. During a department PLC meeting in March, Mr. Alexander and his colleagues reviewed their understanding of argumentative claims. Responses among department members varied from framing particular aspects of claims for their students (e.g., “they should argue something outside of or bigger than the text”), to working to integrate the ideas from the CHS workshop into aspects of the Springboard curriculum, to admitting to remaining confusion. Work to clarify claims within academic argumentation continued throughout the year’s remaining department meetings. Based on this work, Mr. Alexander changed all of his essay prompts for second semester. In this way, this specific area of knowledge propagation represents a refinement of a concept already ingrained in the writing framework central to Mr. Alexander’s (and his department’s) writing instruction. Engaging in planning and collaboration with colleagues in workshops that bridged the university and high school settings provided Mr. Alexander with the opportunity to develop a refined understanding of this concept in relation to his developing practice.

***Reflection and Metacognition.*** In October, Mr. Alexander described learning about and how to implement reflection and metacognitive practices into his classroom as “the primary thing [he was] working on.” He said that such practices were entirely new to his teaching - “I’ve never even attempted it, tried it, thought about it.” Because it was so new, he

noted it as a difference that stood out to him as he looked at the university curriculum and so worked to begin incorporating the concepts as early as possible. In the early stages, he expressed being interested in seeing what “sort of responses kids give” and he intended to work throughout the year to “learn more about it.” In particular, he wanted to learn about “developing the right things for [students] to be thinking about [and asking] questions of themselves” that would help them be successful in their portfolios. Later in the year, he reflected that students’ reflections in the first semester were a bit like a list – “I did this, I did that” – rather than deeply reflecting on their own learning. Given that these students were in their fourth year of a program that had emphasized clarity and structure above all else, this tendency in early attempts to reflect on one’s writing process was very likely tied to the sorts of writing students had grown comfortable with. Mr. Alexander shared with students that the move to have them write more reflectively came directly from his university workshop. In developing this practice, he worked to build in more frequent, smaller reflections on their work throughout the semester.

In the spring, Mr. Alexander shared the reflective component of the curriculum was “going better.” He says he had emailed Simone, the graduate student steward assigned to his school, for resources to prepare for the portfolio (including scaffolded reflections to support the cover letter) and “that [had] helped.” Interestingly, even though he had identified metacognitive reflection as a focus, Mr. Alexander did not incorporate a reflective piece at a time when it made sense. Specifically, students did not write a metacognitive piece to accompany a creative, “screenplay assignment” that they wrote during English 112. Inclusion of reflections alongside creative pieces is a common practice in the CHS program to help them lay bare their thinking about addressing audience and communicating purpose,

but Mr. Alexander did not think to include such a reflection at that time. Rather, he expected that students would “do that thinking” as a part of their Cover Letter.

In general, being that it was such a new practice in his repertoire of instructional strategies, Mr. Alexander’s attempts at incorporating metacognitive reflection were met with mixed success. When he incorporated Simone’s tools he says he “just change[d] the instructor name, change[d] the dates.” Thus, while having these resources “helped,” he had not yet developed a firm understanding of how to incorporate metacognitive reflection into his instruction or how to leverage these practices to foster deep student learning. Mr. Alexander did, however, pay close attention to students’ responses to his efforts and continued to work to refine practices throughout the year and he ended the year with a belief that developing student metacognitive skills was an important part of developing prepared writers. In this way, his experiences making sense of the metacognitive reflection practices in the CHS curriculum helped him to cultivate new dimensions of his pedagogical content knowledge.

***Genre/Rhetorical awareness.*** Another new emphasis for Mr. Alexander in response to the CHS curriculum was the idea of incorporating multiple genres and developing students’ rhetorical awareness. While Mr. Alexander was certainly aware of other genres, he had previously understood “the job” of the English teacher to be to teach “multi-paragraph essays.” However, after Mr. Alexander had Dr. Sark review their curriculum and he highlighted the fact that students were only getting practice with a limited range of genres as an area to address, a shift toward writing in a range of genres became a central concern for Mr. Alexander.

As the year progressed, Mr. Alexander described learning about genre and rhetorical awareness as the most important learning he had in teaching the course. “We all thought that

in this department we taught writing as good as anyone else – but it was all multi-paragraph essays.” He said his thinking truly shifted after talking with Dr. Sark and after Calvin (another graduate student steward) had come to talk with Mr. Alexander’s department in a workshop about teaching genre. In fact, when I asked if Dr. Sark’s (and the CHS program’s) thoughts about teaching genre aligned with his own, Mr. Alexander responded with a dry laugh, “Now it does!” Before teaching this course, he said he thought that teaching genres other than literary analysis was not the responsibility of the English teacher, but he felt the CHS course had a different goal – “to prepare students to write in college.” Given this, he came to see incorporating multiple genres to be a central priority of his teaching of writing. In fact, in his teaching of English 112 second semester, students wrote a few essays, but also a proposal, an annotated bibliography, a screenplay, and a speech. He reflected that his students liked writing in multiple genres and that their willingness to keep writing improved because they were able to try something new. Moreover, he found that he liked reading them more because of the variety. In interviews and in practice, Mr. Alexander’s learning through planning and practice about genre and rhetorical awareness represented a fundamental shift in his writing instruction. Like refining his understanding of a claim in argumentative writing and developing his ability to foster students’ metacognitive capabilities, Mr. Alexander learned how and why to teach students to write flexibly in multiple genres in his consequential transitions between his university and high school settings.

In general, Mr. Alexander traced his learning to teaching the course first and foremost, to attending workshops (both on campus at the university and those that were arranged at his school), and from the response of the students – he noted that the majority of his students were writing “much, much better... the whole process has become easier for them” and that they

were responding to the higher-level readings and higher level thinking. He said that seeing this growth in students motivated him to keep going. Overall, Mr. Alexander reflected that planning and teaching the course, “opened up a whole new world of ideas.”

**Ms. Ware: Practicing her way into familiarity.** Throughout her first year teaching the CHS course, Ms. Ware was simultaneously involved in a significant learning process (about writing and writing pedagogies) and also constantly negotiating the “Monday morning problem.” Mirroring her tellings of other roles she had taken on in the past, Ms. Ware “jumped in” to the teaching of the CHS course even though she had doubts about her abilities to do so. As the year progressed, Ms. Ware practiced her way into familiarity with the CHS concepts and practices and she grew into her new role. While teaching, in particular while helping students prepare their portfolios (and in grading the portfolios), she deepened her understanding of the specifics of the CHS course, its framings of writing, and some of its pedagogical resources – the course structure and the course outcomes. That is, the practice of guiding students through the process of putting together their portfolios forced her to learn the course outcomes and framing well enough that she could help students craft arguments about them in their portfolio cover letters. This deepened understanding allowed her to look back on her year’s practice and identify areas of growth in relation to aligning with CHS course goals and structure that she had been unable to recognize in her initial planning.

**Opportunity to learn.** Because Ms. Ware’s entering frameworks for writing and writing instruction hinged almost entirely on the emphases on research and “nit-picky” feedback of her influential college writing course, she recognized that she had a great deal to learn about writing instruction. As such, she was excited for the CHS course and viewed teaching it as an opportunity to learn, stating that the CHS course “jump-started” a learning

process for her. Add to the equation that Ms. Ware was also in her first year of an online PhD program, she was, simply, learning *a lot* about *a lot* during the course of the school year.

Interestingly, Ms. Ware stated that her biggest growth during the year was *outside* of the classroom as a writer in her own right. Because she was also pursuing her PhD, she was writing much more than she had in her previous years as a teacher. Furthermore, she was able to bring her status as a student into the classroom and deploy this as a tool to show her students that she was working on her development as well. Her self-description of significant growth as a writer is key to her experience because, unlike before she taught the course, she now had another meaningful experience in her own path to becoming a “good” writer that could mediate the influence of the powerful college course that served as her initial model. So, as I discussed in Chapter Three, beginning with the aspects of writing instruction that were most familiar and comfortable to her made sense, but her significant growth during the year meant that she finished in June positioned to build on her learning throughout the year. In the following sections, I will examine the process by which Ms. Ware deepened her understanding of writing, writing instruction, and the CHS course in particular through her iterative negotiation of the “Monday Morning Problem.”

***Comfort, confidence, and feeling “grounded.”*** One of the most significant features of Ms. Ware’s development was that, over the course of the year, she grew in comfort and confidence as a writer and as a teacher of writing. She described in her interviews and she showed in practice that her confidence grew as her understanding of the CHS way of thinking about writing grew. Initially, Ms. Ware described writing and teaching writing as a “weak spot” that the CHS course was helping her address and so, though she felt unsure about her qualifications to teach it, she decided just to “jump in” as she had in her previous unfamiliar

professional experiences. She noted with some self-deprecating humor, that when she left her first CHS training she was unsure what the word “rhetoric” meant. She was able to look back on her starting point with humor because, even by October, she had already learned much more. As she described it, her attempts to figure out what rhetoric was and how you teach it led to a “bender” of learning about writing that included reading the university textbook, reading books on writing by Kelly Gallagher and Jim Burke, looking at the resources made available on line by the CHS program, and looking up “countless” other web-based writing instruction resources. By May, Ms. Ware spoke confidently about teaching writing and no longer expressed being unsure about her qualifications. The one “failed” moment in her teaching (that of teaching the Toulmin model referenced in Chapter 3), she framed as a “learning moment” that helped her determine what her students needed and ways that did not work to describe it to them. Because of experiences like this and her experience teaching the course day after day, she came to feel really “grounded” by the end of the school year when talking about writing, the writing process in particular, with students in all of her classes. Feeling “grounded” appeared to be of particular importance to Ms. Ware and represents a turning point in her development. Thus, in a multitude of small ways, her repeated interactions with the CHS concepts in her initial and ongoing planning processes result (over time) in the propagation of knowledge about writing instruction that met Ms. Ware’s needs in her context.

***Developing student “independence.”*** Further, as she gained this sense of feeling grounded, Ms. Ware was better able to move away from teacher-directed instruction and feedback around Standard English. Work time was a frequent practice in all three teachers’ classrooms – in fact, Ms. Ware estimated that CHS students spent up to forty percent of their total class time engaged in independent work. Over the course of the year, work time became

more productive in Ms. Ware's classroom as her students were better positioned to take advantage of the time. This concept of independence, however, changed in its instantiations in her classroom throughout the year. On one occasion early in the year, Ms. Ware told students that if they did not use their work time productively it would be "their problem." In this instance, students had independence with little accompanying support. Ms. Ware, frustrated with students who got off task during unstructured time, wished to communicate with students that they were the primary party responsible for making use of available time. This trend continued well into the year. During an observation near the end of the first semester, Ms. Ware's primary interactions during work time were management oriented. For instance, she stated to the whole group upon observing many students not actively working: "I don't want to hear complaining when all of this is due." However, in addition to this messaging, she also checked in with particular students who she anticipated would have trouble concentrating. She also shared with me that her plan for the day following work time would be to "help [the students] organize their portfolios," indicating that she was walking students through the portfolio process.

***Teacher as primary thinker and "right way" instruction.*** During the observation described above, Ms. Ware was met with many questions when she left her desk to circulate around the room. In these interactions, Ms. Ware took on the role of the primary thinker in the interactions and predominantly framed answers in terms of the "right way" to complete a task, indicating that there was a single "right way" to do it.

Two instances from Ms. Ware's interactions with students during their work toward compiling their first portfolio and cover letter help illustrate this pattern. In the first instance, a student asked:

For my outcome 4 [the paragraph that discusses Outcome Four in the cover letter], I want to use my personal statement, but I did a couple more drafts after what you graded. Do I quote from my final draft for evidence?

And Ms. Ware responded:

Point to specific places where you made changes; do pull some of your evidence from the version that I made comments on, but you can quote from both.

On another occasion, a student asked:

So our claim in this letter is that we've completed all the outcomes that you gave us?

And Ms. Ware responded:

Yes, and that you understand them.

In both cases, Ms. Ware responded to the student's question directly and suggested a single appropriate answer or course of action. She did not give the student a chance to discover an answer to the question by posing follow up questions to activate their knowledge of the outcomes, purpose of the cover letter, or their prior work. This pattern of interaction dominated during work time and instruction, where Ms. Ware's modeling of tasks also suggested a single appropriate procedure and thought process for tasks such as peer review and data analysis.

In contrast to the trend described above, in a May observation of independent work time, students were observed working consistently and independently, using their available resources (prior papers, handouts, Course Outcome sheets) actively to support the work of compiling the second portfolio.

When students did ask questions during the May observation, Ms. Ware allowed students to be the primary thinkers – asking follow up questions or having students look at and think about particular lines in their papers. In one instance, a student came to Ms. Ware with a draft of a paper that she was working to revise and asked, “How can I make it stronger here at the end, cuz I always [struggle with finishing strong.]” In response, Ms. Ware suggested some ideas for her to consider, such as why the author’s popularity continued, and she engaged the student in a conversation about some potential ways to add depth to the section. In this way, Ms. Ware was able to support the student without giving the student the “right” way to do “it” and while letting the student remain in the role of the primary thinker. As Ms. Ware’s knowledge of and comfort with the curriculum deepened, she was able to loose her grip on instructional interactions and was better equipped to support her students’ independent thinking about composition concepts and practices. This clear, observable shift in Ms. Ware’s practice and underlying thinking demonstrates her continued, iterative process of knowledge propagation.

Dr. Ryan, Mr. Alexander, and Ms. Ware all felt a sense of constant revision during their first year teaching the CHS course, however, knowledge propagation was a result of their continued efforts to refine their understanding in support of their practice. This refinement was also reflected in their abilities to use resources (particularly those from the CHS program) to support their instruction.

### **How Do Focal Teachers Come to Use Resources in Increasingly Informed Ways?**

A significant feature of learning in and through practice for CE teachers was the way in which they came to use the conceptual, social, and material resources available to them in increasingly informed ways. These resources (such as the course textbook or shared curricular materials) contained conceptual and pedagogical tools to support teacher learning and practice.

Such tools are of particular importance to CE teachers' practice because, while they are members of multiple teaching communities, much of the cognitive and practical work of implementing the CHS curriculum is done on one's own, in one's individual classroom. That is, while the CHS program is a community of teachers, individual teachers do the work of planning and teaching on their own in their school sites. While each teacher works within department and school teaching communities, CE teachers are typically alone in teaching the course at their school site. Edwards (2015), further asserts that knowledge is propagated by individuals using resources and tools in practice. Moreover, as individuals use such tools in different settings, within different practices, and to different ends, the tools themselves come to be refined differently. This is true in the experiences of all three focal teachers. Teachers' use of CHS specific resources, including the course textbook and the course outcomes, was related to their learning. That is, as teachers' knowledge and understanding of the CHS course, its framing, and ways to implement these in practice developed, they became better able to make use of resources and tools in their teaching practice in more sophisticated ways. In this way, tools and resources play an important role in the knowledge propagation embedded in planning and classroom practice. The sections that follow show how CHS resources afforded teachers opportunities to take up the concepts, practices, and framing of the CHS program and how as teachers gained experience with these in iterative cycles, they come to use resources in increasingly informed ways. Further, they discuss how the availability of technological and material resources supports or constrains teachers' real and perceived opportunities to learn in planning and practice.

