USING SOCIOCULTURAL AND COGNITIVE LENSES THE NATURE

OF READING SCAFFOLDING PROVIDED BY AN EXPERIENCED

DISTRICT LITERACY COACH DURING AN UPPER ELEMENTARY

SMALL GROUP READING INTERVENTION

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A Dissertation

presented to

the Faculty of the Graduate School

at the University of Missouri

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In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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by

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JULY 2012

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USING SOCIOCULTURAL AND COGNITIVE LENSES THE NATURE
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

USING SOCIOCULTURAL AND COGNITIVE LENSES THE NATURE OF
READING SCAFFOLDING PROVIDED BY AN EXPERIENCED DISTRICT
LITERACY COACH DURING AN UPPER ELEMENTARY SMALL GROUP
READING INTERVENTION

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ABSTRACT

No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) and the reauthorization of Individuals with

Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA, 2004) asserted the need for American

children to receive scientifically research-based instruction and interventions. A variety

of quantitative studies have determined components of effective reading interventions

(Edmonds et al., 2009; Simmons et al., 2007; Wanzek, Wexler, Vaughn, & Ciullo, 2009;

Vellutino, Scanlon, Small, & Fanuele, 2006). Few studies have described instructional

strategies teachers provide during scientifically research-based reading interventions.

Using sociocultural and cognitive perspectives, I conducted this study with the intent of

describing an instructional strategy, scaffolding, provided by an experienced district

literacy coach. A constructivist paradigm informed this study's methodology. One

experienced district literacy coach and five fourth-grade students participated in this

descriptive case study (Merriam, 2009). The coach was observed during the course of the

intervention interacting with the students. Informal and semi-structured interviews were

conducted weekly as a way to co-construct the district literacy coach's reality of the

nature of scaffolding. Artifacts were gathered to triangulate the data. Three key findings

emerged about the nature of reading scaffolding: possessing in-depth knowledge of

qualities of proficient reading, diagnosing students' needs and strengths, and providing

lower-level to higher-level scaffolding.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand the nature of scaffolding implemented by an experienced district literacy coach to support struggling readers in a small group, research-based intervention. This study was based on the assumption that an experienced district literacy coach could impact the reading development of struggling upper elementary students by scaffolding their learning in a small group setting. To fully understand and be able to describe the nature of scaffolding, I used a case study research method. This allowed for reporting a full description of the phenomenon in its natural setting.

Rationale

Public education in the United States has changed over the past ten years with the passing of No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002), with the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA, 2004), and currently with the development of the Common Core State Standards (2010). The intent of NCLB was to ensure states, districts, schools, and teachers were using effective teaching methods that would close the achievement gap in the United States. With the inception of NCLB, the term scientifically based research was used to identify effective teaching practices that offered schools a means to close the achievement gap between high performing and low performing students, non-minority and minority students, and advantaged and disadvantaged students. On the heels of NCLB was the reauthorization of IDEA. It introduced an alternative method, known as Responsiveness to Intervention

(RTI), for identifying a child as learning disabled (Hoover, Baca, Wexler-Love, & Saenz, 2008). The premise of RTI is to close the achievement gap and prevent inappropriate labeling of students as learning disabled. Hence, NCLB and RTI were developed to improve education in America by holding schools accountable for closing the achievement gap and by establishing the expectation that all students should receive scientifically research-based instruction. A few years after this legislation was enacted, there was the establishment of the Common Core State Standards, which currently have been adopted in forty-five states. In June 2010 the National Governors Association (NGA) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) released the Common Core State Standards "to fulfill the charge issued by the states to create the next generation of K-12 standards in order to help ensure that all students are college and career ready in literacy no later than the end of high school" (p. 3). The Standards were grounded in research and evidence, aligned with college and work expectations, rigorous, and internationally benchmarked. The Standards reformed K-12 curriculum in the United States (Calkins, Ehrenworth, & Lehman, 2012) and presented a vision for a literate person in the twenty-first century. Hence, a student who meets the Standards in reading, writing, speaking, and listening will have the foundation needed for creative and purposeful language expression in today's world.

Even with this new legislation, the achievement gap between higher- and lower-income fourth-grade students has not changed since 2003 (NAEP, 2011). The White-Black and the White-Hispanic score gap for fourth graders showed no average change between 2003 and 2011. Although the legislation set a plan for the achievement gap to be closed, there have been no significant changes in the NAEP scores for fourth graders.

Allington (2009) explained why he felt the reading achievement gap had not been closed by stating, "Few struggling readers get enough expert, intensive reading instruction to double or triple their rate of reading development" (p. v). Furthermore, students who score significantly below their peers need more time and more intensive instruction to close the gap and catch up to their same age peers (Vaughn et al., 2009). Allington stated:

> Studies of techniques used with older struggling readers, grade 4 and upward, have typically shown less success in bringing struggling readers' achievement up to grade level, but that may be a result of the size of the gap in reading achievement these older readers experience (p. 8).

For example, a fourth grader may begin the school year reading at the second-grade level. If s/he could triple his/her rate of reading growth "from a half year of growth per year to one and one-half years growth per year, it would still require four years of such instruction and growth before s/he was reading on grade level" (Allington, p. v). Allington suggested that fourth grade struggling readers receive intensive and expert reading intervention every day for an extra hour to close the reading achievement gap. Furthermore, these students may need two- or three-year intervention plans to catch up to their peers.

Reading interventionists and literacy coaches at the site of this study attempted to close the achievement gap by providing scientifically based reading interventions to students falling behind their same age peers. Students involved in interventions in 2010 to 2011 grew on average 4.15 reading levels in one school year, where the expected growth was 2 to 2.5 levels. African American students in intervention groups grew an average of 4.26 levels. The classroom average of growth for this school was 2.66 levels per student. It was evident that the interventions impacted the reading achievement of

students in this school and narrowed the achievement gap. This study was conducted to understand what went on during those interventions. In particular, it was conducted to understand how one of the interventionists, a district literacy coach, scaffolded struggling learners in a small group, research-based intervention. This district literacy coach was selected because of her extensive training as a reading specialist, literacy coach, and district literacy coach. A full explanation as to why this particular coach was selected for this study is provided in chapter three.

Theoretical and Substantive Groundings

To situate this study and show its significance, it is important to understand the theoretical and substantive groundings (e.g. theoretical perspectives, literacy coaching, reading interventions, scaffolding) informing this study. First, it is important to understand the theoretical perspectives underpinning this study. Furthermore, there has been a reintroduction of reading specialists, now called literacy coaches, in American schools. A variety of studies has been conducted in this area and will be explained, along with expert teaching literature. It is also important to know what research says about reading interventions. Understanding what prominent scholars and researchers say about scaffolding and what types of scaffolding research have been conducted in reading are important, as well.

Theoretical Perspectives

A sociocultural lens informed this study. Vygotsky's sociocultural approach assumes "that higher (i.e., uniquely human) mental functioning in the individual has its origins in social activity" (Wertsch, 1990, p. 113). Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, and Miller (2003) state, "At the heart of Vygostky's theory lies the understanding of human

cognition and learning as social and cultural rather than individual phenomena" (p. 1).

The social interactions in an instructional setting play a significant role in both the child's

learning and the way the instructor scaffolds the child's learning. The individual cannot

be separated from the social influences (Daniels, 2005). In this study, sociocultural

theory was a lens for analysis. Thus, to understand a child's learning, a researcher must

understand the cultural, historical, and institutional setting where the learning occurred,

along with the interpersonal dynamics (Stone, 1998). John-Steiner and Mahn (1996)

concluded that the sociocultural point of view is a way to look at educational institutions

and how their instruction should be delivered, particularly to meet the needs of all

students, "especially the linguistically and culturally diverse" (p. 204). Furthermore,

Mercer (2002) stated:

> One of the strengths of bringing a sociocultural perspective to bear on education, I believe, is that it encourages us to recognize that the quality of education cannot be explained in terms of 'learning' or 'teaching' as separate processes, but rather in terms of the interactive process of 'teaching-and-learning' (p. 152).

It is important to consider the active contributions of both teacher and learner in the

teaching-and-learning process. A sociocultural perspective allows the researcher to view

teaching-and-learning within the historical, cultural, and institutional framework in which

it has been placed.

A cognitive perspective toward teacher decision-making and the reading process

informed this study. A cognitive perspective focuses on human perception, thought, and

memory and views learning as knowledge that is created by learners as they encounter

new situations (Bruning, Schraw, Norbing, & Ronning, 2004). Teachers must be aware

of their knowledge related to teaching and learning and must self-regulate that knowledge

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"to respond differentially to children" (Duffy, 2005, p. 301). Self-regulated teachers access professional knowledge about reading and teaching, think in the moment to implement that knowledge, and repeat that process "in a fluid, ever-changing cycle as teaching situations change" (p. 301). Not only was teacher decision-making viewed from a cognitive perspective, but the reading process was also viewed from a cognitive perspective. Reading requires active knowledge construction on the part of the reader (Clay, 1991). It is meaningful and multifaceted, involving interaction between the reader and the text (Bruning et al.). Reading becomes a self-extending system when the reader is able to engage in reading tasks alone, without teacher scaffolds, and still improves his or her cognitive abilities (Clay).

Literacy Coaching

The International Reading Association (IRA, 2010) stated the goal of a literacy coach is to improve reading achievement in his/her school or district. Possible responsibilities of literacy coaches include coaching teachers in effective reading instruction, providing professional development, leading school reading programs, and working with students who struggle with reading by providing intensive, supplemental literacy interventions that enable the students to meet classroom requirements of the reading program. It is this latter role as interventionist that fits with the current study.

According to Deussen, Coskie, Robinson, and Autio (2007) who conducted a report of the various roles and responsibilities of literacy coaches:

> Although coaching is not a new approach to professional development. . . the idea was reinvigorated by the frustration with traditional workshops and the need, under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, to find more effective means to enhance instruction and learning (p. 1).

In the Standards for Reading Professionals, IRA (2010) states that literacy coaches must possess a teaching certificate, have previous teaching experience, hold a master's degree with a focus in reading and writing education, and have experiences with school reading programs. Furthermore, IRA (2004) asserted that literacy coaches must

- be excellent classroom teachers;
- have in-depth knowledge of reading processes, acquisition, assessment, and instruction;
- be knowledgeable about classroom assessments to determine students' literacy needs; and
- be accustomed to reflecting on their own teaching practices and making adaptations that improve literacy instruction (p. .

The district literacy coach who was the key participant in this study met these requirements expressed above.

Literacy coaches should be excellent classroom teachers (IRA, 2004). A variety of researchers have converged on traits of expert reading teachers. Anderson, Armbruster, and Roe (1989) stated, "Common sense and educational research converge on the conclusion that the quality of teaching that children receive is a major determinant of their progress in reading, writing, and the other language arts" (p. 2). Lyon and Weiser (2009) asserted that expert reading teachers understand components of scientifically based reading instruction and how to teach these components in an integrated manner. In addition, Duffy and Hoffman declared, "Effective teachers of reading understand that different students require different methods at different times" (p. 13). According to the IRA (2000), an excellent reading teacher understands how literacy develops in children, assesses student progress and relates instruction to students' previous experiences, knows a variety of ways to teach reading, provides a range of materials and texts for students to read, tailors instruction to individual students,

motivates students, encourages independent learning, has high expectations for achievement, and helps students who are having difficulty. Furthermore, the National Reading Panel (NRP) contended that successful teachers help students become proficient readers by providing skillful instruction that is flexible and meets individual student's needs (NICHD, 2000).

A variety of studies have been conducted on literacy coaches. These have included understanding the implementation process of literacy coaching in districts (Al Otaiba, Hosp, Smartt, & Dole, 2008; Mangin, 2009), understanding and describing the roles of literacy coaches in elementary, middle, and secondary schools (Blamey, Meyer, & Walpole, 2008; DiMeglio & Mangin, 2010; Elish-Piper & L'Allier, 2010; Lynch & Ferguson, 2010 ; Kissel, Mraz, Algozzine, & Stover, 2011), understanding the relationship between literacy coaching and student reading achievement (Elish-Piper & L'Allier, 2007, 2010; Garet et al., 2008), describing how coaches balanced fostering teacher self-reflection and the implementation of particular practices (Ippolito, 2010), understanding whether literacy coaches could help teachers' beliefs and practices become more consistent with best practices (Brown, Reumann-Moore, Hugh, du Plessis, & Christman, 2006; Brown et al, 2007; Garet et al., 2008; Stephens et al., 2011), and understanding reading coach quality and how it impacts teacher and student outcomes (Marsh, McCombs, & Martorell, 2012). These studies have sought to understand and describe the implementation of coaching, the many roles of coaches, and the impact of coaching on teacher and student achievement. Few literacy coach studies have addressed the role of the coach as a provider of intensive interventions for students struggling with reading. The current study adds to this body of research because it describes the role of

an district literacy coach as an interventionist for struggling readers. Furthermore, this study describes how this experienced district literacy coach scaffolded these struggling readers to become proficient readers.

Reading Interventions

Reading interventions have been brought to the forefront of public education, as ways to close the achievement gap and prevent unnecessary special education labeling. To meet the needs of diverse learners and close the achievement gap, scientifically research-based instructional practices should be used (NICHD, 2000) and varied levels of instructional intensity must be provided to insure all students become skilled readers (Allington, 1998; Felton, 1993; Mathes et al., 2005; Swanson, 1999). Congress charged NRP with identifying scientifically research-based reading instruction for the purpose of disseminating this information to schools (NICHD, 2000). IRA (2002) explained research-based or evidence-based reading practices as follows:

> In its simplest form, evidence-based reading instruction means that a particular program or collection of instructional practices has a record of success. That is, there is reliable, trustworthy, and valid evidence to suggest that when the program is used with a particular group of children, the children can be expected to make adequate gains in reading achievement (p. 2).

NRP conducted a meta-analysis of scientifically based reading research and made recommendations about scientifically research-based reading instruction. The results of this meta-analysis supported:

- teaching students to manipulate phonemes in words across grades and age levels;
- providing systematic phonics instruction for students in kindergarten through sixth grade;
- guiding repeated oral reading for all students;
- teaching vocabulary directly and indirectly;
- using a variety of vocabulary instructional methods;

- teaching a combination of reading comprehension techniques or strategies; and
- being able to explain to students explicitly the mental processes and reasoning skills involved in successful reading comprehension (NICHD).

Foorman and Torgesen (2001) stated, "The components of effective reading instruction are the same whether the focus is prevention or intervention" (p. 203). To say reading instruction needs to be more intense for struggling readers means more expert instructional opportunities need to be provided to these kinds of readers each day, beyond the typical classroom instruction (Allington, 2002, 2006, 2009; Johnston, 2011; Torgesen, 2002). One key way to provide this intensive reading instruction is to employ reading specialists who provide small group instruction in addition to the regular classroom instruction.

The reauthorization of IDEA (2004) provided states with the option of choosing an alternative method, or Responsiveness to Intervention (RTI), for identifying children as learning disabled. The premise was that struggling learners might be given opportunities to receive scientifically research-based interventions and to respond to these interventions before being considered for a special education evaluation. Since the reauthorization of IDEA (2004), much of the research related to small group reading interventions has been geared toward early elementary intervention and its effectiveness (Mathes et al., 2005; O'Connor, Baocian, Beebe-Frankenberger, & Linklater, 2010; Scanlon, Vellutino, Small, Fanuele, & Sweeney, 2005; Vadasy, Sanders, & Peyton, 2006). Research studies have affirmed early reading difficulties can be prevented in many cases with early intervention (Foorman, Breier, & Fletcher, 2003; Foorman, Francis, Fletcher, Schatschneider, & Mehta, 1998; Simmons et al., 2007; Vellutino et al.,

1996). The National Institute for Literacy (2008) developed the National Early Literacy

Panel (NELP), which conducted a scientific synthesis of early literacy development for

children birth to age five. NELP determined the early skills or abilities that were

precursors for later literacy achievement. These included decoding, oral reading fluency,

reading comprehension, writing, and spelling, or as NELP referred to them, conventional

literacy skills. One key determination made by NELP was interventions that resulted in

large, positive effects for students' code-related skills (i.e. phonics, phonemic awareness)

and conventional literacy skills were usually conducted in one-on-one or small-group

settings.

More recently, there has been a focus on reading interventions for adolescents.

The National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance (NCEE)

presented a synthesis of evidence-based research highlighting methods for improving the

reading outcomes of older, struggling readers in grades four through twelve (Kamil et al.,

2008). NCEE viewed fourth and fifth grade students as adolescents because their

instructional literacy needs were more like middle and high school students than early

elementary students. In this synthesis, there were five recommendations made for

effective reading practices, including explicit vocabulary instruction, direct and explicit

comprehension strategy instruction, opportunities for extended discussion of text

meaning and interpretation, student motivation and engagement in literacy learning, and

intensive, individualized interventions for struggling readers that could be provided by

trained specialists (Kamil et al., 2008, p. 7). Wanzek, Wexler, Vaughn, and Ciullo (2010)

conducted a synthesis of a variety of reading reports and found positive outcomes for

older struggling readers when explicit instruction was provided in word study strategies

for decoding words, in word meaning strategies for determining the meanings of unknown words, and in comprehension strategies.