**Mr. Alexander's use of conceptual resources.** As described above, Mr. Alexander identified Claims and Argument, Reflection and Metacognition, Genre/Rhetorical Analysis, and Understanding/Working with Text as his central foci for the course when he reflected back on

his experience at the end of the year. These concepts are key components of the course outcomes (Outcomes 3,4,1, and 2, respectively) but he did not talk about them as such. That is, while he generally spoke about the above concepts with detail and familiarity, he tended not to talk about them in terms of their outcome labels (Outcome One as a stand-in for “Rhetorical Awareness and Flexibility,” for instance) as is typically done by teachers in the CHS program. This tendency was likely tied to his professional purpose in deepening his understanding of the concepts, which was not only to teach the CHS course, but also to use its frameworks as guiding principles in his department’s larger revision to their 9-12<sup>th</sup> grade writing program. In fact, even as Mr. Alexander became comfortable using the CHS course textbook as a pedagogical resource and the concepts undergirding CHS course outcomes as conceptual resources for talking about writing and designing writing assignments, he and his department were creating their own, hybrid documents and resources to support not just the CHS course, but also their vertical alignment toward the CHS concepts and framing. For instance, during a department PLC meeting in March, teachers worked to use concepts from both the CHS course outcomes and the Common Core State Standards to create a hybrid set of writing outcomes to serve as the basis of their 4 year writing program as a department. As an example of Mr. Alexander’s collateral transition, which takes place within an ongoing encompassing transition (i.e., Beach, 1999; 2003), I will offer more detail about these and other hybrid tools in Chapter Six.

***Technological resources in Mr. Alexander’s setting.*** Further supporting his developing practice, Mr. Alexander’s setting afforded him consistent access to technology, which helped him foster systems for productive work time. In fact, students working independently and productively was a feature of all of Mr. Alexander’s classes. Across observations of his classes, the CHS class was notably on task and students appeared comfortable working independently

and following routines. Mr. Alexander believed that allowing his CHS students extra time to work in class was an important part of the translation of a college level course to a high school setting, in that it gave high school students more time and more support in completing work at higher levels. To support productive work time, Mr. Alexander said he developed procedures that students came to expect, including that he would start the class period by setting up what was expected of students during work time before “turning them loose” to work. On one occasion, students were expected to be working on their cover letter, so Mr. Alexander gave them a list of “all the things they need[ed]” to include in each paragraph to guide their work. This resource supported students’ ability to work productively and reflected (in its “paragraph by paragraph” expectations) Mr. Alexander’s pre-CHS commitment to structure and organization in writing above all else. All of this scaffolding was made possible by the fact that Mr. Alexander was able to keep a cart full of laptop computers stored in his classroom and because students could work on their drafts, save them to district servers, and easily communicate with Mr. Alexander and with one another.

In sum, in support of his larger “project” of the curricular revision of his department’s model for writing instruction, Mr. Alexander took up the concepts of the CHS program. His appropriation was colored by how he envisions the purpose of these concepts in his professional life – that is, he does not fit them into the framework and specialized vocabulary of the Course Outcomes, necessarily, because for him they are a part of something bigger. He leads his department in the appropriation of new ideas as they work collaboratively to develop a new model to serve as a counterpoint to the district’s Springboard/AP model. Within the confines of his own classroom, his work was supported by consistent access to technological resources. Here again, knowledge propagation takes place among consequential transitions embedded in practice.

**Dr. Ryan’s easy appropriation of CHS resources into existing frameworks.** As discussed in previous chapters, Dr. Ryan’s previous frameworks for writing instruction were well-aligned with those at the center of the CHS course. As such, Dr. Ryan relied on instructional resources from the university, including the course textbook and the course outcomes and structure, to support both planning and instruction from the very early stages of planning for the school year. This adoption was further supported by her ability to envision how to use the resources due to her previous experiences teaching composition at the college level and by her students’ access to the textbook as a resource.

***The course textbook.*** Early in her planning process, Dr. Ryan described finding the course textbook to be a particularly valuable resource in designing instructional sequences, daily instruction, and sorting out how she would frame college composition to her CHS students. When describing her efforts to frame writing at the college level to her students, Dr. Ryan talked about using concepts from the textbooks both to refine her own thinking and to communicate with the students:

This concept [in the introduction of the textbook] of “hospitality,” which means you are open-minded, and you are open to all viewpoints [proved very helpful in communicating framing]. It doesn't matter what your personal view is, it doesn't matter if you agree with them or not, and it's not binary thinking. It's complex, it's all complex. I'm just in love with this whole section.

[With students, I] talk about the idea of response, I think it's in the first chapter, and what response means in this book, which is a really different idea than if you think of the word “response.” But it's this idea of meeting the text at its own level, not summarizing, but responding critically. That's what I'm trying to focus on, that we don't summarize, that we respond, and we have something to say about the text that goes beyond just repeating what it says. The idea of inquiry, as well. Those are the things I'm trying to emphasize, I'm trying to frame the writing in that way.

Because she found it particularly adept at framing concepts that she already saw as central to the approach to teaching writing “she believes in,” Dr. Ryan used the course textbook as an early

resource to support planning and an ongoing tool to support instruction. In an early observation, for instance, she built on her students' incoming understanding of metacognition (a concept they were familiar with from one of their earlier teachers, since her group has largely moved through Honors classes as a cohort) by asking them to answer questions at the end of the textbook's section on metacognition in college writing. Short assignments such as this, both as entry tasks in class or as short homework assignments reading sections of the text or answering discussion questions included in the text, were a common feature of Dr. Ryan's instruction of CHS concepts.

*The "language of the outcomes."* Additionally, Dr. Ryan talked about the outcomes and details of their conceptual underpinning from my very first visit in both interviews and instruction. Reflecting this, her students also demonstrated clear understanding of the outcomes during classroom observations. During English 112, when discussing short stories, Dr. Ryan noted that fiction writers craft everything – from the individual words in their titles of their stories to the placement of punctuation marks – to communicate a message to their audience. She further connected this idea to Outcome One; in this way, she made explicit the connection between ideas. In this particular instance, students had recently read "The Short Happy Life of Francis Macomber" by Ernest Hemingway and she asked them, "What does this title make you expect? Is that what you experience?" and discussion ensued about how one expects a happy story, but the word "short" is a clue that the story might not be entirely happy. One student suggested that it would depend on who the intended audience of the story was – adults would be more likely to take meaning away from the word "short" in the title than younger readers. Dr. Ryan steered this conversation toward a discussion about how Outcome One "works" in fiction, having noticed a natural connection and wanting to help students see the translation of the

Outcome in another genre. On another occasion, one of my observations happened to coincide with one of Dr. Ryan's visits from Kristen, the graduate student steward assigned to her school site. On her visit, Kristen noted how much students were using "the language of the outcomes" in class and made sure to share with Dr. Ryan how pleased she was to see this.

Dr. Ryan is more critical of her attempts to teach her students the outcomes, however. Throughout the year, Dr. Ryan noted that her students were adept at reading and discussing key concepts from the university's curriculum, but struggled to "apply" them. There is parallelism between this trend and Dr. Ryan's deep familiarity with concepts and framing, but lack of experience in instruction in high school contexts. That is, she was comfortable teaching the conceptual groundwork of the course because it aligned with her previous understanding, but she was less adept at scaffolding high school students toward application because she had less experience teaching high school students. Moreover, this trend aligns with discussion of the difficulty of "teaching transfer" that is referred to in the literature on college composition pedagogies (e.g., Smit, 2004).

Evidence of this trend in practice came when Dr. Ryan engaged her students in a class activity to identify which of their papers from the semester would best serve as evidence to support an argument of having met each outcome in their portfolio cover letters. Students were easily able to put the outcomes into their own words (the first part of a group activity), but when asked to identify which papers likely contained the best evidence for each outcome, the trend in student responses was to include just about all of the papers for every outcome, rather demonstrating an ability to think critically about what might serve as particularly good evidence in each case. Dr. Ryan worked to push student thinking during class discussion by asking follow-up questions and using very specific language from each outcome, but confided after class that

she was “disappointed in their ability to talk about how their assignments would meet the outcomes” and that she “want[ed] to think about how to get them to understand what this entails on a deeper level.” She thought she might next have them look at examples to see where they have worked with that idea with more specificity. Her familiarity with teaching a similar curriculum, however, allows her even to notice and name this trend early in the year. By the semester switch, she has identified potential solutions: explicitly “calling out” when students are practicing the skills of a particular outcome (as she did in the Hemingway example above) and using the Outcome document more centrally. In this way, Dr. Ryan’s solid foundation in the conceptual underpinnings of the CHS course served as fertile ground for knowledge propagation that she cultivated by continued adaptations to her classroom practice based on student responses.

*Access to technology.* To an even greater extent than Mr. Alexander, Dr. Ryan also had consistent and well-integrated access to technology. In class, every student had a ChromeBook and they also had access to Google Drive at home. There did not appear to be any students for whom home internet access is a problem. Dr. Ryan liked that students could collaborate easily and that she could easily share documents with students, but noted that her students became distracted easily when working on their ChromeBooks. Over the course of the year for Dr. Ryan, technology seems to become an increasingly double edged sword – distracting students, failing at inopportune times, and creating confusion (such as students becoming confused about which folder to look in to find a document). In spite of a persistent tension in her discussion of technology due to these challenges, Dr. Ryan remains committed to incorporating it because her experience tells her that students will need to be comfortable completing work on computer platforms and interacting with academic technologies when they transition to college. Dr. Ryan

learns within practice what does and does not work well with regard to using technology productively and effectively and demonstrates an ability to reflect on her practices in service of refining them.

In sum, more than simply giving her an easy place to begin, Dr. Ryan's early familiarity with and understanding of the Course Outcomes and her affinity for the course textbook served as an important foundation upon which she was able to identify areas of weakness in her teaching of the CHS course and from which she was able to refine her practice. Like Mr. Alexander, these efforts were further supported by the consistent access to technology in her classroom. Dr. Ryan's commitment to integrating available technologies into instruction was further influenced by her prior experiences teaching at the college level. As she made sense of integrating technological tools into her classroom, Dr. Ryan relied on conscious reflection after teaching to develop new plans and strategies for productive use of classroom technology.

**Ms. Ware's building up the capacity to recognize and utilize resources.** As reviewed in Chapter One and discussed in Chapter Three, an individual's use of resources has to do with both the resources available in her environment (affordances of the context) and her capacity to recognize and "transform [them] into an actual and effective action[s]" (Gee, 2008, p. 81), also termed "effectivities" (Volet, 1999). Ms. Ware, beginning as she did with little grounding in writing and writing pedagogies, developed her capacities in this way significantly throughout the year.

**Reliance on known resources.** Early in the year, Ms. Ware relied primarily on the materials – curricula, handouts, assignments – of the prior CHS teacher in her setting. With little variance, this reliance superseded her use of university resources until very near the end of the year. Ms. Ware said that to support her planning, she looked to the prior teacher's work and

sought her advice (as she was still in the building, though no longer teaching the CHS course).

Ms. Ware described her planning process as taking the prior year's materials and "tweaking" them to "work for her." Even starting with these materials as a jumping off point, Ms. Ware said that planning for the CHS course took 7-8 times longer than planning for her other courses.

While Ms. Ware planned the first portfolio sequence using the prior teacher's materials, most of her learning during the portfolio process came in working through the materials with students and helping them make sense of how to make arguments about the evidence in their work of mastery of the outcomes. Because she did not do deep thinking in the planning stage or interact with university resources, instead simply updating "last year's materials," Ms. Ware was not compelled to unpack the concepts undergirding the course outcomes until she worked through the process with students. This speaks to a larger trend – Ms. Ware's development was slowed because she did not use the CHS resources actively until late in the year. That is, if knowledge is generated through using tools and resources in practice (Edwards, 2015), Ms. Ware unknowingly limited her own opportunities to generate knowledge by delaying her interactions with CHS resources.

Her inclination toward using existing materials over raw interaction with CHS tools was further stymied by the reality her students did not have access to the CHS course textbook. Thus, while she noted that the course textbook was a useful part of her initial learning process, she did not return to it as a planning tool, because it seemed of limited value to her in instruction. In this way, this contextual reality also places a limit on Ms. Ware's opportunities to learn via interaction with CHS resources.

***Making curricula "more [her] own."*** By May, Ms. Ware showed an increasing desire to make the curriculum and her teaching materials "more [her] own." Observational and interview

data from the course of the year, when considered over time, showed that Ms. Ware's ability to make things "more her own" was related to the development of her conceptual frameworks for writing and writing pedagogy. Until she developed a foundational understanding, she did not have the conceptual resources to engage in deliberate practice (Ericcson, 2006). In her first year teaching the course, "how things have been done" in the CHS course at her school set the course for her planning, though there was a gradual shift toward making the course "more her own." Ms. Ware described how the English 112 course trajectory was largely set by the dates of the trip to the relatively near-by Ashland (Oregon) Shakespeare Festival, a long-time CHS course tradition at her school that was cherished by CHS students. Using the trip as a touchstone, she described doing much more planning to "fit her personality" in English 112 than she did in English 110. In the case of her first time teaching English 112, the process of making things her own revolved around teaching different fiction texts than the prior teacher. Instead, she chose to draw on her own strengths (such as her expertise with Gothic Literature) and ask students what they would most like to read. With texts selected and the influence of the Ashland trip (it determines "which Shakespeare" is read based on what plays are featured at the festival as well as forcing the timing of much of the semester), Ms. Ware mainly modified the assignments created by the prior teacher to fit her texts and her timing. As she neared the end of teaching the course for the first time, she realized that the prior teacher's materials were not all well aligned to the university's current expectations. Given that the prior teacher had been teaching the course for more than a decade, and that in that time the EWP program had undergone some major shifts, Ms. Ware was not surprised by this upon reflection. At earlier points in the year, however, she did not have the capacity to recognize this disjuncture.

*Ms. Ware's use of the course outcomes in practice over time.* As Ms. Ware became more familiar with the CHS course and as her comfort with and knowledge of composition theories and pedagogies grew, she was better able (had developed greater effectivities) to make use of university resources. For the course outcomes in particular, guiding students through the process of their first portfolio functioned as a turning point. When discussing her planning and instruction, Ms. Ware did not mention using the course outcomes until January. In practice, students did one early year activity (an idea mentioned in summer training) in which they put the outcomes into their own words, and then rarely referenced outcomes until preparing for portfolio work. As mentioned above, however, when Ms. Ware was forced to think deeply about the outcomes as she helps students develop their portfolios for the first time, she developed her understanding of them and the concepts at their core. During an observation leading up to the first portfolio, I observed a student interaction that began with a surface level/correctness concern develop into a discussion about audience – which both Ms. Ware and the student connected to Outcome One. Specifically, the student asked whether she should use a colon or a comma after the salutation on the cover letter. Ms. Ware explained that since she was their audience and they knew her well, a comma would be appropriate; a colon might be more appropriate if they were writing to someone they did not know. At seemingly the same moment, both Ms. Ware and the student recognized this as related to the audience concerns at the center of Outcome One. In this way, the interactions that Ms. Ware had with CHS conceptual material in practice helped her to build bridges between her existing knowledge about writing and the framings of the CHS course, including the nature of the portfolio development process and the cover letter's reliance on the outcomes to define its argument. Because these many complex

ideas come together in the portfolio development process, it served as a particularly important turning point for Ms. Ware's knowledge propagation associated with the CHS course.

After the first portfolio was complete, Ms. Ware and her students notably displayed more comfort and familiarity with the outcomes and, by the time students were working on their second portfolio, "the language of the outcomes" was present in the classroom and students' talk. Further, by our May interview, Ms. Ware had transitioned in her talk about planning and instruction to speaking in terms of the outcomes. In fact, reflecting on her practice in the interview seemed to bring to the fore for her some realizations about her planning and practice. Specifically, she realized that in her teaching of English 112, she had emphasized Outcomes One and Four, but had been "light on Outcomes Two and Three." From her tone, it appeared that she had not realized this until she began reflecting on the semester in our interview. As she spoke, it was also evident that her understanding of those outcomes had become developed enough by that point to discuss how and why she thought she had not emphasized them with some clarity and depth. She stated that she intended to re-work her curriculum next year using the outcomes so that she would have a better balance and, having developed her understanding of the course structure, framing, and concepts in practice, she was better positioned to do so in her second year teaching the course. Furthering her knowledge propagation in consequential transitions, Ms. Ware's interactions with students in the classroom forced engagement with the course outcomes and the concepts underlying them and so provided pivotal opportunities to learn.

*Access to technology and impact on work time.* As discussed above, the Ms. Ware's practice also included a significant amount of work time to support her high school students' capacities to complete college level work. The limited access to computers in her setting, however, impacted the structure, length, and effectiveness of in class work time. Ms. Ware

explained that, in the whole school, there were only two computer labs and one space in the library that had computers. One of the two computer labs was so far away from her room, that with travel time and the constraints of a single class period, she felt it would not have made logical sense to try to take her students there. Given this limited availability, there were multiple instances when Ms. Ware was not able to reserve computer space at times when it would make sense for students to use them in class. On one occasion when I was observing, Ms. Ware had been unable to reserve the computer lab on the day that made the most sense in her planning, so she reserved it for a day earlier, when it was available. During my observation, students were not able to use the computer time well, because they had not yet done the pre-writing and thinking work that would have set them up for using the computers to compose drafts. Ms. Ware indicated that this was not a rare occurrence and said that much of the time students drafted by hand and those who were able typed at home. In this and other ways, limited access to resources inhibited her ability to provide an “authentic” college experience.

Ultimately, Ms. Ware’s underdeveloped entering framework for writing and her reliance on alternate resources in the form of the materials of the prior CHS teacher meant that she did not work closely with CHS resources until supporting her students through the portfolio process. These factors, along with the lack of resources in her setting including CHS textbooks for students and consistent access to technology, limited Ms. Ware’s opportunities for knowledge propagation rooted in interacting with conceptual and practical tools. However, her persistence, fueled by her motivation to serve her students and her interactions with them in classroom practice, ensured that her experience teaching the course ultimately led to the cultivation of new knowledge and practices for Ms. Ware in her setting.

## Conclusion

Taken together, the stories of each of three focal teachers learning by doing, “drafting,” and “build[ing] the plane [while] it’s flying,” illustrate the dynamic of knowledge propagation through engaging in practice and in consequential transitions among the “worlds” of college and high school. As focal teachers responded to uncertainty in their ability to plan instruction by reaching out and collaborating, by engaging in cycles of instruction and reflection, and by responding to the needs of their students, they “constructed and reconstructed” the knowledge they needed to teach the CHS course successfully in their contexts. Moreover, as teachers interacted with CHS resources in planning and instructional practice, they refined the resources to their purposes and they developed their understanding of both the resources and the concepts represented by them such that they were able to use them in increasingly sophisticated ways. In these ways, teachers were simultaneously impacted in their ability to practice and to learn by features of their settings and engaged as active agents in the cultivation of their knowledge of new concepts and practices. Although considerable differences existed in the details of focal teachers’ learning in practice, the trends described here suggest that viewing learning as intricately embedded within teaching practice is critical to understanding meaningful teacher learning situated within professional settings.

The findings presented in this chapter add particularity to larger dynamics of focal teachers’ sense-making laid out in Chapter Three. In the next chapter, I offer insight into another key component of teacher learning in practice: teachers’ practice linked identities. To investigate the role of identity in teachers’ development, I consider teachers’ development of practice-linked identities, the availability and influence of the identity resources (Nasir & Cooks, 2009) in each

teacher's setting and practice, and the intersection between teachers' positionality and their identity craftwork (Beach, 2003) during the course of the school year.

## Chapter 5. BECOMING A COLLEGE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER: TEACHERS' IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT IN PRACTICE

In Chapters Three and Four, I discuss teachers' development in terms of sense-making processes and knowledge propagation. These discussions include analysis of how factors including Discourses, material and relational resources, and teachers' effectivities drawn from prior knowledge and experience interact in teachers' practice to mediate teachers' learning and development. Taken together, these chapters help me answer my primary research question, "How do teachers' Discourses, material and relational resources, and identities interact to mediate their learning in practice?" by answering the following sub-questions: (a) How are the sense-making processes of focal teachers mediated by the affordances and constraints of their settings? (b) How do teachers' Discourses for teaching mediate their capacity to recognize and make use of affordances in their environments? (c) How do focal teachers "construct and reconstruct" (Beach, 2003) knowledge as they learn in service of their teaching practice and, simultaneously, learn as a result of reflective practice? In this chapter, I take up the remaining piece of the puzzle: teachers' practice-linked identities. This discussion completes the holistic picture of teacher development sought by this research and answers my remaining sub-question: What is the relationship among focal teachers' engagement with identity resources, practice-linked identities, and agency?

To answer this question, I begin by documenting teachers' self-authorship with regard to their development of professional identities tied to teaching the CHS course. All three teachers come to see themselves not as a college instructor, but as a "new kind" of high school teacher. I posit that this self-authorship provides evidence of a shift in teachers' "sense of self or social position," which is key to understanding the nature of their consequential transitions (Beach, 2003). I then examine how teachers develop a sense of self in relation to the practice by engaging

with identity resources (Nasir & Cooks, 2009). Such engagement is a particularly important mediating factor for CE teachers because they must develop CHS practice-linked identities while not “immersed” in a CHS setting (cf. Gee, 2008; 2015). Building on this, I argue that the positioning of the course within school settings, teachers’ positional identities, their prior experiences, motivations, and their ongoing learning processes mediate how teachers engage with available identity resources. I conclude by reflecting on how a strong sense of self in relation to CHS practice served as a source of agency for teachers as they engaged in and learned from their developing practice. Ultimately, this chapter argues that focal CE teachers take up visions of what it means to teach, what it means to teach well, what it means to teach college level writing, and what it means to teach “their students” in a process of self-authorship that mediates their sense of self and their experience of agency in the practice, which thereby impacts their practices and their navigation of roles within their settings.

### **Becoming A “College in the High School” Teacher**

This research was interested in discovering how, in addition to the types of learning described in Chapters Three and Four, CE teachers came to develop practiced-linked CHS teaching identities and whether or not they came to see themselves as different kinds of teachers (cf. Nasir & Cooks, 2009). In particular, given the persistent and pervasive perception of the large divide that separates high school and college and the equally persistent and pervasive perception of the differences between high school teachers and college instructors (as laid out in Chapter One), this study was interested in the extent to which CE teachers came to see themselves as becoming college instructors. Across cases, teacher self-narrative offered nuance to the predominant narratives of high school and college divides and challenged the binary nature of such framing. In fact, rather than coming to see themselves as (either wholly, or in part)

college instructors, CE teachers came to see themselves as a “different kind” of high school teacher. A strong pattern among the three focal teachers emerged that, while there were aspects of who they were becoming and the practices in which they engaged which were not well-categorized by their interpretations of what it means to be a high school English teacher, they did not see themselves as adopting an identity as a college instructor. Even Dr. Ryan, who came in with an identity as a college instructor, felt in this work like she was predominantly a high school teacher. As this pattern emerged, it became clear that their role as CE teachers resisted categorization as either high school teacher or college instructor because becoming a “college in the high school teacher” is something unique in itself. Like much of the scholarship on the high school/college divide, CE teachers’ identity work in practice resisted traditional binaries. In this way, teachers felt that they were not becoming college instructors so much as “a new kind” of high school teacher (cf. Beach’s description of Nepali shopkeepers, 1999, 2003).

Indeed, all three teachers “feel like” high school teachers in their CHS work. Consistent across cases was the notion that the course *content* and *curriculum* is attached to the university, but not (a) their classrooms, (b) their teaching, (c) their students, or (d) themselves as teachers. That is the content (texts, assignments, rigor) come from the “world” of college, however, the settings, identity, and work in practice all exist in the “world” of high school.

When asked how and when he felt like a college instructor when planning or teaching the CHS course, Mr. Alexander responded that still saw himself as primarily a high school teacher. He said, he, “hadn’t really thought of it that way [as occupying the role of a university instructor.]” In his view, *the course* is a university entity, but *he* is still a high school teacher. Because of this view, he said that work to ensure that the planning, work, and grading are “authentic” felt like “college level” work, but “everything else [felt] like” high school teaching.

Ms. Ware and Dr. Ryan echoed these sentiments. In particular, all three teachers express the idea that managing student behavior pushes them into a “high school” teacher role. Thus, focal teachers felt that some of the work (planning, grading) of teaching the CHS course was done at the college level, but the bulk of it was at the high school level. Their participation in new practices, and the learning associated with that participation, however, did afford them opportunities to develop shifting identities as new kinds of high school teachers. The sections that follow will offer more specificity as to what sort of “new kind of high school teacher” each focal teacher becomes and the factors at play in their identity development.

### **Engagement with Identity Resources**

This section lays out conditions that contextualize how teachers developed a sense of self in relation to CHS practice via engagement with identity resources (Nasir & Cooks, 2009) and suggests that such engagement is of particular importance to focal teachers’ professional identity development because they develop “CHS” identities even while they remain in “high school” settings. Across cases, the positioning of the CHS course within the school site played a key role in teachers’ identity development, in part because the institutional positioning of the CHS course – as outside of or apart from state and district requirements (such as the Common Core State Standards) – afforded teachers more agency relative to their “regular” high school teaching. Further, teachers were also positioned by the CHS program as expert practitioners who had agency both to deliver the curriculum as they saw fit in their school site, and also to determine when to reach out to CHS for support or resources. My general conclusion is that many factors, including course-positioning, teachers’ positioning, teachers’ prior experiences, teachers’ motivations, and teachers’ ongoing learning processes, mediated how teachers engaged with

material, relational, and ideational resources. Next, I explore how these factors interacted in the experience of each focal teacher as they enacted the course for the first time.

**Dr. Ryan.** Dr. Ryan's professional identity shifts over the course of the year such that she moves from seeing herself as a comfortable and confident college writing instructor to seeing herself as a high school teacher who is lucky to be able to draw upon her prior experiences teaching at the college level. This shift was paired with another tendency in Dr. Ryan's trajectory of identity development – as the year progressed, and Dr. Ryan tested out approaches to being a high school teacher, her sense of self became, in many ways, less clearly defined than when she began the school year. These shifts are linked to Dr. Ryan's engagement with material, relational, and ideational identity resources. Further, her engagement with these resources was impacted by her motivation for teaching the course, the positioning of the course within her setting, and her positioning as a new high school teacher.

At the beginning of the year, Dr. Ryan expressed a strong affinity for writing and for being a writing instructor. She had “always seen [herself] as a writing teacher” and writing had always been a central part of her life. This strong central identification with the identity of a writing teacher did not disappear as she acclimated to her role in the high school setting, but it necessarily changed as her daily practice called her to “craft new answers” to the new dilemmas that arose from engaging in new practices (Holland et al., 1998). As the year progressed, she saw herself as growing more and more toward being a high school teacher. In her previous work, when Dr. Ryan imagined how she could have the greatest impact on students' success at the college level, she said that she “saw her place” as teaching at the high school level. Once engaged in teaching high school students in a high school setting, she needed to reconcile her image of herself as a high school teacher with the reality of being a high school teacher. To

become a “new sort” of teacher, Dr. Ryan needed to marry her identity as a writer and college writing teacher with the role she now occupied.

Dr. Ryan’s attempts to do this were driven by her understanding of her purpose in teaching the CHS course. She was motivated to teach at the high school level in the first place because of her experiences seeing students struggle in college level courses and her perception that more could be done to ensure students could succeed at the college level. Early in the year, Dr. Ryan expressed wanting to teach her high school students “how to be a college student” in terms of accountability, being proactive, and thinking for oneself. This intention in itself rather blurs the boundaries of “being a high school teacher” and “being a college instructor.” In Dr. Ryan’s view, the fact that she was a former college instructor teaching a college level course to high school students allowed her to teach her students explicitly about college instructors’ expectations in a lower risk, high school environment.

This central intention, along with her established Discourses for writing instruction discussed in Chapters Three and Four, served as ideational resources for Dr. Ryan. She used these strongly felt ideational resources to facilitate her early use of material resources. That is, because she had strong “ideas about [herself] and [her] relationship to and place in the practice and the world, as well as ideas about what is valued and what is good,” she was able to make immediate and frequent use of material resources such as the course text book and course outcomes in her planning and instruction (Nasir & Cooks, 2009, p. 44). For Dr. Ryan, the CHS material resources are more than just planning tools. Students in Dr. Ryan’s class use either the textbook or the course outcomes in nearly every observed lesson. This additional – iterative – interaction with these resources further cement them as ideational resources that foster her initial development of a CHS identity.

While Dr. Ryan's prior experiences teaching writing left her well-positioned for engagement with material and ideational resources, her positioning as a new high school teacher, and the position of the course itself in the school, together limited her opportunities to engage with relational resources in relation to the CHS course. For Dr. Ryan, this dynamic was also tied to her feelings of agency in relation to the course. While all three teachers had the same formal opportunities for relational resources afforded by working with university faculty and stewards and by opportunities to share and collaborate with other CHS teachers at on campus university trainings, Dr. Ryan spoke of feeling disconnected from others in the practice. Dr. Ryan did not reach out to take advantage of CHS relational resources because she questioned the utility of doing so. She said that a lot of her dilemmas were "in the moment" decisions and so, they did not arise at times when reaching out for help would have made a difference. This pattern is tied to her positioning as a new teacher in the setting. That is, because she was still trying to work out "what it means to be in the secondary system" and struggling with becoming accustomed to what she called the "technical" aspects of high school teaching (scheduling, CCSS, grading practices and procedures), she was unable to anticipate dilemmas that might arise in her day-to-day practice, and so she was not able to reach out for help in advance. Thus, her "newness" and uncertainty limited her ability to take up agency with regard to taking advantage of CHS relational resources. Moreover, she said of other CHS teachers: "I think everyone is really busy, but I've also gotten the feeling that it's just, 'No thanks.'" Because she did not interpret CHS teachers at other schools as being able or interested in connecting outside of the university workshop setting, she never sought to cultivate these relationships either.