In this study, the district literacy coach utilized a reading intervention framework called Guided Reading Plus. This intervention is intensive and individualized, meaning instruction is based on the needs of the individuals in the group. It included components of scientifically-based instruction mentioned above: phoneme manipulation, systematic phonics instruction, repeated oral reading, vocabulary instruction, extended discussion of text meaning and interpretation, and comprehension strategies. Also, Guided Reading Plus is conducted within a small group setting of three to five students. Plus, a trained reading specialist provided the intervention; in this case, the district literacy coach who was also trained as a reading specialist.

Scaffolding

While NICHD (2000), NELP (2008), and NCEE (2008) identified components of scientifically research-based instruction and intervention, they did not specify instructional strategies. Scaffolding is considered an effective instructional strategy. Palincsar (1986) asserted, "A review of the literature describing scaffolded instruction suggests that it embodies the best of teaching practices" (p. 95). Successful teachers scaffold frequently (Rosenshine & Meister, 1992). According to van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen (2010, 2011, 2012) scaffolding is an effective teaching method, but it is rather scarce in classrooms, largely because it is difficult to perform. In order to scaffold, a teacher must use "a high degree of craftsmanship" (Gaffney & Anderson, 1991, p. 2).

The term scaffolding originated in a paper written by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976), who described it as assistance provided by a more capable other "that enables a

child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts" (p. 199). Vygotksy's sociocultural theory and his term Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) have been related to scaffolding (Brown & Palincsar,1989; Gaffney & Anderson, 1991; Stone 1998). Anderson, Armbruster, and Roe (1990) summed up scaffolding in this way:

> Scaffolding consists of the support the coach provides as the students continue practice. Scaffolding may be in the form of hints or suggestions. Or, the coach may perform parts of the task students cannot yet manage on their own. Appropriate scaffolding requires accurate diagnosis of the students' skill levels and the ability to provide just the right amount of support to enable the students to perform the target task. The gradual removal of scaffolding as students assume greater independence is known as fading (p. 193).

According to Joseph (2002), scaffolding is an evidence-based instructional intervention for students who struggle with word identification and reading comprehension. Cazden (2001) made the claim that scaffolding benefits those students who struggle with reading and "need the most carefully planned help" (p. 61). Furthermore, Cazden recommended scaffolding for all learners.

For a novice to acquire cognitive strategies, researchers have recommended that teachers provide scaffolding. Rosenshine and Meister stated, "Although scaffolds can be applied to the teaching of all skills, they are useful, and often indispensable, for teaching higher-level cognitive strategies" (p. 26). In reading, comprehension strategies are higher-level cognitive strategies. Palincsar (1986) asserted that dialogue is a means for the novice to interact with the expert to acquire the cognitive strategy or strategies. Many (2002) asserted, "scaffolding episodes should construct the very fabric of the instructional conversations in classrooms, regardless of subject matter content" (p. 405).

In the past decade qualitative studies have been conducted with the intent of understanding teacher-child interactions involving literacy scaffolding. These have included understanding the cognitive and motivational scaffolding provided by an experienced tutor in a writing center (Thompson, 2009), understanding the nature of teachers' scaffolding behaviors during the oral reading of first graders (Cole, 2006), understanding the nature of teachers' scaffolding behavior during cooperative learning (Gillies & Boyle, 2005), understanding how the teacher scaffolds student talk in literature discussion groups in a third grade classroom (Maloch, 2002, 2005), understanding the scaffolded interactions between effective tutors and first grade, struggling readers (Rodgers, 2004), understanding how cultural tools can act as scaffolds during writing tasks at the K-5 level (Donovan & Smolkin, 2002), and understanding the nature of instructional scaffolding during conversational interactions between teacher and students and peers in third-fourth and fifth-sixth grade classrooms (Many, 2002). Few of these studies have focused on understanding the nature of scaffolding provided during a small group reading intervention between an experienced teacher and struggling readers. The current study adds to this body of research because it describes scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach. It also describes scaffolding during a small group reading intervention.

Significance of the Study

A variety of recommendations have been made for future research. NRP recommended that researchers conduct qualitative research studies about effective teaching methodologies that would improve student performance (NICHD, 2000). After critically analyzing the scaffolding metaphor, Stone (1998) asked, "What are the effective

components of successful scaffolded instruction?" (p. 361). Stone felt it was necessary for future research to pursue this question and to continue to pursue an understanding of the communicational dynamics of scaffolding. According to van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen (2010), who conducted a review of scaffolding literature, there is a need for future scaffolding research to document the effectiveness of specific scaffolding. Furthermore, van de Pol et al. stated, "it is suggested that both teacher and student behavior and their discourse and contributions are considered in future research as scaffolding entails interaction" (p. 286). Likewise, van de Pol et al. (2012) stated, "Surprisingly little research has focused on the promotion of teacher scaffolding from a contingency perspective" (p. 193). Contingency refers to scaffolding that is responsive to students' current understandings (van de Pol et al., 2010). Rodgers (2004), who conducted a study of one-to-one scaffolding, recommended that future research examines and describes scaffolding in small groups for students who struggle with literacy. Many (2002) recommended continued exploration into scaffolding within instructional conversations with the intent of increasing "our understanding of pedagogical approaches that enable students to become independent learners" (p. 405).

Past research has confirmed the effectiveness of using instructional interventions for struggling readers. Aspects of effective, reading instruction were also identified, along with effective components of reading interventions. Scaffolding was mentioned as a component of some reading interventions. However, it was studied explicitly in only a few cases and those were at the early elementary level (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996; Rodgers, 2004). Although scaffolding is considered a strategy effective teachers use (Metsala et al. 1997; Pressley, 2006; Pressley, Rankin, & Yokoi, 1996; Taylor,

Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 2000; Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, & Rodriguez, 2002), there are few studies that describe how an expert reading teacher scaffolds struggling readers at the upper elementary level. This study supports recommendations made by previous researchers and scholars to conduct research that includes:

1. Effective teaching methodologies that improve student performance (NICHD, 2000).
2. Teacher and student behaviors and their discourse and contributions during scaffolding (van de Pol, Volman, & Beishuizen, 2010).
3. Scaffolding in small groups for students who struggle with literacy (Rodgers, 2004).
4. Scaffolding within instructional conversations with the purpose of understanding pedagogical approaches that enable students to become independent learners (Many, 2002).

This study adds to the current research and the current push in our country to close the achievement gap because it describes an experienced district literacy coach as she seeks to close the achievement gap by conducting a small group reading intervention with struggling intermediate readers using scientifically research-based instruction. To literacy coach research, this study adds a description of an experienced district literacy coach who acted in the role of reading interventionist. Few studies have been conducted on the reading interventionist roles that coaches fill. To reading intervention research, this study adds a description of scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach during a small group reading intervention with five struggling readers. Few qualitative studies have been conducted on how teachers scaffold during a small group reading intervention. To scaffolding research, this study adds a description of how an experienced district literacy coach scaffolded struggling readers. Few scaffolding studies have been conducted on how experienced teachers scaffold struggling readers. This

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study fills a gap in the research by providing a description of how an experienced literacy coach scaffolds struggling readers in a small group setting.

Research Questions

The primary question guiding this study was: Using sociocultural and cognitive lenses, what is the nature of reading scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach to students in a small, Midwestern city during a small group intervention? Supporting questions included: (a) How does the experienced district literacy coach determine the kinds and levels of scaffolding to provide? and (b) How does the kind and level of scaffolding change?

Methodology

The constructivist paradigm informs the methodology of this study. I believe that multiple realities exist on the basis that individuals "experience the world from their own vantage points" (Hatch, 2002, p. 15). Hatch states, "the objects of inquiry are individual perspectives or constructions of reality" (p. 15). The inquiry process involves co-construction between the participants and researcher who construct the subjective reality together (Hatch, p. 15). Methodologically speaking, the methods used by naturalistic inquirers fit with constructivists (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Extended periods of time are spent interviewing participants and observing participants in their natural settings. The goal is to reconstruct "the constructions participants use to make sense of their worlds" (Hatch, p. 15). Often constructivist findings are presented from a case study tradition or rich narrative. This case study was carried out in the natural setting because "naturalistic ontology suggests that realities are wholes that cannot be understood in isolation from their contexts" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 39). Through persistent observations, frequent

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interviews, artifact collection, and member checks, I worked with the coach to understand the kind and level of scaffolding she provided.

Unique Role of Researcher

Six years ago I was hired to be a reading interventionist and literacy coach at the project school. During the first two years, I was trained by the district literacy coordinator and a Reading Recovery teacher leader in how to provide one-to-one tutoring to students reading two or more years below their grade level. The third year I was trained by the district literacy coordinator in providing small group interventions to struggling readers. This same training was provided to the district literacy coach in this study who at the time held the same position as me (reading interventionist and literacy coach). Three years ago this district literacy coach assumed her current position and began training the reading interventionists (myself included) in research-based, reading practices. Because of my experience as a reading interventionist for six years, I have an in-depth understanding of the reading process, reading interventions, and scaffolding. My expertise assisted with data collection and analysis, in that, I already possessed insights into what is considered data and what is not considered data. Likewise, I understood the language used by the coach and the procedures associated with the intervention. This provided more depth to the study and my findings.