Furthermore, though Dr. Ryan collaborated with colleagues around her 11<sup>th</sup> grade ELA course, she was the only one in her building teaching the CHS course (and the building was not

involved in any reform efforts that might impact the CHS course) and so she was “on her own” in planning, delivering, and reflecting on the course. In some ways, this afforded her conceptual agency in her teaching of the CHS course, however, here again her status as an outsider (moving gradually toward fuller participation) in the setting constrained her ability to leverage this agency. This positioning meant that it was harder for Dr. Ryan to envision how she might be able to impact the role of the CHS course in her setting. For example, Dr. Ryan accepted the CHS course’s position at the top of her school’s Honors track as “the way it work[ed],” and did not consider that it might be possible for it to change. Further, because she was still learning the setting, she was not even totally sure how the tracking worked. She thought kids could “jump on” the honors track even if they did not start there, but she was not sure how. She said, to her knowledge, there had not been much talk about equity with regard to college ready coursework and she was “not even sure” what requirements were in place for students to get in to her class. However, according to Ms. Holmes, her department head, the current system of tracking had both an institutional history within the district and a distinct history within the school. Within the district, students were tracked into Honors courses in their seventh grade year and once on a track it was not unheard of, but difficult, to switch. To take the CHS course, there were strict grade requirements set up by the long-time prior CHS teacher to ensure that “only the best of the best” students took the course. Dr. Ryan was unaware of this history, as a newcomer, and due to her positioning as unaware that there was the potential to change it. In this way, Dr. Ryan did not have all of the pre-requisite knowledge needed to exercise the agency imbued in teaching the CHS course and, where relational resources might have helped her develop more of this knowledge, her sense that she was “on her own” with the CHS course (which was not challenged at any point in the year) kept her from reaching out. Ultimately, though connecting with others in

the practice was one potential way of “strengthen[ing] their sense of connection to the practice itself” (Nasir & Cooks, 2009, p. 48) Dr. Ryan did not utilize relational resources in the development of a practice-linked CHS teacher identity. Thus, Dr. Ryan ended the year with less certainty as to “who she was” as a teacher than when she began. While her sense of self as a writer and teacher of writing did not change, her repeated experiences of “not really know[ing] what I should [be doing]” left her less sure about how those identities fit in with her developing identity as a high school teacher.

**Ms. Ware.** Ms. Ware’s sense of professional identity shifted over the course of the school year as well. Ms. Ware mentioned feeling unqualified or not confident in her capacity to teach the course at multiple points throughout the year. For instance, at the midpoint of the year, she thought aloud:

There's always that fear of, “Crap, am I actually even qualified to do this?” ... [There’s] the nerves, too, and there's that whole, “Am I going too far over their head? Am I going too far below? Am I holding the standard appropriately?” It's that fear of, “Is [the university] going to walk in and say, 'Okay, you definitely should not be teaching the class, we're going to take it away'.” It's that normal fear of, “Am I doing this correctly?”

Ms. Ware also stated that she thought her most significant struggle in relation to the course was simply developing her confidence to teach it. Ultimately, her interactions with ideational and relational resources *in her work with students* shifted her sense of self in relation to the practice from feeling unconfident and unqualified to do the work to feeling “grounded” as a writing teacher. This process was a long one for Ms. Ware and took most of the year, mostly due to her relatively constrained interactions with material, relational, and ideational resources. This shift in her sense of self was further mediated by her motivations in teaching the CHS course.

Ms. Ware began the year with limited engagement with material, relational, and ideational resources with which to build an identity as a CHS teacher and she had less built-in

incentive to motivate her development than the other teachers. As discussed in Chapters Three and Four, Ms. Ware did not engage closely with material resources for a few reasons. Firstly, because she did not have copies of the course textbook for her students, relying on the text as a planning tool made less practical sense for her than for the other teachers. Further, while neither she nor Mr. Alexander experienced close alignment with the concepts in the course outcomes or the practices in the example materials, unlike Mr. Alexander, Ms. Ware did not reach out for help because her perceptions of herself and her setting as unique and isolated caused her to feel support from university faculty and stewards would be unlikely help. Indeed, her ideas about herself and her relation to the practice began quite distanced from CHS practice. Moreover, because “ideational resources [are] made available through social interaction and discourse” (Nasir & Cooks, p. 50), Ms. Ware’s physical and felt distance also slowed her development of ideational resources. Moreover, while both Mr. Alexander and Dr. Ryan were motivated to engage with the materials by “new” motivations in their teaching (to promote equitable access to rigor and to prepare high school students for college in the high school setting, respectively), Ms. Ware’s motivations for teaching had remained constant and her taking on the CHS course was a matter of necessity (because the prior teacher was retiring) rather than a part of a new path in her teaching. It is ultimately, however, Ms. Ware’s connection to her long-standing motivation to meet the needs of her students that ends up furthering her identity development in relation to the CHS course.

A thread that ran through Ms. Ware’s accounts of her teaching generally, and her experience teaching the CHS course specifically, was her consistent motivation to connect with and serve her students. Ms. Ware consistently put her students at the center of her practice and, for her, being a teacher was in large part about being a support system for students. Throughout

the year, in addition to classroom teaching, Ms. Ware filled roles of academic, emotional, and personal support for students well beyond school hours. Students felt comfortable reaching out to her for support before school, during her planning period, after school, and on weekends via text messages and emails. Further, when the experience of teaching the CHS was difficult for her, her passion for “the kids” offered her the motivation she needed to persist through challenges. She told me that teaching the CHS course had been challenging because writing was a “weak spot” for her, but that “the kids [kept] her going.” Students in the CHS course also served as motivation for Ms. Ware because they were “committed, fun, and thoughtful.” When asked to name anything at all that she appreciated about teaching the CHS course, she said:

I love the kids.... they're so much fun. They really are. There have been a few papers....[where]some of the stuff they write made me go, “Holy crap.... I didn’t think of that.”

Ms. Ware consistently kept her motivation to serve students at the center of her work, though her professional experiences over the course of the year came to add greater dimension to her goals with regard to serving students.

In addition to being a support system and advocate for students, Ms. Ware came to see developing the best college level course possible in her high school setting to be a primary way that she could positively impact her students’ futures. Thus, she became motivated to develop a course that would allow them to do sophisticated work in a comfortable setting. She explained the CHS course at her high school as:

...a unique opportunity to get college content from a high school setting. In a college classroom you'll ... have a teacher that you'll only get to see twice a week. Whereas here, they will be with me every single step of the way, so we'll work on these every single step of the way together....Yeah, and the relationships mean a lot, because that way the kids know they can trust you with, “I’m not getting this, I need help.”

In this way, by the end of the year, Ms. Ware had found a way to marry her motivation to serve students to her developing understanding of the CHS course and writing pedagogies.

This motivation, in turn, sets up Ms. Ware's students to serve as her entry point to engagement with identity resources. As laid out in Chapter Four, her interactions with students and CHS content are pivotal in her learning process. They were also pivotal to her identity development. These interactions force Ms. Ware to see herself embodying the role of a CHS teacher because she must be a CHS teacher to serve this group of students. In this way, Ms. Ware's students act as relational resources and so they "strengthen [her] sense of connection to the practice itself" (Nasir & Cooks, 2009, p. 48). Over time, these interactions build a trajectory for Ms. Ware's identity development. The repeated interactions with students forced interactions with material (the course outcomes and course portfolio assignment) and ideational (the ideas undergirding the outcomes and portfolio assignment about what makes writing "good") resources, which, in turn further strengthened her ability to understand herself in relation to the practice. As this firmer sense of self developed, she was better able to identify areas for further growth and so, better able to support her own learning.

**Mr. Alexander.** Mr. Alexander's shift in professional identity was tied to the relationship between his motivation to teach the course and his engagement with identity resources (relational resources in particular). That is, Mr. Alexander's strong motivation drove him to seek out relational and material resources. Further, I argue that his motivation was tied to his positionality and the positionality of the course in his setting. These dynamics persisted throughout the year, and, as he continued to interact with resources, he continued to reinforce his sense of self in relation to the practice.

Teaching the CHS course added additional layers to Mr. Alexander's existing professional identities as an experienced high school English Language Arts teacher and the head of his department. In each case, his established sense of "who he is" (as a teacher and as a department head) was afforded nuance and imbued with new purpose because of the CHS course. As a CHS teacher, Mr. Alexander said he felt "a heightened sense of purpose" because he was teaching "for the university." The CHS course, he said, helped him do the important work of promoting greater equity in opportunities for academic rigor in his setting. In his long history as a teacher, Mr. Alexander described himself as the sort of teacher who resisted the "rigmarole of new styles of teaching," however, he was deeply invested in learning how to teach the CHS course because he was internally motivated by this larger purpose. He was invested in this reform because he was leading it and he believed in its ability to promote equity in his setting and to "push back" against the reforms promoted by the district, which were, in his view, inequitable. Further, Mr. Alexander felt supported in working toward his larger purpose because of the guidance he received from faculty and stewards from the university and the support that was offered to him and his colleagues in the form of workshops held at his high school. These efforts made him feel as though the "responsibility" of delivering an "authentic" college experience was shared.

Mr. Alexander also placed this larger purpose at the center of his work as department head. The CHS course, and Mr. Alexander's work to ensure its success, caused his role as department head to shift. Rather than simply being responsible for carrying on his department's traditions, during the year under study, he was also leading the group's transition toward a new paradigm for teaching English Language Arts. During this transition, Mr. Alexander placed the CHS course at the center of his movement to push against the district's AP acceleration plan and,

in so doing, took on responsibility for the learning of his colleagues in addition to his own learning. Throughout the year, the sense that Mr. Alexander's professional identity was very much linked to his leadership in the department pervaded interviews and observations of department meetings. In his discussion of his teaching and his learning, Mr. Alexander almost exclusively used the pronoun "we" rather than "I." Further, his role as a part of a "we" took a new course as he led them through the "CHS stuff" because it was the department's agreed-upon path to "fight" the district's AP acceleration initiative. Together, they had agreed that they should resist. Thus, they had something new and purposeful to engage in together. Because Mr. Alexander had been the one to develop the plan to "accelerate through college in the high school" rather than AP, he felt that leading this charge added to his sense of purpose and his identity as a teacher and as a department head. In sum, Mr. Alexander developed a strong sense of self in relation to the practice, which allowed him to act in agentic ways.

### **Sense of Self, Agency, and "Crafting New Answers"**

This section argues that a well-developed sense of self in relation to the practice operated as a source of agency for focal teachers as they enacted CHS practices. Holland and colleagues (1998) posited that people develop new conceptions of themselves when they engage in new practices and, when these new identities are conscious and objectified, they afford people more agency or control over their learning and practice. Such agency or control over one's own learning can further be understood in the context of this study to support teachers' capacity for seeking out "demanding tasks... that force [them] to engage in problem solving and to stretch their [abilities]" (Ericcson, 2006, p. 698). Engaging in such deliberate practice, ultimately, allows learners to "actively acquire and refine cognitive mechanisms to support continued learning and improvement" (Ericcson, 2006, p. 698). Such practice further allows "new identities" to act as vehicles to "craft new answers" to dilemmas faced in day-to-day practice (Holland et al., 1998).

In this way, focal teachers' clear sense of "who they are" in relation to CHS practice can be leveraged to further support their own learning and development. This takes shape for each teacher in differing ways.

**Dr. Ryan.** Dr. Ryan leveraged her strong sense of self as a college instructor at the beginning of the year and, thus, was able to jump into preparing the course. Her identification as a writing teacher and her awareness of this as a part of her identity afforded her initial control in adapting her teaching practice and responding to teaching dilemmas (i.e., Enyedy et al., 2005). This initial confidence and control, however, shifted as she encountered the challenges of implementing a college curriculum in a high school setting. Ultimately, because she was new to her setting, she felt less agency than she might have as an established teacher in translating the CHS course to the particulars of her setting.

When I asked Dr. Ryan in June what was challenging when it came to teaching a college class in a HS setting, she said, "Most things." She continued, "I can't have the same expectations, in almost every way, as I would for a college level class, but I'm expected to teach college-level stuff. I can't really teach college-level things because we're in a high school. I didn't expect that kind of challenge." Thus, when the realities of teaching in the high school setting do not allow for Dr. Ryan to import her "college instructor" identity wholesale into the high school classroom, she is forced to redefine herself in relation to the practice. Though Dr. Ryan ended the year still very much in flux in regard to her sense of self as a college in the high school teacher, she had begun to embrace some aspects of the high school setting that she had perceived as limitations of the college setting – in particular she saw herself as much more of a mentor to students than she had been as a college instructor because she was able to develop relationships with students that lasted more than 10 weeks. Though it had been "challenging," Dr. Ryan stated that she had

“generally been liking” her transition to teaching high school. Her process of determining just what sort of high school teacher she would be was still developing as the year came to an end. Dr. Ryan planned to take some time off during the summer to “get some space” from it all and then return to the work in August to “figure it all out.”

**Ms. Ware.** While Ms. Ware’s process of coming to a sense of self in relation to the practice was slow to develop due to her initially stymied interaction with identity resources, she did end up developing an identity as a writer and a writing teacher. Ultimately, this identity came to act as a sort of center to her many layered development. It was, in fact, her concurrent work toward her PhD that served initially to foster her development of an identity “as a writer.” That is, engaging in frequent writing for her PhD work had a more immediate impact on her professional identity than did the CHS course because she interacted with the work of writing more actively. Further, she described feeling as though teaching the CHS course had prepared her for this writing when the “Writing for Graduate Students” course she was required to take (in the spring) shared much with the approach of CHS. As she realized that she already knew much of what the course was teaching and that she knew it by virtue of her semester and a half teaching the CHS course, she began to embrace her identity as a writer. Her development of an identity as a writer in this real way served as a starting point for the formation of new identities tied to being a “writing teacher” in the CHS course. In an iterative relationship, as she developed these writing-focused senses of herself, she was better equipped to identify the sort of knowledge and skills she should seek to develop and so she became better equipped to make use of the identity resources related to her teaching the CHS course.

This was critical to Ms. Ware being able to make use of the agency afforded her in her CHS teaching. In teaching the CHS course, Ms. Ware felt that she had more agency than in her

other teaching experiences. She sensed that because the course was “apart” from the requirements of the CCSS and other district policies that she, as its teacher, was afforded great flexibility and autonomy in her delivery of the “university curriculum” of the CHS course. This sense of being the connection between the university and her high school served as additional motivation to her, though Ms. Ware was only able to leverage that responsibility and agency when she identified with something in the practice. In general, Ms. Ware was hesitant initially to take initiative with regard to the CHS course and instead primarily relied on the materials of others. The exception to this was her decision to allow students who had not previously been in the Honors track to take the course if they sat down with her to learn about the requirements and responsibilities. She stated that she made this decision because one of her teachers had “taken a chance” on her in this way, and it had allowed her to thrive. Ms. Ware’s position as department head, and her identification with the plight of students based on her own experience, facilitated this exercising of agency early in her process. Apart from this decision, Ms. Ware remained reluctant to act on the agency available to her until the end of the year when she had come to see herself as a writer, a writing teacher, and a changed department head.

Indeed, Ms. Ware felt by late spring that teaching the CHS course had made her a better department head *because* it had helped her learn about college writing, and so she could better “steer the ship” as she looked toward the future of her department. This additional knowledge also helped her to feel more confident in the department head role and in her professional identity. She said, “This [teaching the CHS course] just kind of helps pull everything together, and it helps me center everything on this class. [As department head, she can ensure that] all of our students, when they come to senior year, have [the] potential [to take on the challenge of CHS].” Due to this bolstered sense of direction and purpose, Ms. Ware had decided that she was

going to ask her superintended if they could “find any money” to purchase her CHS students next year copies of the course textbook. In this small example, she took up her firmer sense of self as a CHS teacher to advocate for changes that would make the course more successful.

In sum, Ms. Ware expressed that her experience teaching the CHS course had influenced her many roles as a professional. She said, “Mostly I feel like it has made me a better teacher, it has made me a better student, and honestly, it has probably made me a department head. I now have those experiences under my belt, so I can [speak] to college curriculum.” These shifts in her sense of self afford her greater tools to affect change in her environment.

**Mr. Alexander.** Mr. Alexander leveraged his identity as a CHS teacher and the leader of the “battle” with the district to spearhead and maintain significant change. To fulfill this identity, he was willing to do whatever was necessary. Mr. Alexander’s self-authorship around the larger change that was taking place in his district repeatedly featured him as the leader representing his department and its interests in this “battle.” His talk about the dynamic also clearly imagined an oppositional stance between their work and the district’s proposition. This “us vs. them” mentality in Mr. Alexander’s perception bled into interpersonal relationships between himself and the district officials to whom he was required to share his proposals. He said, early in the year, bluntly: “These people hate me. And I don’t like them either.”

This perception persisted throughout the year. As the year came to an end, Mr. Alexander said his program was in question as the district was about to undergo a leadership change. Because he was worried that when a new superintendent took over, the history of their advocacy work would not be known or recognized, Mr. Alexander was engaged in an extensive effort to document their practices and their progress so that he would be prepared if they “needed to go Code Red,” which for him meant that they would file a complaint should the district decide to

“shut [them] down.” Interestingly, this sense of himself as a leader rising up to fight a foe seemed to act as a substantial reinforcement to his intention to ensure the success of his CHS driven reform of his English department. This sense extended to other members of his department who rallied around this “fight.” Mr. Alexander said the teachers of 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade ELA “desperately” wanted to align with the CE courses. In this way, the department would determine its own course for “academic acceleration” and this self-determination tied to a feeling of professional autonomy that had felt stifled by the expectations placed upon them by the Springboard curriculum. Ultimately, this extraordinary circumstance played a meaningful role in Mr. Alexander’s shifting sense of himself as a teacher. To rise to the occasion, he became more than a teacher or a department head – he became an active advocate and the leader of a significant departmental reform. From this very sure-footed stance, he was able to identify and marshal resources to support his efforts. As discussed in Chapters Three and Four, this, in turn, strengthened his learning and impacted the development of his practice.

### **Conclusion**

Taken together, focal teachers’ experiences show that becoming a “new kind” of high school teacher is a complex process with many potential complications and benefits. Findings suggest, in line with Holland and colleagues (1998) that, “The degree to which an individual forms an identity relevant to a figured world ... depends upon his relative level of engagement and identification with that world” (p. 189). Dr. Ryan experienced significant initial identification with the “world” of the CHS course as it was situated in the world of college composition pedagogies, however, she struggled at times to engage with the practice as it existed embedded within the unfamiliar (for her) high school setting. The net result was that, to some degree, her sense or identification with the practice became less clear over time. Ms. Ware, by

contrast, did not feel much in the way of initial identification with the “world” of the CHS course and struggled to engage with it until she had developed a surer footing with regard to writing and writing pedagogies. Thus, her practice-linked identity was slow to develop over the course of the year, but seemed to help her make sense of who she was becoming as a teacher over time.

Finally, Mr. Alexander was motivated to engage actively with the “world” of the CHS course due to its role in the larger change within his department as nested within his district. Through this active engagement and intentional marshaling of relational resources, he came to identify closely with the practice and his role within it. In sum, teachers’ engagement in the practice of CHS composition teaching and their development of new practice-linked identities had a mutually constitutive relationship during this critical first year teaching the course.

In this chapter, I argue that teacher identity development is critical to understanding the holistic, dynamic picture of teacher learning at the intersections of frameworks for writing instruction, teaching Discourses, and daily practice laid out in Chapters Three and Four. In the next chapter, I trace through lines from the previous chapters to Beach’s (1999, 2003) consequential transitions framework, consider the theoretical implications of the holistic portrayal of teacher learning and development offered by this research, and propose a set of design principles to support teacher learning in CE and other K-12/university partnerships.

## Chapter 6. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study began with the proposition that CE programs had more to offer than positive outcomes for high school students looking to earn college credit while in high school (Hansen & Farris, 2010). Due to the opportunities they present for high school teachers to learn from and collaborate with colleagues at the college level, I argued that CE programs might be well-suited to support teacher learning in ways that help “teachers transform complex knowledge and skills into powerful teaching practices” (Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 134). To learn about what and how teachers learn by virtue of teaching a CE course, I studied the experiences of three teachers new to teaching a CE composition course during their first year of involvement with the program via a qualitative case study design.

To capture the complex and dynamic nature of teacher learning, I employed the complementary theoretical frameworks of consequential transitions, the situative perspective of learning, and identities in practice (Beach, 1999; 2003; Greeno, 2005; Holland, 1998). Because CE teachers’ work is impacted by multiple settings, I theorized teacher learning as situated in teachers’ contexts of practice (Gee, 2008; Greeno, 2005; Putnam & Borko, 2000; Sawyer & Greeno, 2009). Within these settings, CE composition teachers take on new roles and experiences and they continue their “normal” ELA teaching. Teachers’ interactions with the new, specialized ways of knowing and doing associated with the CE course are impacted by the nature of their established ways of knowing, being, and doing (Gee, 2008). Thus, I traced how alignment among new and existing practices fostered intersections in existing and developing frameworks for writing instruction as well as how points of disjuncture can engender instances of productive friction (Gee, 2008; Ward, Nolen, & Horn, 2011). Teacher identity is a significant consideration in this analysis of teacher practice and development because it mediated how

teachers navigated their roles within contexts (Enyedy et al., 2005). Further, attending to teachers' identities in practice offered insight into how teachers navigated and were impacted by the shifting contexts of practice embedded in CE teaching that "afford different opportunities and motivation for learning and participation" (Hull & Greeno, 2006, p. 79). Thus, I took up the construct of identities in practice (Holland et al., 1998; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Lave, 1996; Wenger, 1998; Varghese et al., 2005), which posits that there is a "mutually constitutive relationship between identity and practice" (Kanno & Stuart, 2011, p. 240). The key constructs of figured worlds, positionality, and spaces of self-authoring from Holland et al.'s (1998) framework and the construct of identity resources from Nasir and Cooks (2009) informed the framing and analysis of this research. These concepts supported my analysis of the relationship among focal teachers' engagement with identity resources, practice-linked identities, and agency.

Using these complementary theories, this study affords rich description of teachers' knowledge propagation in and through practice. Because the work of CE teachers is an underexplored intersection, this study offers important practical and theoretical insights as well as directions for further research. Findings of this study help to theorize about the nature of teacher learning across spaces more broadly and in the CE context in particular. Further, this study adds to theorization about how these intersections mediate teacher learning in more or less supportive ways. In particular, findings suggest that the constellation of concepts I employed in my analysis proved a useful set of lenses through which to look at CE teacher learning at the intersection of multiple settings over time. Chiefly, these concepts elucidated the ways in which teachers' established Discourses for writing instruction interacted with the Discourses from the CHS program they were making sense of. Findings helped to uncover three themes in CE teachers' sense-making processes in practice. Firstly, teachers' experiences indicated that both

alignment and friction can support teacher learning if consciously reflected upon. Further, there were few common points in time throughout the year that were particularly influential in each focal teacher's learning, such as the process of guiding students through creating their writing portfolio at the end of the first semester. Lastly, a powerful finding of this research was the role that teachers' relational resources played in fostering teacher learning.

Relational resources proved to be a particularly important mediating factor, I argue, because teachers were socialized into CHS Discourses and took up CHS practices while they practiced in their high school settings. Not being "immersed" in the world of the Discourses they were taking up meant that teachers relied on their interactions with others in their setting, or those that they sought out from faculty and stewards from the university, for opportunities to learn that might have happened more naturally if teachers took up new practices while surrounded by others who were doing the same. This dynamic was influenced by teachers' dual role as both high school teachers and college instructors. Perhaps unsurprisingly given the positioning of their day-to-day practice, teachers did not see themselves as developing professional identities as college instructors, but rather they felt they were becoming new kinds of high school teachers. The character of their evolving identities was developed in their interactions through teaching practice with material, relational, and ideational resources. Ultimately, findings indicate that a strongly felt identity in relation to the practice served as a source of agency for new CE teachers as they navigated the enactment of new practices.

In this chapter, I further discuss how these findings allow me to dive deeper into the theoretical constructs that drove this work. In particular, I reflect on the findings and their significance through the frame of consequential transitions. I then discuss key implications of this study for theory, research, and practice. Finally, in light of this discussion, I propose a set of

design principles for CE programs' work with high school teachers. Suggested by the findings of this study, these principles aim to support CE programs in fulfilling their potential as meaningful professional learning and collaboration opportunities.

## **Discussion**

### **Consequential Transitions**

In looking at CE teacher learning and development as situated in settings, mediated by practice, and intertwined with professional identity, this study took an approach to capturing the experience of focal teachers that was at once complex and holistic. The analyses of this experience presented in Chapters Three, Four, and Five, unpack the particulars and complexities of such a dynamic picture. Building on these particulars, I return here to the framing afforded by Beach's notion of consequential transitions (1999, 2003) and use it to outline a more integrated, and thus necessarily more abstracted, look at teachers' transitions throughout the year. Indeed, as Beach (2003) noted, "Identity-making [is] ontogenetically linked with the propagation of knowledge during consequential transitions" (p. 50). Below I argue that Beach's theory illuminates the learning pathways of teachers in this study and, thus, places them in conversation with other studies of teacher learning across settings to build consequential theoretical and practical knowledge for the field. In addition, I argue that these cases help to both bolster and illuminate Beach's theory by offering rich descriptions of particular kinds of transitions, including a case in which a focal teacher engaged in collateral and encompassing transitions simultaneously. This case adds to the body of work using Beach's theory by demonstrating its ability to capture complexity and nuance in dynamic learning processes.

To begin, I argue that all three teachers engaged in a collateral transition between their other high school ELA teaching and their CHS teaching. Building on this, I argue that teachers'

experience of consequential transitions resulted in changes in their sense of self, in their activity in within settings, and their relationships with that activity and others in their settings. Finally, I argue that Beach's framework affords an opportunity to digest the layers of complexity in Mr. Alexander's case. Because both he and the activity systems of which he was a part underwent significant change over the course of a school year, a cohesive understanding of his situated learning process was difficult to capture. Thus, I argue that understanding his learning as two interrelated consequential transitions offers a clarifying theoretical perspective. In this way, the following discussion of consequential transitions helps to make sense of the connections among settings, identity, practice, and learning.

**Collateral transitions between the familiar and unfamiliar.** Beach's theory helps to place the experiences of very different teachers in very different circumstances—including the teachers in this study—within a framework that preserves many of the important dynamics that mediate learning. Below I revisit the cases, integrating findings from across chapters and reframe teachers' development using Beach's framework for understanding developmental transformation. To begin, I turn to teachers' experiences with collateral transitions, which “involve individuals' relatively simultaneous participation in two or more historically related activities” – in this case, focal teachers' concurrent practice as both “traditional” high school ELA teachers and as CHS composition instructors (Beach, 1999, p. 115). Collateral transitions are common in life and work, but they are “difficult to understand due to their multi-directionality” and they frequently “run in opposition to societal norms of progress” due to the back and forth nature of the movement (Beach, 1999, p. 115).

Firstly, though Dr. Ryan's prior experiences teaching college composition seemed to set her up for a fairly straightforward lateral transition, in which “...one activity precedes and is

replaced by participation in another activity” (Beach, 2003, p. 43), her trajectory was complicated by the complex nature of delivering a college course in a high school setting. Particularly, Dr. Ryan found that the realities of her high school setting did not lend themselves to the easy transition that she had initially imagined. Though she said that she tried initially to run the class *like she would a college class* (in terms of expected behaviors and norms), Dr. Ryan found that this simply “didn’t work because they’re high school students.” In this way, the obstacles she encountered, such as interruptions and attendance issues, planning with regard to how long things would actually take, and grading in the high school system acted like rocks in a stream to the flow of Dr. Ryan’s lateral transition. Thus, Dr. Ryan’s experience was, in fact, better described as a collateral transition, involving a constant sense of back and forth movement between the practices, ideas, and values of one activity (college composition teaching) and another (teaching in a high school setting). Indeed, Dr. Ryan noted on multiple occasions that even a single class period could feel like teaching both a college composition course and a high school ELA class. When her students engaged in thoughtful, in depth discussions that challenged their thinking and engaged complex texts, it felt like she was teaching at the college level. However, when a single comment caused the entire group to veer off course and waste several minutes of class time, she toggled back to a sense of teaching high school. Due to the constant negotiation of her established and developing expertise, Dr. Ryan moved from a clear sense of direction, motivation, and plans for teaching the course, to a pattern in which she expressed increasing levels of uncertainty in her direction for the course and her confidence in teaching it. Conceptually, Beach’s approach affords a way of understanding the movement of Dr. Ryan’s experience because consequential transitions challenge “unidirectional notion of progress” (Beach, 1999, p. 114). Thus, though Dr. Ryan moved from more certainty to less, her

development took place *in her struggle*. Though she may have felt discomfort in losing a sense of easy clarity, Dr. Ryan's perspective of teaching writing to high school became firmly grounded in the realities of practice and allowed her to develop a number of successful strategies to respond to those realities. In all likelihood, her continued learning in practice will ultimately bring her back around to a renewed, grounded sense of clarity.

While Dr. Ryan experienced a collateral transition initiated by her bringing her *established ways of teaching* into a *new setting*, Ms. Ware experienced a mirror-image of this collateral transition, which was initiated by her introduction of a *new way of teaching* into a *familiar setting*. Further, Ms. Ware was engaged in more than one collateral transition, as she was concurrently engaged in PhD coursework and frequently brought her status as a student into planning, instruction, and sense-making. In each case, she moved back and forth between activities as she participated in these activities simultaneously (Beach, 1999; 2003). Considering Ms. Ware's experiences through the lens of consequential transitions helps us understand her "experiences of continuity and transformation across time and social situations [as] a function of neither the individual nor the situation, but rather of their relation" (Beach, 1999, p. 112). As discussed in Chapter Five, Ms. Ware's engagement in her PhD coursework was pivotal in her development of an identity "as a writer" that she was then able to bring to bear on her teaching – both of the CHS course and her other ELA classes. This transition arose as a function of her conscious personal learning process situated in her movement among settings and activities.

Furthermore, because Ms. Ware had such a strong and stable identity as a teacher who was deeply committed to preparing her students for success outside of their remote community (a goal which overlaps with, but is not the same as delivering a college level composition curriculum), the consequential transitions she experienced resulted in changes in herself, in her

activity in her setting, and her relationships with that activity and others in her setting.

Consequential transitions, Beach contends, “[involve] changes in both individuals and social organizations and therefore, [changes in their] relations to each other” (Beach, 2003, p. 41).

Moreover, tasks and practices are “embedded in, and constituted by, this larger set of relations” (Beach, 2003, p. 41). In Ms. Ware’s case, this meant that as she integrated CHS Discourses into her practice, she necessarily changed her relationship to her setting, colleagues, and students. Thus, Ms.

Ware’s consequential transitions resulted in not only a change to herself and her practice, but also a change in her relationship to her practice. In this way, Ms. Ware’s transition has much in common with Beach’s (2003) description of Nepali students becoming shopkeepers, who:

...were clearly reluctant to move away from some form of written notation, having spent a decade studying [it] in school. At the same time, they clearly saw themselves as becoming someone new, a shopkeeper, and found that using [written notation] was often unwieldy in the [new] context (Beach, 2003, p. 48).