Delimitations

In this study, scaffolding was explored during one small group reading intervention for fourth grade struggling readers. An experienced district literacy coach who was trained both as a coach and a reading interventionist provided the scaffolding at an intermediate school. This experienced district literacy coach consistently provided

reading interventions that resulted in two to three years growth for her students. She was selected because of her experience as a reading interventionist and her consistent results with struggling readers (see chapter 3). She was the key participant who conducted this intervention with five students. This study was limited to one coach and one intervention group.

Dynamic assessment (DA) has been used in different ways. Elliott (2003) explained, "Researchers and clinicians have largely envisaged dynamic measures as more sophisticated means of tackling the questions that child IQ tests set out to discover, that is, whether a given child required some form of special education" (p. 19). Recently, DA has been used as a tool used by school psychologists to assist teachers with determining educational interventions for struggling learners. According to Lantolf (2009), two general approaches to DA have developed: interventionist and interactionist. Lantolf stated, "In both approaches instruction as mediation and assessment are fused into a single activity with the goal of diagnosing learning potential and promoting development in accordance with this potential" (p. 360). Interventionist DA includes determining "a prefabricated and fixed set of clues and hints" to offer learners as they "move through a test item by item" (Lantolf, p. 360). Thus, the intervention is not tailored to the responsiveness of the learner, but is fixed.

Interactionist DA differs in that it is not predetermined, but is instead "negotiated with the individual, which means that it is continually adjusted according to the learner's responsivity" (Lantolf, p. 360). It was this DA approach that was described in this study. It was a moment-by-moment assessment of learners while they were in the process of problem-solving so that feedback could be provided during the activity (Lajoie, 2003;

Lajoie & Lesgold, 1992). Three components of DA include: mediation, transcendence, and intentionality (Martin, 2012). Mediation refers to fostering development in the learner during a task while also diagnosing and predicting possible future intervention. When the learner engages in a task independently and encounters difficulty, the mediator provides support and guidance. Successful mediation means identifying the right amount of support to provide "to enhance the learner's agency and responsiveness to the task" (Martin, pp. 2-3). In this way, mediation is transformative because the learners develop abilities that they could not achieve independently. Martin described transcendence as the learner's "conscious application of the newly learnt strategies and knowledge" (p. 3) to real situations. Intentionality refers to the mediator's intent to support the learner in task learning, while the learner's intent is to learn how to complete the task. The interactionist DA approach is grounded in Vygotsky's work. This form of DA assessment was described in the literature review and relates to this study.

Scaffolding refers to an instructional strategy that supports the learner in immediate construction of understanding the task and strategies related to accomplishing the task, while fostering independent strategic action in the future (Holton & Clarke, 2006). The first purpose of scaffolding is to support the learner's construction of knowledge of the task, while the second is for long-term intent. In this study, scaffolding was not any teaching move provided during a reading experience. Rather, scaffolding was the support provided to move a learner toward proficient reading. There was a gradient of support. This support was purposeful and was provided in the moment based on the teacher's knowledge of the learner, the learner's actions, the learner's history, and the components of proficient task completion. To explain further, simply telling a word

to a student printed in text was not scaffolding because there was no gradient of support nor fostering the learner's understanding of proficient reading strategies. Holton and Clarke stated, "Scaffolding *anticipates* some act of construction. It is not an act of closure" (p. 130, emphasis in original).

The rich description of this case provides researchers and literacy professionals with additional insights into scaffolding, adding to the existing scaffolding research. The findings were limited to the duration of the study, which occurred for eight weeks in the spring and then continued for six weeks in the summer. Data collection did not occur the first three weeks of summer school due to waiting on approval and permission to continue the study into summer school. Data collection was limited to field notes, audio transcriptions, and artifacts (e.g. student writing, student assessments, lesson plans, anecdotal notes, intervention updates). Data collection continued until redundancy in the data was attained.

Data analysis was informed by the theoretical lenses brought to the study. Like many other scaffolding studies (Cole, 2006; Maloch, 2002; Many 2002; Rodgers, 2004; Rojas-Drummond & Mercer, 2003) that investigated teacher scaffolding, Vygotsky's work informed this study and provided a lens for understanding the nature of scaffolding. In addition, a cognitive lens was used to understand the district literacy coach's decision-making and the reading process. Two other scaffolding studies (Donovan & Smolkin, 2002; Rodgers, 2004) have also used a cognitive lens. Not only did my lenses inform my interpretations and descriptions, but also my understandings of literacy, scaffolding, the reading process, and struggling learners. Other insights may be gleaned if this study were conducted from other perspectives, such as critical theory.

My literature review was limited to literacy studies that involved a teacher or teachers. For example, studies of a teacher providing scaffolding in a literacy setting were reviewed, whereas, studies about science scaffolding, math scaffolding, peer-led scaffolding, or computer generated scaffolding were not reviewed. Likewise, achievement gap research was limited to instances that included literacy, not beyond this scope. I limited my review of literacy coaching to the last eleven years, as this was the time frame when NCLB (2001) was enacted and coaching was 'reinvigorated' (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson, & Autio, 2007).

To answer my research questions, I limited the scope of my study to the way the experienced district literacy coach scaffolded struggling readers during a small group intervention. This study focused on reading, not writing, therefore, the writing data were only used when it related to the reading component (e.g. writing prompts to think deeply about the text read). When analyzing my data, I focused on the interactions between the experienced district literacy coach and the students. I did not analyze other possible factors that influenced the students' capabilities or changes in literacy development, such as their interactions with a classroom teacher, a parent, or their peers. The research questions did not address scaffolding that occurred between students.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The following chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the theoretical and substantive groundings of this study. These explanations provide the foundation for the overarching research question: Using sociocultural and cognitive lenses, what is the nature of reading scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach to students in a small, Midwestern city during a small group intervention? Understanding the theoretical perspectives toward this study was a first priority because it guided identification of the substantive constructs. Following this, an explanation of literacy coaching is provided. The intervention section includes information about the reading achievement gap in America, Response to Intervention (RTI), and intervention research. Finally, the scaffolding section contains a detailed explanation of scaffolding, an explanation of key scaffolding terms, an historical review of scaffolding, and a description of types of scaffolding.

Theoretical Perspectives

Sociocultural Perspective

John-Steiner and Mahn (1996) stated, "Sociocultural approaches to learning and development were first systematized and applied by Vygotsky and his collaborators in Russia in the 1920s and 1930s" (p. 191). John-Steiner and Mahn stated, "The power of Vygotsky's ideas lies in his explanation of the dynamic interdependence of social and individual processes" (p. 192). Vygotsky's sociocultural approach assumes "that higher (i.e. uniquely human) mental functioning in the individual has its origins in social

activity" (Wertsch, 1990, p. 113). Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, and Miller (2003) state, "At the heart of Vygostky's theory lies the understanding of human cognition and learning as social and cultural rather than individual phenomena" (p. 1). Furthermore, an assumption of this approach is that "action is mediated and that it cannot be separated from the milieu in which it is carried out" (Wertsch, 1991, p. 18). Sociocultural approaches are based on the idea that human activities occur in cultural contexts, are mediated by language and other symbol systems, and are understood when they are examined in their historical development (John-Steiner & Mahn). According to Rogoff (1990), a child's cognitive development "is embedded in the context of social relationships and sociocultural tools and practices" (p. 8). Furthermore, Vygostky described development as the transformation of socially shared activities into internal processes (John-Steiner & Mahn).

To understand a child's learning, a researcher must understand the cultural, historical, and institutional setting where the learning occurred. The individual cannot be separated from the social influences (Daniels, 2005). Through dialogue in social contexts, students develop understandings and strategies (Many, 2002). According to Vygotsky (1978), a student's development can be described as actual development and as potential development. Actual development is a student's independent capabilities or understandings; potential development refers to how a student is able to develop with the assistance and support of another. Vygotsky concluded that what children can do with the support of others might be "in some sense even more indicative of their mental development than what they can do alone" (p. 83). Rogoff (1990), who draws heavily on Vygotsky's theory, views children's cognitive development as an apprenticeship, where

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children actively learn from observing and participating with others in their society.