Ms. Ware had, in her eleven years of teaching in her high school setting, developed a comfortable way of relating to her teaching practice. She knew who she was as a teacher, what she meant to students, and how to act because of this. Teaching the CHS course, due to the disjunctures between some of its framing and practices, challenged Ms. Ware’s existing ways of doing things. Thus, in her initial transitions among activities, she was “reluctant to move away” from her established frameworks and teaching practices. Over time, and mediated by her simultaneous engagement with PhD coursework, Ms. Ware recognized that her reliance on established frameworks and practices was “unwieldy in [her] new context” and began to open herself up to the discomfort of testing out new ways of doing things.

**Co-occurring consequential transitions.** Mr. Alexander, like the other teachers, experienced a collateral transition as he moved between his everyday experiences of teaching high school English and teaching the CHS course. However, unlike Dr. Ryan, his transition

moved in a direction in which his sense of purpose became clearer as the year went on. And, unlike Ms. Ware, he did not display reluctance to let go of aspects of his established practice that did not serve his new endeavor. Looking at his situation through the lens of consequential transitions allowed for greater understanding of the dynamics of his work in relation to the changing context of his department. That is, even as he was engaged in a collateral transition at the level of his own teaching practice, because the activity of teaching English at his school was also itself undergoing change, he was also simultaneously engaging in an encompassing transition. Encompassing transitions “take place within a single activity” that is itself changing (Beach, 2003, p. 45). Thus, while he experienced the back and forth of a collateral transition between his learning to teach the CHS course and his established Discourses for teaching ELA within his context, the activity of teaching ELA within his context was itself undergoing a significant change. Beach (2003) acknowledges that, “This typology is necessarily simplistic, and in fact one form of transition can segue into another” (p. 43). In this way, Mr. Alexander’s case presented a way to consider Beach’s typology of consequential transitions through added layers of complexity.

The complexity of Mr. Alexander’s situation arose because his department was in the midst of an encompassing transition that would have taken place regardless of addition of the CHS in their curricula. Beach (2003) notes, “Individuals participating in encompassing transitions [must adapt] to existing or changing circumstances in order to continue participation within the boundaries of the activity” (p. 45). However, because Mr. Alexander saw the CHS course as an alternate way to meet his district’s goal of academic acceleration, he did not merely adapt to “changing circumstances.” Instead, Mr. Alexander took on an agentive role, introducing and instantiating his vision of academic acceleration through the CHS course as a mode of

change preferred over that put forward by his district. This advancement of the CHS course as the apex of his department's revision of their vertically aligned ELA curriculum sequence also introduced a new system of activity (his activity of teaching the CHS course and his department's activity around the curriculum redesign work) in which Mr. Alexander participated. In this way, his experience piloting the CHS course also engaged Mr. Alexander in a collateral transition between it and his established, though changing, modes of ELA teaching. Indeed, for Mr. Alexander, "disruptions of sense of self and social position [led] to the seeking out or creation of activities through which new forms of knowledge connect the past with the future" (Beach, 2003, p. 57). Because of Mr. Alexander's role as the linchpin in the center of multiple, co-occurring processes of change, he was both (a) profoundly changed by the experience and (b) able to influence profound change in the trajectories of his departmental colleagues, his school, and his district. Reflecting on his experience allows us to pose new questions about the interdependence of persons and social organizations and the ways in which their relations mediate both large and small-scale transformations.

### **The Role of Artifacts in Knowledge Propagation**

In these consequential transitions, all three teachers created and used new knowledge. Through such knowledge propagation, the relationships among artifacts, the object of activity, and identity shifted (cf. Beach, 2003, p. 50). Analyses in Chapters Three, Four, and Five showed how, "Symbols," "technologies," "texts," and "systems of artifacts" were all central to "propagating knowledge across social situations" for focal teachers (Beach, 2003, p. 41). Moreover, in teachers' experiences, artifacts "[wove] together changing individuals and social organizations in such a way that the person experience[d] becoming something new" (Beach, 2003, p. 41).

Focal teachers' interactions with CHS material resources, and their creation of hybrid artifacts in particular, supported knowledge propagation.

This relationship played out in both Dr. Ryan and Ms. Ware's practice-linked knowledge propagation. Both sought to take up the assignment sequences and artifacts of prior teachers in their settings by making them their own. These efforts resulted in hybrid artifacts that reflected both the ideas and values of prior CHS teachers and new teachers' developing understandings, but in a relatively superficial way that did not require significant interpretation. Indeed, Dr. Ryan noted that she had greater success when *she used the outcomes* to create *new* assignment sequences (as she did in the latter half of both semesters). Ms. Ware similarly expressed plans to create sequences that were "more [her] own" in the following school year. Taken together, these feelings suggest that the process of putting one's own ideas in conversation with those represented in the outcomes to create hybrid artifacts is a process of producing change that, in turn, supports deeper learning. In sum, Dr. Ryan and Ms. Ware's interactions with CHS material resources, and their creation of hybrid artifacts in particular, supported knowledge propagation and the production of change.

This dynamic took on particular significance in Mr. Alexander's work with his department. Their interactions with CHS material resources and creation of hybrid artifacts not only supported knowledge propagation, but also led to organizational change. In their work to use the CHS course to guide their reform to the department's program for teaching writing, they engaged in a collaborative consequential transition that required them to produce and reproduce both constancy and change (Beach, 2003). Mr. Alexander's continued use of "we" instead of "I" and his repeated expressions about "how we do things" and "our system" were critical to this dynamic as they contributed to the (re)production of constancy and collective identity in the

midst of change. Just as significantly, in their workshops and department meetings, Mr. Alexander and his colleagues also worked collaboratively to produce and reproduce change. A primary mechanism through which they produced change was in their creation of a system of hybrid artifacts that allowed them to engage in new activity (Beach, 1999). For instance, when Mr. Alexander and his colleagues revised all of their course syllabi, they determined that they would need to revise the learning outcomes that drove all of their courses. In developing these revised outcomes, they worked together to bring together key ideas in the Common Core State Standards, the CHS course outcomes, and the values and practices that were shared among their department. Just as the course textbook and course outcomes are material resources that embody the ideas and values central to the CHS course, the hybrid outcomes that resulted from Mr. Alexander's department's revision work embodied the important ideas, values, and practices of their established Discourses and those of CHS.

Other research in teacher learning has investigated the creation of co-constructed artifacts to facilitate work toward shared goals across settings (Agnanostopolous, Smith, & Basmadjian, 2006; Douglas & Ellis, 2011; Hebard, in press). Hebard (in press) presents novice teachers' sense-making as "anchored" in tools that cross contexts. Her study of teacher candidates' negotiation of pre-service writing preparation found that "pedagogical tools served as...stable boundary objects to scaffold candidates' sense-making across settings and over time" (p. 32). In Agnanostopolous and colleague's (2006) study of a cross-institutional collaboration in teacher education, a co-constructed rubric to for teacher practice facilitated, "the production of horizontal expertise" and the negotiation of tensions among university teacher educators' and mentor teachers' Discourses for teaching and teacher support. The framing of hybrid tools that support work across settings as a "part of a process of meaning making" (Douglas & Ellis, 2011, p. 474)

suggests that hybrid tools can support CE teachers' engagement with disjuncture and operate as mechanisms for border-crossing sense-making that is transformative for both the individuals in the setting and for the setting itself (Agnanostopolous, Smith, & Basmadjian, 2006; Hebard, in press).

### **Implications**

Though most frequently, discussions about CE programs focus on benefits and outcomes for students, this study posits that CE programs be viewed as potential sites for meaningful teacher learning and collaboration. Findings of this study suggest that if they are to live up to that potential, a clearer understanding of the dynamics of teacher learning across university and CE partner school settings is needed. In bringing together the complementary frameworks of situative perspectives on learning, identities in practice, and consequential transitions, this work presents a number of novel implications with regard to CE teacher learning across settings. Employing these complementary frameworks allowed me to create a conception of teacher learning as a situated, practice-linked, sense-making and identity-crafting process. While this study is not the first to present teacher learning as situated, practice-linked, and tied to identity, it is unique in using these concepts to analyze the experience of CE teachers specifically. Furthermore, viewing the findings of this study through the complementary theoretical lenses allowed several patterns among focal teachers' learning to rise to the fore. I begin with a discussion of the implications of these patterns for theory, research, and practice. Building from this discussion, I then propose six design principles to support CE programs as sites for meaningful professional development and opportunities for cross-institutional collaboration.

**Situated, practice-linked sense-making.** Documenting the multifaceted sense-making and knowledge propagation processes of CE teachers engaged in situated practice affords a

perspective of their experiences that is appropriately dynamic and complex. Labaree (2004) suggested that, “teaching is an enormously difficult job that looks easy” (p. 39). Such a supposition is a useful starting point for thinking about what is afforded by understanding CE teacher learning as highly complex, dynamic, and contextual (Hammerness et al., 2005). If CE teacher learning is interpreted as straightforward and deterministic (even unconsciously) by CE programs, school administrators, and other support systems, it is unlikely that teachers will be fully supported. If, however, CE teacher learning is simply looked at as too complex or entirely dependent on contexts, it may seem that nothing can be done to support teachers in their individual processes. Findings of this study serve to flesh out the complexity of CE teachers’ situated sense-making processes and so open the door to understanding when and how support systems could buoy teachers’ learning and development.

Several key interactions were uncovered in the findings of this study that point to mechanisms for developing such support. Firstly, attending to focal teachers’ frameworks and Discourses for teaching writing made clear that taking on the concepts, values, and ways of doing of the CHS program can involve a significant shift for practicing high school teachers. In addition, this study points to a number of malleable factors that influence teachers’ success in making this shift. Firstly, findings of this study support the work of Gee (2008) and Ward, Nolen, and Horn (2011) in that both points of alignment among Discourses and points of disjuncture led to significant learning for focal teachers. Further in line with Gee (2008), alignment among new and established discourses was a “powerful form of affiliation” and even small slivers of alignment served as entry points that supported future learning and risk taking. Findings also delineate the kinds of teacher responses to disjuncture that led to productive friction and, by extension, learning. Moments of friction became productive sites for learning

when teachers responded to those moments with a problem-solving stance, which they enacted by engaging with previously unquestioned assumptions about their teaching and by seeking additional material and relational resources. These patterns add to a conceptual understanding of the relationships among teachers' situated learning, their capacities for making use of opportunities to learn, and their agentic role as decision-makers and active participants in their own learning. Productive avenues for future research would include investigations of how alignment among Discourses could be leveraged in designing teacher enrichment experiences and how productive responses to disjuncture could be encouraged among new and continuing CE teachers. Further, future research could investigate where, when, and how schools or cross-institutional partnerships might design spaces for teachers to collectively engage with questions, reflection, and resources, and how those spaces mediate teachers' individual learning and systems learning.

Another key component of teachers' sense-making processes uncovered in the findings of this research was that focal teachers' processes of learning and enactment shared a few key moments in time. In their lead up to teaching the course and their initial planning processes, as they led students through the portfolio process for the first time, and as they made the shift to from teaching English 110 to second semester's English 112 all focal teachers experienced significant learning and significant need for support. Mr. Alexander's opportunity to teach English 110 a second time in a single year (to his class of juniors in the second semester) also suggested that the process of updating instructional plans and assignments to teach the course a second time is one with significant potential for learning. These findings indicate that within the complexity of teachers' learning processes, when teachers share common elements such as course outcomes and a course structure, there will likely be some patterns across time to their

opportunities to learn and their need for support. The times that were of most importance to the process of teachers in this study were those that asked them to engage their practice most intricately with the framings of writing offered by the course outcomes. On these occasions teachers were engaged either in translating their developing understandings into the design of instruction and assessments or in responding to students' questions about using the outcomes in their work. Both of these activities pushed teachers' concept development by putting that concept development into practice. Future research would do well to further investigate such patterns within and across different CE programs with an eye toward what factors across settings best support teachers at such times.

One factor that supported teachers' situated, practice-linked sense-making in this study was their ability to make sense of the work *with others* – either in their high school setting or at the university. Having others in his community with which to make sense of the CHS curriculum and reaching out for support from those at the university with regularity meant that Mr. Alexander's sense-making process was well-supported and well-integrated into his practice. Further, all three focal teachers (Ms. Ware, in particular) used the responses of and their interactions with their students to further their learning process. While these findings share a great deal with existing conceptual frameworks for teacher learning (cf. Lampert, 2000; Lave, 1998; 1996), they are of significance in understanding the work of CE teachers because the nature of their work necessarily means that their opportunities for engaging in the work with others are likely to be circumstantial and fragmented.

**CE Teachers' Socialization into Discourses and Opportunities to “extend the networks of school.”** Gee (2008) argues that learners need a combination of immersion in the day-to-day activities of a domain and guidance as they participate in those activities. Given the

positioning of CE courses and CE teachers, opportunities for CE programs to provide such a combination are constrained. Unlike law students, whose immersion in the practices of the field acculturate them into the ways of knowing, being, and doing they will need as lawyers (Gee, 2015), CE teachers are exposed to the Discourses of the CE program in university trainings and workshops, and then they engage in the practices within the walls of their classrooms, scattered across wide swaths of geography. Geographical distance and the unique needs of individual teachers make designing support systems for CE teachers challenging for even the most pedagogically-oriented of CE partnerships. This, along with the fact that CE teacher learning and development has received rather little attention, means that opportunities to support teacher learning are certainly being missed.

In the findings of this study, this consideration played out in a few ways. Firstly, the CHS program, apart from providing the three on-campus workshops and one or two visits from a graduate student steward, did not structure support for high school teachers implementing their program. Beyond this, faculty and stewards simply let teachers know that resources (example assignments, etc.) existed on an online platform and that they were available to support teachers in any way necessary. Dr. Sark noted in our interview that this structure had not changed much in the thirty-year history of the program, though they were in the process of developing more of a “partnership” between the program and the high schools and teachers delivering their courses.

Faculty and stewards saw in this structure a way to position high school teachers as expert practitioners and afford them agency to implement the curriculum. This understanding of teachers was key to their approach and communicated a respect for the work of high school teachers that can get lost in work across the high school/college divide (Crank, 2012; Hansen & Farris, 2010). However, teachers did not always know how or when to reach out for support. The

result was that two of three focal teachers never reached out for support, though each experienced several dilemmas where support certainly would have been helpful. As discussed in previous chapters, Dr. Ryan said she did not reach out because all of her dilemmas seemed to be “on the fly” decisions, so it was difficult to reach out in advance. Ms. Ware felt that her setting (a remote, rural high school) was so unique that faculty and graduate students at the university would likely be unable to help her answer her questions. Mr. Alexander, of course, did reach out; he did so because he was not simply teaching the CHS course for the first time, but rather the CHS course was the center of a reform of his entire department and he felt added responsibility to ensure its success. The net result was that Mr. Alexander engaged support, shifted his teaching practices dramatically, and felt a clear sense of purpose throughout the year. Moreover, his learning also had a significant impact on his departmental colleagues. While Ms. Ware and Dr. Ryan learned, they experienced less consistent progress and both spoke of feeling isolated. Thus, in light of this dynamic, the role of relational resources – and how activity systems in the school and beyond are or are not designed to support teachers in tapping into these resources – proved again to be pivotal.