 Furthermore, children develop skills to handle problems and to construct new solutions within the sociocultural context. Rogoff used the term guided participation to describe the guidance and participation that occurs in the cultural activities, where the children and others (i.e. teachers, peers) engage in collaborative processes. Thus, when learners are involved in a new activity, they depend on others with more experience to assist with completing the task, but eventually they take on more responsibility for learning and participating in the activity, until they are able to complete the activity on their own.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) developed the term ZPD to explain the distance between a child's "*actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers*" (p. 86; emphasis in original). Working from a child's potential ability, a teacher or tutor will scaffold the learning opportunities to allow the child to "concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence" (Wood et al., 1976, p. 199). Vygotsky (1978) felt guided interactions with adults helped children develop higher cognitive thinking. Vygotsky stated, " . . . what a child can do with assistance today she will be able to do by herself tomorrow" (p. 87). Vygotsky (1978) stated, "The zone of proximal development defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state" (p. 86). Furthermore, the child's current developmental state is impacted by the way a more knowledgeable other works with the child using language as a tool to lift (or scaffold) a child's performance (Rodgers, 2010). Teachers

provide responsive assistance to the child when working in his/her ZPD (Tharp &

Gallimore, 1988). Depending on the child's needs, the assistance can be elaborate at first

and then truncated later. This means the teacher may provide explicit directions at first

and then prompt less explicitly as the child develops in performing the task. However, if

the teacher notices less explicit prompts are not moving the child along in his/her

development, the teacher may adjust her prompts to be more explicit. Thus, there is

continual adjustment in the level of support provided and it is "*responsive to the child's*

level of performance and perceived need" (Tharp & Gallimore, p. 40; emphasis in

original). To estimate the length of the ZPD for a child, a teacher or tutor must assess the

child's current developmental level (Hobsbaum & Peters, 1996). When the length of the

ZPD is identified, effective collaboration between teacher and student can occur.

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) have identified four stages of ZPD. At stage one, a

child is assisted by a more capable other to complete a task. The nature of support

provided depends on the child's age and the nature of the task. Within this stage, the

teacher structures tasks into sub-goals and sub-sub-goals. These goals can change

throughout the task as the expert and novice work together. Stage two involves the child

completing a task with assistance from self. In this case, the child is able to complete a

task with little assistance from another, but their performance is not completely

developed (Hobsbaum & Peters, 1996). Thus, a child uses self-directed speech to guide

himself or herself through the task. According to Diaz (1986), self-speech is a most

profound aspect of cognitive development (as cited in Tharp & Gallimore). This stage

marks the movement of control from the adult to the child or the tutor to the tutee or the

expert to the apprentice. At stage three, a child's performance is developed, automatized,

and "fossilized" (Tharp & Gallimore, p. 38). The task now is automatized, meaning there is no longer need for assistance from another or self. If assistance were provided, it would be disruptive and irritating. In stage four, the child's performance is de-automatized leading to recursion through the ZPD. De-automatization can occur because of stress, slight environmental changes, or physical trauma. Recursion can involve returning to the previous stage and self-regulating the development by self-speech; it can also involve remembering the teacher's instruction or words. On some occasions, recursion can mean returning to stage one and seeking the support of another to perform the task.

Cognitive Perspective

A cognitive perspective toward teacher decision-making and the reading process informed this study. Bruning, Schraw, Norby, and Ronning (2004) stated, "Cognitive psychology is a theoretical perspective that focuses on understanding human perception, thought and memory" (p. 1). Furthermore, learners are viewed as active information processors. Learners' knowledge and perspectives are a critical piece in the learning process. Key concepts within cognitive psychology have arisen: schemata, levels of processing, and constructive memory. Schemata are the mental frameworks that help individuals organize knowledge, direct perception and attention, permit comprehension and guide thinking. Levels of processing refers to the view that information is processed in memory based on the learner's perceptual and cognitive analyses of the new information, with deep processing occurring when the learner attends to the meaning of the new information, rather than superficial aspects of the new information. Constructive

memory refers to "the view that knowledge is created by learners as they confront new situations" (Bruning et al., p. 1).

Another key component of the cognitive perspective is metacognition. Metacognition is "conscious, mindful action" (Duffy, 2005, p. 300). It is often referred to as thinking about thinking (Bruning et al., 2004). Srokowski (2002) described the components of metacognition as planning, evaluating, and monitoring problem-solving. Brown (1977) described metacognition as "knowledge of one's own cognitions" (p. 4). Furthermore, Brown asserted that metacognition "demands the ability to introspect about one's own performance, to differentiate one's own perspective from that of others" (p. 10). Markman (1977) shared that as individuals develop, they "come to take an active, self-directive role in certain areas of cognition" (p. 987). Furthermore, individuals develop "the ability to monitor and evaluate their own cognitive processes" (Markman, p. 987). Bruning et al. shared two dimensions of metacognition: knowledge about one's own thinking and the ability to use this knowledge to regulate one's own cognitive processes. Knowledge of cognition includes declarative (knowledge of oneself as a learner), procedural (knowledge of cognitive strategies), and conditional knowledge (knowledge of when and why to use strategies). Regulation of cognition includes selecting appropriate strategies and resources, monitoring and self-testing the use of those strategies, and evaluating the effectiveness of one's learning.

Teacher decision-making as a cognitive process. Teachers must be aware of their knowledge related to teaching and learning and must self-regulate that knowledge in order "to respond differentially to children" (Duffy, 2005, p. 301). Self-regulated teachers access professional knowledge about reading and teaching, think in the moment

to implement that knowledge, and repeat that process "in a fluid, ever-changing cycle as teaching situations change" (p. 301). Duffy states:

> Hence, effective teachers tend to exhibit metacognitive behaviors. They orient their actions toward the attainment of a goal (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994), use feedback from their performances to make adjustments during instruction (Zimmerman, 2000), abandon routinized procedures when they fail (R. Kanfer & F.H. Kanfer, 1991), and transfer knowledge from one situation to another without prompting (Smith, 2003) (p. 301).

Furthermore, teacher decision-making involves reflective problem solving. According to Moore (1992), reflective problem-solving includes identifying the problem, framing the problem, generating possible solutions, gathering further evidence, reframing the problem in response to new evidence, implementing a solution, and evaluating the effectiveness of the solution (as cited in Vacca, Vacca, and Bruneau, 2005).

Reading as a cognitive process. Reading requires active knowledge construction on the part of the reader (Clay, 1991). It is meaningful and multifaceted, involving interaction between the reader and the text (Bruning et al., 2004). The success of beginning readers depends on metalinguistic awareness and being able to "use their working and long-term memory to process information sequentially, hold it in memory, and relate it to existing knowledge and language structures" (Bruning et al., p. 259). According to Whittrock (1974), comprehension is "a function of the abstract and distinctive, concrete associations which the learner generates between his prior experience, as it is stored in long-term memory, and the stimuli" (as cited in Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). Clay (1991) refers to reading as work or a cognitive process. According to Clay (1991), children must understand that they are to problem solve the challenges found in new texts independently (p. 217). Clay (1979) states, "*Reading is a message-*

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getting, problem-solving activity, which increases in power and flexibility the more it is

practised" (p. 102, as cited in Clay, 2001; emphasis in original). Reading becomes a self-

extending system when the reader is able to engage in reading tasks alone, without

teacher scaffolds, and still improves his or her cognitive abilities (Clay, 1991).

A cognitive perspective toward reading emphasizes that students should learn a

set of flexible strategies they can use to construct meaning from texts, resulting in text

comprehension (Bruning et al., 2004; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Pressley and Wharton-

McDonald (1997), who viewed reading from a cognitive perspective, dispelled the myth

that comprehension was simply about decoding the words in text when they concurred

with a research analysis that showed good readers are active as they interact with text on

a number of levels, using a variety of processes as they go (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995),

to comprehend. Baker, Dreher, and Guthrie (2003) stated, "Engaged readers draw on

knowledge gained from previous experiences to construct new understandings, and they

use cognitive strategies to regulate comprehension so that goals are met and interests are

satisfied" (p. 2). Pressley and Afflerbach conducted an analysis of research literature

about the strategies, processes, and responses good readers use when they read. Pressley

and Wharton-McDonald provided a more concise version of this analysis in a journal

article entitled *Skilled Comprehension and Its Development Through Instruction,* where

they identified the nature of skilled reading by naming what good readers do before,

during, and after reading.

First of all, good readers "approach a text with a purpose" (Pressley & Wharton-

McDonald, 1997, p. 449). They look over the text "to determine if it really is relevant" to

their goals, as well as to identify portions that might be of interest to them (Pressley &

Wharton-McDonald, p. 450). Sometimes good readers will read the text from cover to cover, but other times they will read only certain sections of the text that fit their purpose for reading. While reading good readers seek out information that is relevant to their goal, and this information they process more slowly. If they come across a portion of text that is initially confusing, they will go back and try to clarify the author's message, especially if it is important to their purpose for reading. These readers activate their prior knowledge and make connections and associations across the text to their initial understandings. For instance, they may explain ideas to themselves, create summaries, and reason about why the ideas in the text make sense or do not make sense. They construct hypotheses and draw conclusions throughout the process of reading, changing these hypotheses and conclusions as new information is presented in the text.