This pattern shares much with findings in teacher education research. For instance, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) found that much of what pre-service teachers learned in university teacher education programs was “washed out” by teachers’ experiences in the field. Similarly, research in teacher development and school change has long found that when teachers’ experiences of staff development and classroom implementation are disconnected, much is lost for teachers and their students (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; McLaughlin, 1990). In that they suggest focal teachers had similar experiences of disconnected development and classroom practice, findings of this study indicate that if a vision of CE programs as a medium for

meaningful professional learning for CE teachers is to be realized much can be learned from existing work on teacher networks as learning communities (Adams, 2000; Lieberman, 2000; Lieberman & Wood, 2002).

The long-standing model of the CHS program had been for teachers to learn about the program's approach to college composition in the university setting and then implement that approach within the boundaries of their high school settings. During the year under study, however, the program was moving toward a greater sense of partnership with the schools and teachers that deliver their courses. As they move toward such a partnership model, an intentional approach in designing this model would do well to focus on the needs of teachers and promote flexible responses to those needs as they shift in practice. Lieberman (2000) argues that, "networks, partnerships, and collaboratives are organizations that ... are loose, borderless, and flexible, and are particularly well suited to this era of new technology and rapid change" (p. 221). In such partnerships or networks, learning is supported when work "begins with *what teachers know* [emphasis in original]" (Lieberman & Wood, 2002, p. 73), when they can build "agendas sensitive to their individual and collective development as educators," and when they can "change quickly and invent new structures and activities that are responsive to their members" (Lieberman, 2000, p. 221-222).

This work suggests that while the intention of CHS faculty and stewards was to respect CE teacher autonomy and expertise, their framing of resources and support as simply available did not fully facilitate focal teacher's development. Put another way, findings suggest that though teachers were positioned as agents and knowers by the CHS program and by the positioning of the course in their school setting, not all teachers' effectivities aligned with this positioning and thus they took up this agency to different degrees. Thus, a contribution of this

study was to look at, and hold up together, the intentions of those who crafted the CHS program and the felt needs and effectivities of focal teachers as they navigated planning and classroom implementation. This juxtaposition contributes to understanding the dynamics of that intersection and what those dynamics mean for teacher learning. Future research would add to this understanding by investigating models for developing networks among CE teachers. How do communities of practice develop around CE courses and how do these communities impact teacher learning? What factors limit the development of communities of practice for CE teachers and what efforts mitigate these limitations? Finally, this intersection and its impact on focal teachers suggest a few practical avenues for supporting the work of CE teachers. These avenues are taken up in the design principles offered at the end of this chapter.

**Teacher identity and agency.** This study also afforded new theoretical territory with regard to how CE teachers' professional identities developed as they engaged with CHS Discourses and practices. This enriched understanding can inform how schools and partnerships seek to foster CE teacher growth. Chiefly, findings indicate that teachers' experience of their dual positioning as both high school teachers and college instructors resisted binary constructions and, rather, that teachers felt themselves becoming changed high school teachers. These findings suggest that if this positioning and development were addressed explicitly and interrogated reflectively, teachers could develop clearer understandings of themselves in relation to the work and, consequently, each could develop more robust and enduring motivations to imbue their CE teaching with purpose. These findings also point to a benefit of teachers' identities remaining strongly tied to high school teaching: perhaps the fact that they are still centrally "high school teachers" supports the notion that their departmental colleagues can both learn from, and be resources for, CE teachers. That is, the questions and dilemmas with which they wrestle may

arise from the CE teaching experience, however, they are questions that all high school teachers could learn from. Findings further suggest that focal teachers' sense of themselves in relation to the practice developed via their engagement with material, relational, and ideational resources (cf. Nasir & Cooks, 2009). Moreover, a strong sense of self was leveraged as a source of agency for teachers in implementing their visions of the practice in their high school settings.

Uncovering the relationship among CE teacher practice-linked identity and agency, this study raises a number of questions for future research and practice, including: How do CE programs conceive of teacher agency? How do teachers perceive their agency? What factors contribute to teachers' exercise of their agency? Future research could add to the understanding of these dynamics by asking these questions of existing programs. Moreover, programs seeking to enhance teachers' capacities to take up their agency in CE teaching contexts could use such questions to support intentional design of teacher development opportunities.

### **Design Principles for CE teacher PD Programs**

Following from this discussion, I propose six Design Principles to support the development of CE programs that engage teachers in meaningful professional development that, "extend the networks of school" (Beach, 1999, p. 132) and afford CE teachers opportunities to learn that involve, "the construction of new knowledge, ways of knowing, and new positionings of oneself in the world" (Beach, 2003, p. 42).

**Principle One: Focus on the development of the "whole teacher" over time.** Critical to developing the sort of teacher learning described above is an orientation toward teacher learning that views the development of teachers as the growth of a person over time in relation to shared activity, rather than as the filling of a vessel (teacher) with stuff (knowledge) (cf., Hager & Hodkinson, 2009). Such a reorientation to the work of supporting teachers and their growth

while working with them to enact the course will allow programs to do more than ensure the faithful articulation of the course in high school environments. Where Dr. Ryan, Ms. Ware, and Mr. Alexander all saw the content of the course as connected to the university, but not themselves, their students, or their classrooms, a reoriented program could offer teachers not only the sort of exposure to the “facts” and “[conceptual] schemes” needed to understand the course content, but also “the opportunity to develop those representational schemes themselves” (Gee, 2008, p. 79). As a general framing, CE program professional learning opportunities should approach the learning of the whole teacher so that they can acknowledge and help teachers to negotiate the Monday Morning Problem, while also helping them with long-range planning, learning, and goal-setting.

**Principle Two: Engage teachers’ established conceptual frameworks for writing instruction.** As was detailed in Chapter Three, teachers’ established frameworks for writing instruction were critical to their engagement with CHS frameworks, resources, and practices. Indeed, both alignment and friction between teachers’ existing frameworks and those of CHS afforded opportunities to further teachers’ thinking and development. I propose that this potential be brought out into the open and so leveraged in CE teacher learning environments to facilitate intentional learning. That is, by acknowledging the mediating influence of affiliation with established Discourses for teaching and writing instruction CE facilitators would be able to design activities to support identification of clear overlaps in ideologies or practices with current work and support in building on those overlaps. One potential way for to support teachers in this way would be to encourage teachers to develop what Gee (2008) calls “islands of expertise” within the CE curriculum (p. 101). For instance, if an entry point (such as that experienced by Ms. Ware) was identified, a teacher could be encouraged to study further in this area and bring

her knowledge back to the CE learning community as well as to her high school colleagues. Moreover, programs could also help teachers interrogate the disjunctures among their established Discourses and those of the program and, having identified such areas, help them craft productive, learning-oriented responses.

In this way, programs can work to build resonances with teachers' existing practices, conceptual tools, and professional and personal senses of self. To build these resonances, CE programs will need to find ways to learn about teachers and their backgrounds (beliefs, values, experiences) as well as find ways to help teachers bring these to bear in PD settings. Such an orientation would further strengthen CE programs ability to teach the "whole teacher."

**Principle Three: Help teachers negotiate particulars of implementing in settings.** A corollary to Principle Two is calling attention to and helping teachers navigate the experience of implementing a CE course in their particular high school environment. Because the influence of setting had an undeniable impact on teachers' learning and practice, giving teachers an opportunity to make sense of this translation with support is another critical component to intentionally designed learning opportunities. Rather than simply acknowledging that teachers are in the best position to understand how to adapt curricula in their setting, CE programs could more fully support teachers by helping them to think about the affordances and constraints in their settings and where they have agency or personal effectivities to act and make change. Engaging teachers in activities to support this still positions the teacher as an expert practitioner while also affording an opportunity to do some of this complex work with the support of others. Indeed, because of the impact of affiliation with established Discourses, it might be useful to have teachers consider these issues during on campus meetings with other teachers with similar backgrounds or with those who work in similar school environments. If nothing else, frequent

opportunities built into workshops for teachers to reflect on the topic at hand and relate it to the realities of practicing in their high school contexts would support an ongoing sense of navigation among settings.

**Principle Four: Facilitate teachers' engagement with relational networks.** CE

teachers need not make sense of their developing teaching practice in a vacuum. Indeed, as Mr. Alexander's example illustrates, processing new ideas about teaching practice in collaboration with others supports both individual and collective learning and practice. Further, by expanding opportunities for CE teachers to collaborate with others involved in the practice, CE programs can more deeply engage them in the practices and Discourses of the program with regularity and situated within their settings of practice.

As new CE teachers are likely to need the most support, one model mechanism to extend CE teacher support networks would be to train practicing CHS teachers to serve as mentors to new teachers. Mentor/new teacher pairs could be established based on similarities in background, geography, and/or student populations to maximize their potential to provide support. If these pairs were to meet regularly (in person if feasible, online if not) and mentor teachers prompted new teachers' reflective processes, such a model could support and integrate the engagement of new CE teachers.

Existing programs that facilitate teacher networks around other emphases can offer significant guidance. For example, The Center for Teaching Quality (CTQ) operates a virtual learning community (VLC) moderated by virtual community organizers (VCO) known as the "Collaboratory." The "Collaboratory," which offers teachers a place to "share insights" and "get involved," provides one model upon which to pattern potential online mechanisms to continue CE teacher collaboration beyond university campus workshops (Center for Teaching Quality,

2015). Teacher members of the “Collaboratory” can participate in virtual labs that allow them to share ideas around a topic, complete “micro-credentials” on topics to further their professional development, and follow the CTQ’s “TeacherSolutions” design process to leverage the expertise of the VLC to craft solutions to problems of practice (Center for Teaching Quality, 2015). An online model that offered teachers more than a repository of resources, but rather intentionally designed and moderated opportunities to engage with their colleagues, could be a way to foster collaboration in spite of the difficulties of time and space.

Focal teachers’ experiences indicated that teachers needed opportunities for collaborative support around concept development, pedagogy, and negotiating settings. These areas could serve as starting places for the development of a teacher driven, collaborative VLC to extend CE teachers’ networks of support.

**Principle Five: Provide targeted support at key times.** As discussed above, findings indicated that there were times of year that were of particular importance to teachers’ learning and practice. As a design principle, identifying such times by working with experienced CE teachers and then engaging the community of CE teachers in opportunities for collaboration or reflection would afford all teachers opportunity for support even if they were reluctant or unsure how to ask for it. Collaboration (when it took place) and reflection were critical components of growth for focal teachers. CE programs could time university campus work shops to match up with identified times or they could use an online platform such as a VLC engage teachers in targeted activities at the times when they are most likely to benefit from engagement with others in the community of practice.

**Principle Six: Foster teachers’ agency and ability to take up agency.** Finally, as discussed above, there was considerable variation in the extent to which teachers took up the agency

afforded to them in teaching the CHS course. They were positioned as agents due to the course's affiliation with the university and by the university CHS program itself. However, identity and setting related factors mediated whether or not focal teachers were able to recognize or act upon this agency. Beach (1999) argues that "identity craftwork" ought to "become an institutionally sanctioned part of acquiring knowledge and skills" (p. 132). To support teachers' developing sense of self in relation to the practice, CE programs could bring this identity craftwork out into the open and so acknowledge its importance to the work of CE teaching. This could involve actively helping teachers navigate transitions through iterative opportunities for reflective writing. Further, programs could call attention to the dual positioning of the CE role such that it can be acknowledged, interrogated, and made sense of with the goal of facilitating teachers' transitions and identity development (Bronkhorst et al., 2013). Mentoring teachers (as described above) or faculty and instructors affiliated with CE programs could also consider each teacher's available identity resources and work to scaffold teachers' engagement with those resources.

Ultimately, the goal would be to help teachers reflect on the agency they have in their practice and help them identify what support they need in taking up this agency. To do this, teachers would need opportunities to think deeply about their professional identities, including their positioning, their goals and values, and their prior experiences. This thinking would foster teachers' sense of self in relation to the practice. With this foundation, CE programs could encourage teachers to think about what's working in their setting and in their practice and what they'd like to change. Further support could be offered in guiding teachers' identification of the targeted strategies and resources needed to effect change in support of their identified goals.

## **Conclusion**

This qualitative case study of CE teacher learning adds insight into a little understood dynamic. It offers a rich description of teacher learning at the intersection of university and high school settings. In doing so, it contributes a set of complementary theoretical lenses through which to frame CE teacher learning. Viewing CE teacher learning as consequential transitions that are situated in social contexts and mediated by those contexts, teachers' engagement with practices and resources, and teachers' identity development, exposed several important themes. I found that teachers' opportunities to learn varied depending alignment and disjuncture between their established Discourses for teaching and writing instruction and that much of teachers' learning arose in their practice of planning and classroom instruction. Moreover, focal teachers' shifting professional identities had an impact not only on how they understood themselves, but also how they understood the practice. If CE programs are to fulfill their potential as meaningful, articulated learning opportunities for high school teachers, those guiding the work must see teachers and their practice in both holistic and detailed terms. The constellation of concepts that I employed in this dissertation offer a useful set of lenses through which to look at CE teacher learning at the intersection of multiple settings over time and provide a foundation from which to begin such work.

## Appendix A: Observation and Interview Protocols

### OBSERVATION GUIDE FOR CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

Data sources will include narrative field notes and digitally audio-recorded conversation in the classroom using the following guide:

#### **Classroom context**

Arrive early. Describe the room layout and any artifacts that might be used to support the teaching of writing/teaching in general below. With consent from the teacher, take pictures of the artifacts and paste them below. Provide any information you learned about these artifacts in a caption below each picture.

#### **Lesson script**

1. Note the start and end time and type of each episode (e.g., giving directions, group work, share out)
2. Make notes of: teacher's pedagogical moves and language; student talk and behaviors; artifacts/tools and how students and teachers engage with them
3. Star moments that stand out to you in terms of writing and writing pedagogy, and make a note of why in the right hand margin. You can elaborate more on those threads when you write your memo.
4. Every 10 minutes, note the time, the number of students engaged, and how they are engaged.

Time	Episode	Script	Notes

Is the teacher using any conceptual or pedagogical tools? HOW? DESCRIBE.

- Pedagogical tools (graphic organizer, group work protocols)
- Conceptual tools (e.g., genre knowledge, may be based on inference from observation and interview)

- Linguistic/discursive tools (i.e., ways of talking such as signal words, shared shorthand for previous concept the students have learned—could be conventional term or classroom-specific)

Based on what could be observed, what were the goals of this lesson? How were they communicated?

(How) Were the complex reading, writing, and thinking demands of this lesson scaffolded?

## OBSERVATION GUIDE FOR UNIVERSITY CAMPUS AND DEPARTMENTAL MEETINGS

Data sources will include narrative field notes and digitally audio-recorded conversation from educational activities such as workshops, small group discussions, breakout sessions, curriculum planning sessions, portfolio norming sessions etc. The focus of observation will be the workshop content and the institutional context surrounding CHS case teachers.

### Meeting Context:

Arrive early. Check in with meeting leaders to gather context, collect documents. Describe the room layout and any artifacts that might be used to support collaboration and conversation. With consent from the leaders, take pictures of the artifacts and paste them below. Provide any information you learned about these artifacts in a caption below each picture.

### Script

1. Note the start and end time and type of each episode (e.g., giving directions, group work, share out)
2. Make notes of: leaders' pedagogical moves and language; participant talk and behaviors; artifacts/tools and how participants engage with them
3. Star moments that stand out to you in terms of writing and writing pedagogy, building community, and fostering collaboration, and make a note of why in the right hand margin. You can elaborate more on those threads when you write your memo.
4. Every 10 minutes, note the time, the number of students engaged, and how they are engaged.