Good readers attempt to determine the meaning of new words or concepts in the text, especially when these words seem important to the overall meaning of the text. They also will underline, reread, make notes, or paraphrase at times when they want to remember key information. Good readers understand components (i.e. fiction contains setting, characters, plot) unique to the text genre and use this knowledge to assist with understanding the text. They also will make inferences about the text by relating the information encountered in text to their prior knowledge, beliefs, and experiences, by constructing explanations for events, by generating examples of concepts, and by elaborating on ideas. When reading fiction text, their inferences are about the characters' intents and characteristics and "the state of the world portrayed in the text" (Pressley & Wharton-McDonald, 1997, p. 450).

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Good readers are sometimes able to draw implicit conclusions from the text and to make inferences about "the author's purposes, beliefs, sources, or writing strategies" (Pressley & Wharton-McDonald, 1997, p. 450). They sometimes form personal images of the events described in the text. Good readers monitor their reading and know if the text is easy or difficult for them. They know when they understand their reading and when they do not. Good readers detect comprehension difficulties, such as difficulties that involve understanding the overall meaning of the text or knowing the meanings of particular words. They do what they can to solve these problems. They are "consciously aware of many characteristics of text, from the author's style to the tone of the messages presented" (Pressley & Wharton-McDonald, p. 451). After reading, good readers may go back and reread sections or skim over parts of the text that seem important. They may restate or summarize key ideas to themselves for easier recall later. They often continue reflecting on the text and its meaning.

Automaticity was linked to the development of proficient reading (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; as cited in Allington, 2006). Automaticity refers to "the ability to engage and coordinate a number of complex subskills with little cognitive effort" (Allington, pp. 91-92). Allington explained, "For instance, as children develop as readers a growing number of words are recognized with little effort – that is, without much, if any, conscious attention to the word structure" (p. 92). According to Share and Stanovich (1995), when one reads with automaticity, "words are decoded quickly using larger word patterns instead of a process of letter-by-letter analysis" (as cited in Allington, p. 92).

Recently, Block and Duffy (2008) presented comprehension "strategies that have been researched and validated to be highly successful" (p. 22). Block and Duffy included these strategies:

1. Predicting what will occur in a text prior to reading "using titles, text features, sections, pictures, and captions, and continuously updating and repredicting what will occur next in a text" (p. 22).
2. Monitoring comprehension by activating many comprehension strategies "to decode and derive meaning from words, phrases, sentences, and texts" (p. 22).
3. Questioning the text, stopping to reread, and initiating comprehension processes when the meaning of the text is unclear.
4. Constructing meanings expressed in the text by wondering, noticing, and generating mental pictures.
5. Looking back, rereading, and using "fix-it strategies" before, during, and after reading, "continuously deciding how to shape the knowledge base for personal use" (p. 22).
6. Making inferences by connecting ideas in the text "based on personal experiences, knowledge of other texts, and general world knowledge, making certain that inferences are made quickly so as not to divert attention from the actual text but to help the reader better understand it" (p. 22).
7. Finding main ideas, summarizing, and drawing conclusions, being sure to include information presented from textual features or story grammar.
8. Evaluating the content of fiction text, such as the setting, characters, story grammar, problem, solution, and resolution.
9. Synthesizing informational text, "watching for textual features, accessing features, unique types of information, sequence of details and conclusions, and combining all these to make meaning" (p. 22).

Block and Duffy recommend teaching these comprehension strategies in combination.

Summary

A sociocultural lens informs this study because it situates learning within the social context where learning occurs. The historical, cultural, and institutional settings were key things to consider when understanding the students' learning. Furthermore, a cognitive lens was used toward teacher decision-making and the reading process. Teachers are reflective problem solvers, using their knowledge of teaching and learning

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to make decisions in the instructional moment. Reading is a constructive process, where the reader uses strategies they have developed to navigate text and uses their prior knowledge about text, concepts, and life experiences to understand the text being read.

A variety of qualitative literacy intervention and scaffolding studies have been conducted using the sociocultural lens. Rodgers (2004) conducted a case study about the nature of reading scaffolding during Reading Recovery interventions from sociocultural and cognitive lenses. Hobsbaum, Peters, and Sylva (1996) conducted a study about the types of interactions that occurred during the writing portion of Reading Recovery interventions using a sociocultural lens.

Literacy Coaches

The terms literacy coach and reading specialist have been used in a variety of publications and are usually synonymous. Hall (2004) shared that "literacy coaching is protean, varying from venue to venue and even described by different terms in various regions of the country" (p. 2). Originally, the term reading specialist referred to an individual who acted in the role of a literacy coach (IRA, 2000, 2004, 2010). Recently, the term reading specialist evolved into reading coach and literacy coach (Dole, 2004). IRA (2010) refers to the role of literacy coach and reading specialist synonymously. For this study, the term district literacy coach is used to describe the key participant because that was her official title. Within the district where this district literacy coach worked, the terms district literacy coach, literacy coach, and reading specialist described three different roles. The district literacy coach acted as a coach across the elementary and intermediate schools, providing professional development and communicating between schools to provide seamless transitions. In this district, all district literacy coaches acted

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in the roles of literacy coach and reading specialist as well. The literacy coaches in this

district provided professional development, coached teachers in scientifically-based

literacy practices, monitored school literacy data, and acted as reading specialists. The

reading specialists provided intensive, supplemental literacy interventions for struggling

readers. Of particular interest in this study was the latter role the experienced district

literacy coach played, as reading specialist with students who struggled with reading. As

I discuss the literature on literacy coaches, reading consultants, reading supervisors,

reading coaches, and reading specialists, I will use all terms, depending on the way the

author referred to the role.

A Review of Literacy Coach Research

A variety of studies have been conducted on literacy coaches. These have

included understanding the implementation process of literacy coaching in districts (Al

Otaiba, Hosp, Smartt, & Dole, 2008; Mangin, 2009), understanding and describing the

roles of literacy coaches in elementary, middle, and secondary schools (Blamey, Meyer,

& Walpole, 2008; DiMeglio & Mangin, 2010; Elish-Piper & L'Allier, 2010; Lynch &

Ferguson, 2010 ; Kissel, Mraz, Algozzine, & Stover, 2011), understanding the

relationship between literacy coaching and student reading achievement (Elish-Piper &

L'Allier, 2007, 2010; Garet et al., 2008), describing how coaches balanced fostering

teacher self-reflection and the implementation of particular practices (Ippolito, 2010),

understanding whether literacy coaches could help teachers' beliefs and practices become

more consistent with best practices (Brown, Reumann-Moore, Hugh, du Plessis, &

Christman, 2006; Brown et al, 2007; Garet et al., 2008; Stephens et al., 2011), and

understanding reading coach quality and how it impacts teacher and student outcomes

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(Marsh, McCombs, & Martorell, 2012). These studies have focused on the many roles a literacy coach performs, on the process of implementing literacy coaching into a district, and on the impact a literacy coach has on teacher and student performance.

History of Literacy Coaching

According to Bean and Wilson (1981), the literacy coach movement began in the 1930s with reading specialists who supervised and worked with teachers to improve reading programs in schools, much like the role of literacy coach today. After World War II, schools shifted away from using reading specialists to employing remedial reading teachers who provided support to students struggling with reading, largely in response to criticisms across the country about the failure of American teachers to teach children to read (Bean & Wilson). By the 1950s, remedial reading teachers continued to prevail, along with a small number of reading supervisors across the country (Robinson, 1967).

In the 1960s, reading specialists emerged again in schools as supports for struggling readers, consultants for teachers on ways to meet diverse students' needs, and experts in the teaching of reading (Dietrich, 1967). The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was passed in 1965, providing schools with extra funding for the additional needs of their low-socioeconomic students (Standerfer, 2006). Title I of the 1965 ESEA was the first federal initiative designed to provide funding for reading education in American schools (Dole, 2004). It led to Title I reading teachers or reading specialists who worked with struggling readers in pullout programs (Dole). At this same time, IRA published standards for the training of reading specialists (Dietrich, 1967). IRA explained that a reading specialist might be someone who works directly or

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indirectly with students who have failed to benefit from classroom reading instruction

and/or someone who works with teachers and administrators to coordinate and improve

the school's reading program (Dietrich). In 1966, IRA determined five categories of

reading specialists: a reading teacher who provides remedial reading instruction, a

reading consultant who works directly with teachers and administrators to develop and

apply a total reading program, a reading coordinator who provides leadership in all

aspects of the system-wide reading program, a reading clinician who supports teachers in

diagnosing remedial cases and in planning remedial instruction for difficult reading cases,

and a college instructor who teaches undergraduate and graduate students a variety of

reading courses and engages directly in reading research activities (Dietrich).