Time	Episode	Script	Notes

Do the leaders use any conceptual or pedagogical tools? HOW? DESCRIBE.

- Pedagogical tools (modeling of practices, graphic organizer)

- Conceptual tools (e.g., genre knowledge, may be based on inference from observation and interview)
- Linguistic/discursive tools (i.e., ways of talking such as signal words, shared shorthand for previous concept the participants have learned)

Based on what could be observed, what were the goals of this meeting? How were they communicated?

## **INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR INITIAL INTERVIEW WITH FOCAL TEACHER**

### **Background (Teaching history):**

- 1) To provide context/background for my understanding, introduce me to your work as an educator.
  - a. How long have you been teaching?
  - b. What courses/subjects have you taught?
  - c. What motivated you to become an educator?
  - d. Describe how you teach and why you teach that way.
- 2) Tell me about the courses you taught last year.
  - a. What major assignments/projects did students complete?
  - b. What were your central learning goals for students? How did you aim to achieve those goals?
  - c. What, if anything, would you change about your pedagogy during the previous school year?
- 3) What courses are you teaching this year in addition to CHS Composition?
  - a. What are your goals for students in these classes?
  - b. What types of projects will you assign?

### **Views on Writing/Writing Pedagogy:**

- 4) Explain what you see as the importance of writing in the lives of students?
  - a. How did you come to have this view?
  - b. How, if at all, has writing been important in your life?
- 5) Up to this point in your teaching career, how has writing featured in your English/Language Arts courses?
  - a. In your teaching of writing, what did you emphasize?
  - b. What types of assignments did you give? How frequently?
  - c. How did you prepare students to complete assignments/write papers?
    - i. Describe any tools you use to support these practices.
    - ii. How did you come to have these practices?
  - d. What are you still working on in your teaching of writing?
- 6) Describe your experiences learning to write.
  - i. Do any of these experiences inform your teaching?
- 7) If you have taught writing at both the high school and college levels, how would you characterize the differences between teaching writing to high school students as compared to college students? If you have not, how do you imagine the differences?
  - a. On what experience, training, or other evidence are you basing your response?
  - b. How do you convey these differences to students?

### **The CHS Course:**

- 8) Summarize your understanding of the CHS course based on your current level of knowledge?

- a. What benefits does it have for students?
  - b. What is the history of the course in your school?
  - c. How do teachers of the course teach writing?
  - d. What types of writing are taught?
- 9) What preparation have you done so far for the CHS courses? What resources (people, websites, books, etc.) have you used?
- 10) What, if anything, are you unsure/concerned about? Why?
- 11) Why did you want to teach the CHS course?

**Conclusion:**

- 12) Is there anything else about writing, teaching, or teaching the CHS writing course specifically that you would like to add?

## **FOCAL TEACHER INTERVIEW: PRE-POST**

### **Pre-Observation Check-in:**

1. Tell me a little bit about the class I'll be observing. [If this is the first observation with the class.]
  - a. Characteristics of students
  - b. Students' strengths and challenges
2. Tell me about what you've been working on with your class. What are the main things you hope students will learn through this unit?
  - a. What has come before this lesson
3. Describe what I'll be observing when I come to visit.
  - a. Lesson organization: time, grouping, differentiation
  - b. Pedagogy
  - c. Artifacts
  - d. What will come next?
4. What do you think will be most challenging for your students in this lesson?
5. Based on what you know about your students, how do you think it's going to go?

### **Post-Observation Check-in:**

Thank you for allowing me to observe your class! I always learn so much from observing how other instructors teach—it helps me become a better teacher. I would like to ask you a few questions about specific moments from the classes I observed.

1. What was your goal for today's class?
2. How does this goal/this lesson fit into the ongoing work of your course? [If not addressed in Pre-observation Check-in.]
3. How did you plan the sequence of activities of which this lesson was a part?
4. What do you think went well today?
5. What do you think was challenging for students? Why?
6. I noticed in class that you said/did [...]. Can you tell me more about that?

## INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER

*This protocol will be used multiple (2-4) times at intervals agreed upon by myself and each case participant. It will also serve as the protocol for the final interview between myself and each case participant.*

### Teaching Practice:

1. In your some of your class sessions, I noticed that you [...]. Can you tell me more about [...] and how you think about it?
2. You gave students an assignment that asked students to [...]. What were your goals for students for this assignment?
  - a. Why did you choose this over an assignment that [...]?
3. Based on your work with your students and knowledge/understanding you've gained in your collaboration with the university, what are your thoughts about your students' ability to write at the college level?
  - a. What are their strengths in this regard?
    - i. What kinds of things do you do in class, in readings, or in homework to foster those strengths?
  - b. What are some of their challenges?
    - i. What kinds of things do you do in class, in readings, or in homework to help them with those challenges?
    - ii. Have you made any changes to your teaching practice/instructional goals in response to those challenges? What were those changes, and why did you make them?
4. In terms of the vision of writing at the center of the CHS course, what are some of the important points/conventions/overarching principles that you tried to emphasize during the course?
  - a. What kinds of writing practices did you introduce early? *i. Probe for "writing practices" using various terms: writing process, applying genre knowledge, use of evidence, etc.*
5. What kinds of writing practices did you wait until later to address? Why?
6. What kinds of student growth have you seen since the last time we spoke?
  - a. What do you think accounts for this growth?

### Navigation of Roles:

7. How would you describe your planning process for the CHS course?
  - a. What resources or tools do you use to prepare for lessons?
  - b. What, if any, collaboration do you engage in to support this planning?
  - c. How do you work to ensure that you are fulfilling the university's expectations and meeting your students' needs?
  - d. What, if anything, about this planning do you find rewarding/enjoyable/fun?
  - e. What, if anything, about this planning do you find challenging or problematic?
8. Describe your relationship with your contacts [your steward, program leaders/directors, other CHS teachers with whom you are in contact] at the university.
  - a. How often are you in contact?
  - b. When you speak/correspond, what do you tend to talk about?
  - c. In what ways do you feel supported in your teaching and learning by these relationships?
  - d. In what ways might you feel more supported?
9. It might be said that as a CHS teacher you have one foot in the world of high school and one in the world of college. How, if at all, have you experienced carrying out a dual role?
  - a. Describe in what ways, if any, you "feel like a high school teacher" when teaching your CHS course.

- b. Describe in what ways, if any, you “feel like a college instructor” when teaching your CHS course.
  - c. Describe in what ways, if any, your experience teaching the CHS course is not well-characterized by either traditional role.
10. I know that you teach [...] in addition to CHS composition. Tell me a bit about how teaching [...] is similar to or different from teaching the CHS course.
- a. Does your planning process differ? If so, how?
  - b. Does your workload differ? If so, how?
  - c. Do the resources/tools you have at your disposal differ? If so, how?
11. Teaching a college course in a high school building is a seemingly complex endeavor. How have you come to approach this task?
- a. What about your school or department supports you in your teaching of the course?
  - b. What about your school or department is challenging for your teaching of the course?

**Teacher Learning:**

12. Last time we spoke, you highlighted [..., ..., and ...] as your most central concerns in the teaching of writing. Are these the concerns you would highlight today?
- a. Why or why not?
  - b. Do you have the same concerns for the teaching of writing in your [...] course?
13. Describe the learning/growth you feel you’ve experienced in this role since we last spoke in depth.
- a. *Probe for:* Knowledge of/comfort with college level writing practices, ability to craft assignments that will allow students practice in with key concerns/competencies, ability to design scaffolds to support students in extending their current levels, etc.
  - b. What or whom has contributed to this learning?
14. What questions, curiosities, or challenges are you working on currently in learning to teach this course?

**For Final Interview:**

15. Overall, how did you feel the course went?
- a. What were the strengths of the course? This group of students?
  - b. What were the challenges of the course design? The students?
  - c. How would you characterize the support of/collaboration with the university overall?
  - d. Would you change anything the next time you taught the course? If so, what? Why?
16. Finally, for my study on teacher experiences of concurrent enrollment composition courses, is there anything else you’d want me to know about your experience or your philosophy for teaching writing?
17. Thank you so much for participating in my research.

## SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR INTERVIEWS WITH SCHOOL SITE COLLABORATORS

1. Can you describe your role at [name of school] and your role in supporting the CHS course taught by [...]? How long have you worked at [...]?
2. In that time, how would you characterize the history of the CHS course at [...]? OR What do you know about the CHS course?
  - a. How would you characterize the CHS course and its role in your school? Its purpose/benefits for students?
  - b. Who takes the course? Why?
  - c. Who has taught the course other than [...]?
  - d. Over time, have there been any factors specific to [...] that have influenced its delivery?
3. How well do you know [...] and [his/her] teaching? From your vantage point, why was [he/she] asked or chosen to teach the CHS course?
4. Have you observed [his/her] more than once this year? How would you describe [his/her] growth/learning?
5. What do you know about [his/her] planning process, teaching practices, assessment practices, and/or workload? How typical would you say this is for your school?
6. Have you supported [...] this year? In what ways?
7. Apart from your support, what do you know about the support that [...] has in teaching the CHS course? [His/her] other courses?
8. Thank you for your support of my study of the learning of new teachers of concurrent enrollment composition courses. Is there anything else that you feel would be important for me to know about the CHS course here, [...]’s work, strengths, and challenges – or anything else?
9. Thank you very much for your time.

## ON CAMPUS PD MEETING FOLLOW UP WITH TEACHERS

### On Campus PD Experience:

1. Describe your experience at the CHS on-campus meeting on [date].
  - a. What type of activities did you do at the meeting?
  - b. What activities were most beneficial to your learning/growth?
2. What did you understand to be the primary learning goals of the meeting on [date]?
  - a. What did you notice about how writing and the teaching of writing were framed at the meeting?
  - b. Does this framing align with your prior views? If not, do you find it compelling?
3. How, if at all, did your experience at the on-campus meeting on [date] change your approach to planning/teaching the CHS course?
4. Describe your impression of the roles of those who led the meeting and those of yourself and other participants.
  - a. Do you feel as though you are part of a community?
    - i. If so, describe this community – what is its shared purpose?
  - b. How were teachers encouraged to participate? To share their views?

### High School Teacher/College Instructor:

At this point, you have adopted your role as a CHS instructor in addition to your regular high school teaching duties, which means you are teaching a college course.

5. Do you feel like this role is different from your regular high school teaching? If so, please explain how. If not, please explain why you feel this way?
6. What has your experience been like so far as the teacher of a college course in a high school setting?
  - a. How would you characterize your relationship/interaction with the university?
  - b. How do you prepare to teach the class? What resources do you use? Is there anyone (from the university or within your school) with whom you collaborate?
  - c. Are there other ways in which the association with the university changes how you approach your role as a teacher?
7. In terms of curriculum and pedagogy, compare your work teaching the CHS course from your work teaching other courses.
  - a. What do you teach in each?
  - b. How would you characterize the differences?
  - c. What accounts for these differences?
  - d. Are there places where they overlap?

### Writing/Writing Pedagogy (If not addressed in responses given in prior sections):

8. At this point, how do you understand the goals of teaching writing to students generally? In the CHS course?
9. What teaching practices/pedagogical tools do you use to help meet these goals?

## SEMI-STRUCTURED GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR INTERVIEWS WITH UNIVERSITY COLLABORATORS

Examples: Program director, program steward, on-campus instructors (graduate student TAs) who teach equivalent/similar courses on university campus, program support staff.

Thank you for being willing to participate in this study I am doing about new CHS teachers. My goal is to better understand the institutional context within which the teachers learn and teach.

1. Can you describe your role with the CHS composition course? How has it changed or evolved during your time with the program?
2. What can you tell me about your understanding of the purpose and history of the program? How did the program come to be?
3. How would you describe the pedagogical goals of the program? What steps are taken to ensure that high school teachers can meet these goals with their students?
4. From your vantage point, what about the University's institutional structures, procedures, norms, and history impacts the delivery of the program?
  - a. How is funding allocated to CHS? How does this impact support available to the development and delivery of the course?
  - b. Describe how stewards are recruited and chosen?
5. How does the CHS program foster collaboration among high school and college teachers of writing?
6. Describe the on campus CHS meetings.
  - a. Who plans them?
  - b. What are their goals?
  - c. What about their design/framing helps them meet these goals?
7. Do you feel there is a sense of community among CHS teachers from different school sites?
  - a. Do you feel there is a sense of community among CHS teachers and those who work with the program at the university?
  - b. Can you give me an example that would show what this means to you?
8. What views about writing do new CHS teachers tend to hold when they begin?
  - a. Do these views align with those you described in the previous question?
  - b. Is changing views about writing that do not align with those of the program essential to teaching the course?
  - c. Why or why not?
9. From your vantage point, what challenges do high school teachers face in teaching this course in high school settings?
  - a. How do you support teachers in overcoming these challenges?
  - b. How do these challenges compare to those faced by TAs teaching the course on campus?
  - c. What sorts of support is typical for on campus TAs?
10. What trends, if any, have you noticed in the learning/growth of new CHS teachers?
11. What do you wonder about the experience of CHS teachers? Why?
12. What have you learned from CHS teachers? In what ways has this learning changed your practice?

## Appendix B: CHS Course Outcomes Document

### O U T C O M E S F O R E X P O S I T O R Y W R I T I N G P R O G R A M C O U R S E S

#### 1. To demonstrate an awareness of the strategies that writers use in different writing contexts.

- The writing employs style, tone, and conventions appropriate to the demands of a particular genre and situation.
- The writer is able to demonstrate the ability to write for different audiences and contexts, both within and outside the university classroom.
- The writing has a clear understanding of its audience, and various aspects of the writing (mode of inquiry, content, structure, appeals, tone, sentences, and word choice) address and are strategically pitched to that audience.
- The writer articulates and assesses the effects of his or her writing choices.

#### 2. To read, analyze, and synthesize complex texts and incorporate multiple kinds of evidence purposefully in order to generate and support writing.

- The writing demonstrates an understanding of the course texts as necessary for the purpose at hand.
- Course texts are used in strategic, focused ways (for example: summarized, cited, applied, challenged, re-contextualized) to support the goals of the writing.
- The writing is intertextual, meaning that a “conversation” between texts and ideas is created in support of the writer’s goals.
- The writer is able to utilize multiple kinds of evidence gathered from various sources (primary and secondary – for example, library research, interviews, questionnaires, observations, cultural artifacts) in order to support writing goals.
- The writing demonstrates responsible use of the MLA (or other appropriate) system of documenting sources.

#### 3. To produce complex, analytic, persuasive arguments that matter in academic contexts.

- The argument is appropriately complex, based in a claim that emerges from and explores a line of inquiry.
- The stakes of the argument, why what is being argued matters, are articulated and persuasive.
- The argument involves analysis, which is the close scrutiny and examination of evidence and assumptions in support of a larger set of ideas.
- The argument is persuasive, taking into consideration counterclaims and multiple points of view as it generates its own perspective and position.
- The argument utilizes a clear organizational strategy and effective transitions that develop its line of inquiry.

#### 4. To develop flexible strategies for revising, editing, and proofreading writing.

- The writing demonstrates substantial and successful revision.
- The writing responds to substantive issues raised by the instructor and peers.
- Errors of grammar, punctuation, and mechanics are proofread and edited so as not to interfere with reading and understanding the writing.

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