In 1967, *The Reading Teacher* published an issue devoted to the role of the

reading specialist. In this issue, Stauffer (1967) stated:

> Reading specialists are being sought – not to serve as remedial reading
> teachers and work in the bottomless pit, but as reading consultants. The
> role of the consultant is to prevent reading failure by working with
> teachers, school psychologists, guidance and counseling specialists,
> administrators, and parents (p. 474).

The term reading consultant permeated this issue and was defined as one who perfects

"the teaching of reading within a school or school system" (Robinson, 1967, p. 475).

Robinson advocated for reading consultants whose major role and purpose was "to work

with the staff of a school to develop, implement, coordinate, and evaluate the reading

program" (p. 477).

Recently, literacy coaching has been reinvigorated because of "the frustration

with traditional workshops and the need, under No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, to find

more effective means to enhance instruction and learning" (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson,

& Autio, 2007, p. 1). NCLB (2002) expressed President Bush's commitment that all American children would be able to read by the end of third grade. To accomplish this goal, a new *Reading First* initiative was posed that increased federal investment in scientifically-based reading programs in the early grades (NCLB). States were given the option of applying for six year grants. Schools that earned a grant were required to use the grant money to assess students at risk of reading failure and to provide professional development on scientifically based reading instruction to K-3 teachers. This initiative led to the use of literacy coaches to provide professional development to teachers in the form of ongoing collaboration. Deussen et al. stated, "In education, literacy coaches support teachers in making instructional changes or decisions in order to improve student achievement in reading and writing" (p. 5). Deussen et al. broke down the jobs of literacy coaches into five categories: data-oriented, student-oriented, managerial, teacher-oriented with individual teachers, and teacher-oriented with groups of teachers. Of interest in this study was the role of the student-oriented coach. This kind of coach spends time providing interventions directly to students. Student-oriented coaches spend time assessing students, using the results to organize interventions, and providing interventions themselves.

In 2010, IRA defined the role of literacy coach as one of improving reading achievement by teaching, coaching, and leading reading programs. IRA explained that a literacy coach might serve in a variety of roles, such as a provider of professional development, a resource in reading and writing, a collaborator with other professionals about building and implementing reading programs, and an advocate for struggling readers. IRA (2004) asserted reading coaches must be excellent teachers of reading and

have in-depth knowledge of reading processes, acquisition, assessment, and instruction.

Furthermore, Johnston (2011) stated, "To effectively coach, however, one must have

more knowledge about literacy, teaching, and learning than the teacher" (p. 521). A

variety of researchers have determined traits of excellent or expert teachers.

Expert Teachers

A variety of studies have concluded that expertise in teaching is the key

component to growth in student achievement (Nye, Konstantopoulus, & Hedges, 2004;

Sanders & Horn, 1998; Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997).

Anderson, Armbruster, and Roe (1989, 1990) concluded "experts in any domain have not

only good problem-solving strategies but also a rich store of knowledge about the

domain" (p. 188). Experts "have learned to integrate artfully 'knowing that' with

'knowing how'" (Anderson, Armbruster, & Roe, p. 188). A variety of researchers

(Metsala et al., 1997; Pressley, 2006; Pressley, Rankin, & Yokoi, 1996; Taylor, Pearson,

Clark, & Walpole, 2000; Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, & Rodriguez, 2002) concluded that

expert teachers are exceptionally active at scaffolding their students' learning.

From a sociocultural perspective, Mercer (2002) summarized characteristics of

expert teachers and how they used language in their classrooms:

1. They went beyond using questions to test knowledge by using
   questions to guide students' understanding. They used questions to
   discover students' initial understandings and adjusted their instruction
   accordingly. They also used 'why' questions to foster student
   reflection and reasoning.
2. They modeled the use of problem-solving strategies, explained the
   meaning and purpose of classroom activities, and used their
   interactions with students to encourage students to make explicit their
   thought processes.
3. They viewed learning as a social and communicative process,
   encouraging students to take active, vocal roles in classroom activities,

> to give reasons for their views, and to engage in the exchange of ideas
> while supporting for one another.

Furthermore, Mercer explained that the most expert teachers "used language to support and guide the children's activity (p. 145). Also, these teachers encouraged "more active and extended participation in dialogue on the part of the children" (p. 145). In sum, Mercer stated, "In such classrooms the students are apprentices in collective thinking under the expert guidance of their teacher" (p. 145). A synthesis of case study research showed expert first grade teachers adapted their methods of teaching to fit the needs of their students instead of adapting their students to fit a particular method (Pressley et al., 2001). Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998) stated, "Outstanding teachers have been characterized in research studies as effectively and deliberately planning their instruction to meet the diverse needs of children in a number of ways" (p. 196). These researchers found expert teachers purposefully planned instruction based on student needs.

A variety of researchers have converged on traits of expert reading teachers. Anderson, Armbruster, and Roe (1989) stated, "Common sense and educational research converge on the conclusion that the quality of teaching that children receive is a major determinant of their progress in reading, writing, and the other language arts" (p. 2). Furthermore, research has shown that expert teachers "assign reading material on which children experience a high rate of success" (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, p. 16). When these teachers provide praise, they do so by specifically naming what the student did well, attributing the student's success to ability and effort, and implying that this success is attainable in the future (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, p. 16).

Lyon and Weiser (2009) asserted that expert reading teachers understand components of scientifically based reading instruction and how to teach these

components in an integrated manner. Duffy and Hoffman (1999) stated, "Hence, reading instruction effectiveness lies not with a single program or method but, rather, with a teacher who thoughtfully and analytically integrates various programs, materials, and methods as the situation demands" (p. 11). According to IRA (2000), an excellent reading teacher understands how literacy develops in children, assesses student progress and relates instruction to students' previous experiences, knows a variety of ways to teach reading, provides a range of materials and texts for students to read, tailors instruction to individual students, motivates students, encourages independent learning, has high expectations for achievement, and helps students who are having difficulty. Furthermore, NRP contended that successful teachers help students become proficient readers by providing skillful instruction that is flexible and meets individual student's needs (NICHD, 2000). In regards to reading professionals, IRA (2010) asserts that students with the greatest literacy difficulties need teachers with expertise in literacy teaching and learning. Likewise, IRA asserts, "Professionals who provide supplemental instruction or intervention must have a high level of expertise in all aspects of language and literacy instruction and assessment and be capable of intensifying or accelerating language and literacy learning" (p. 4).

Expert teachers are responsive to their students' individual needs (Dozier & Rutten, 2006) and possess a wealth of knowledge about instruction, learning, assessment, standards, and characteristics of an effective performance. Dozier and Rutten asserted, "Responsive teaching involves building on learners' responses, fostering flexibility, setting clear goals for instruction, and developing teacher-student-teacher exchange of ideas" (p. 461). Being a responsive teacher involves becoming a keen observer "of how

learners construct knowledge" and then using "that information to build on learners'

strengths" (Dozier, Garnett, & Tabatabai, 2011, p. 637). Moreover, Mills and O'Keefe

(2010) claimed that responsive teaching begins with kidwatching and continues with

collaborative conversations shared in classrooms. Responsive teachers "promote literacy

growth by being deliberate about helping children get in touch with themselves and the

process" (Dozier, Garnett, & Tabatabai, p. 2).

     Kidwatching. Kidwatching involves watching children carefully to make

decisions about curriculum (O'Keefe, 1996). O'Keefe states, "It is a continuous,

systematic look at the process of how students learn" (p. 65). Kidwatching is "a way of

thinking about children from a learner's perspective" (O'Keefe, p. 78). It transforms

teaching into an interactive process between teacher and children. Most educators who

call themselves kidwatchers view language and learning with a sociocultural lens, a

perspective that "is steeped in the notion that children *construct* knowledge within *unique*

social worlds" (Owocki & Goodman, 2002, p. 3). Facilitating and observing social

interactions are an essential part of kidwatching, allowing the kidwatcher to probe the

child and to listen closely to the child's thinking with the intent of deciding next steps for

instruction. Kidwatchers function within a child's ZPD. They evaluate what a child can

do with assistance and use this information to "plan immediate or future experiences that

capitalize on the child's current intellectual functioning" (Owocki & Goodman, 2002, p.

6). When interacting with children, kidwatchers choose when it is best to participate and

question and when it is best to watch and follow. Kidwatching involves noticing ways to

capitalize on individual strengths and meet individual needs (Owocki, 2005). Interacting

while kidwatching involves interpretive probing, asking students questions to discover

what they know and to understand why they think the way they do (Mickleson, 1990; as cited in Owocki & Goodman, 2002). Questions asked by kidwatchers may include "What makes you think so?" and "Why did you choose to do it this way?" (Owocki & Goodman, p. 6). These types of questions encourage students "to critically examine their own knowledge base and to reflect on their own learning" (Owocki & Goodman, p. 6). It also gives the teacher insight into the child's thinking and reasoning processes.

Summary

Literacy coaching was a new term developed for an old teaching role – the reading specialist. The role of literacy coach has changed over the years from teacher mentor to remedial reading teacher to consultant on how to meet the needs of struggling readers. Currently, a literacy coach is a literacy expert who acts as a mentor and coach to teachers by providing individualized professional development and as student data collector and analyzer. Because of this role, literacy coaches should be expert reading teachers and possess knowledge about literacy processes and research-based literacy practices. Much of the recent research surrounding literacy coaching centers on the role they play as mentor and coach. This study focuses on the role of literacy coach as the provider of reading interventions for struggling upper elementary readers.

Reading Interventions

To understand the need for reading interventions in American schools, I provide an explanation of the achievement gap, Response to Intervention (RTI), and intervention research.

Achievement Gap

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The National Center for Education Statistics (2012) asserted, "Achievement gaps occur when one group of students outperforms another group and the difference in average scores for the two groups is statistically significant" ("National Assessment of Educational Progress: Achievement Gaps," para. 1). NCLB (2002) asserted that all children deserve a high-quality education. This can be accomplished by "closing the achievement gap between high- and low-performing children, especially the achievement gaps between minority and nonminority students, and between disadvantaged children and their more advantaged peers" (NCLB, Section 1001). Kober (2001) summed up key facts about the achievement gap: a wide racial/ethnic gap exists, the gap is present before attendance in school even begins, racial/ethnic differences in family income contribute to the gap, and the gap is not due to differences in innate ability. Kober also provided a list of possible contributing factors to the achievement gap: watered-down instruction, less-qualified or experienced teachers, low teacher expectations, and concentrations of low-income and minority in particular schools. With this list, Kober also included a list of strategies that may help to close the gap: improving teacher preparation and professional development, having high standards and accountability for subgroup performance, reforming schools, providing extended after-school and summer learning opportunities, reducing class size in high minority schools, and targeting research on promising strategies.

Allington (2009) explained why he felt the reading achievement gap had not been closed by stating, "Few struggling readers get enough expert, intensive reading instruction to double or triple their rate of reading development" (p. v). Furthermore, students who score significantly below their peers need more time and more intensive

instruction to close the gap and catch up to their same age peers (Vaughn et al., 2009).

Allington stated:

> Studies of techniques used with older struggling readers, grade 4 and upward, have typically shown less success in bringing struggling readers' achievement up to grade level, but that may be a result of the size of the gap in reading achievement these older readers experience (p. 8).

For example, a fourth-grader may begin the school year reading at the second-grade level. If he could triple his rate of reading growth "from a half year of growth per year to one and one-half years growth per year, it would still require four years of such instruction and growth" (Allington, p. v) before he was reading on grade level. In the early grades, a one year gap between struggling readers and their peers is more common, but by fourth grade, it is not uncommon for a struggling reader to be one or two years behind their average peers. By sixth grade, three and four year gaps between struggling readers and their peers are more common. Thus, to catch these readers up to their peers will require several years of instruction that triples their reading acquisition rate. Allington suggested that fourth grade struggling readers receive intensive and expert reading intervention every day for an extra hour to close the reading achievement gap. Furthermore, these students may need two- or three-year intervention plans to catch up to their peers. This leads into the next section about a federally suggested intervention plan to foster reading achievement and to reduce the number of children labeled learning disabled.

Response to Intervention

President Bush ordered the development of the President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education on October 1, 2001, to identify ways to strengthen America's commitment to educate children with disabilities (President's Commission on

Excellence in Special Education, 2002). Findings from this commission (2002) showed that children who qualified for special education were not necessarily receiving more effective instruction and strong intervention. Furthermore, the special education system was based on a waiting-to-fail model, rather than a prevention and intervention model (President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education). Another pertinent finding was that children with disabilities needed highly qualified teachers who used evidence-based practices (President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education). Around this time period, NCLB (2002) was published and IDEA (2004) was reauthorized, creating a wave of interest in reading interventions. The reauthorization of IDEA led to an alternative method known as Responsiveness to Intervention (RTI) for identifying a child as learning disabled. According to Fuchs and Vaughn (2012), "RTI has become a major force in education reform" (p. 195). Furthermore, Fuchs and Vaughn stated, "It [RTI] has been integrated into policy, with all 50 states permitting RTI in LD identification" (p. 195). IDEA states, "In determining whether a child has a special learning disability, a local educational agency may use a process that determines if the child responds to scientific, research-based intervention as a part of the evaluation procedures" (Section 614 b 6 B).

Fuchs, Fuchs, and Vaughn (2008) described RTI as a multi-tier prevention system. The first tier includes the general, or universal, curriculum in the classroom (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Vaughn). Those students who fail to respond to the universal curriculum move into subsequent tiers for secondary prevention and intervention (Bradley, Danielson, and Doolittle, 2007; Fuchs, Fuchs, & Vaughn). Vaughn et al. (2008) referred to the tiers in this fashion, from least to most intensive: primary classroom

instruction, secondary intervention, and tertiary intervention. Secondary intervention consists of "intervention and progress monitoring for students at risk for reading difficulties" (Vaughn et al., p. 168). The purpose of this second tier is "to prevent reading difficulty by delivering a more intensive (and presumably effective) intervention that accelerates reading development, and to assess the child's responsiveness to instructional intensity from which the vast majority of children should profit" (Davis, Lindo, & Compton, 2007). When students do not respond to Tier 2 intervention, they move into a third and final RTI tier, which is synonymous with special education (Davis, Lindo, & Compton). This tertiary intervention involves "intensive intervention for students demonstrating low response to secondary intervention" (Vaughn et al., 168). The essential components of RTI are "screening, progress monitoring, research-principled general education instruction, and supplemental intervention" (Fuchs & Vaughn, p. 195).

O'Connor, Fulmer, Harty, and Bell (2005) stated, "To improve reading outcomes, students known to be lagging behind their peers should receive instruction that differs from the routines that were ineffective" (p. 442). These students may need more time with the current instruction, may need a different grouping structure (e.g., small group, one-to-one), may need opportunities to participate in essential reading tasks (e.g., reading aloud, strategy instruction, word instruction), or may need additional concept instruction (O'Conner et al.). According to Fuchs, Fuchs, and Vaughn (2008), reading intervention includes intensive, standardized, research-based, small-group tutoring. It is an expectation that most students will respond well to this intensive instruction (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Vaughn). With the RTI approach, a learning disability may be determined by

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"chronic nonresponsiveness" (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Vaughn, p. 1) to "scientific research-based intervention" (IDEA, 2004, Section 300.307 a 2). According to Dole (2004), even with high-quality reading instruction, "there will always be students who need supplementary instructional intervention" (p. 464). Dole contended that reading specialists could play a unique role in providing these interventions. Bean and Lillenstein (2012) provided an explanation of the changes in the role of reading specialists as a result of RTI implementation:

- More focused, frequent intervention for selected students

- Informal support to teachers

- Working more collaboratively with teachers (p. 493)

Thus, the role of reading specialist has changed to provide intensive interventions to struggling readers, along with supporting classroom teachers in their work with struggling readers.

In sum, to meet the needs of struggling learners, school districts across the country are using RTI models that require the continual monitoring of student progress and the implementation of intensive interventions. Bean and Lillenstein (2012) stated:

> In other words, schools are using RTI as a vehicle for school improvement, providing a high-quality core program that addresses the needs of all students, and then developing or selecting robust, research-based approaches that meet the needs of students needing more targeted or intensive instruction (p. 492).

Intervention Research

Most children learn to read relatively easily, but there are a number of children in America who struggle with learning to read well (Allington, 1998, 2002; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). In this explanation of intervention research, the term struggling reader

and at-risk reader will be used interchangeably and are defined as: "Children whose level

of performance and/or rate of improvement are dramatically below that of peers (based

on classroom, school, district, state, or national norms)" (Davis, Lindo, & Compton,

2007, p. 32). In many cases, the culprits for students' reading failure are their lack of

phonological knowledge (Torgesen, 2002; Vellutino et al., 1996) and/or the insufficiency

of the instruction they receive (Allington; Foorman & Torgesen, 2001; IRA, 2010;

Vellutino, Scanlon, Zhang, & Schatschneider, 2008). Torgesen (2000) stated that "the

ultimate goal of reading instruction is to help children acquire the knowledge and skills

necessary to comprehend printed material at a level that is consistent with their general

language comprehension skills" (p. 55). To do this, children "need to be able to identify

the words used to convey meaning, and they must be able to construct meaning once they

have identified the individual words in print" (Torgesen, 2000, p. 56).

To meet the needs of diverse learners, scientifically research-based instructional

practices should be used (NICHD, 2000) and varied levels of instructional intensity must

be provided to insure all students become skilled readers (Allington, 1998; Felton, 1993;

Mathes et al., 2005; Swanson, 1999). IRA (2002) explained research-based or evidence-

based reading practices as follows:

> In its simplest form, evidence-based reading instruction means that a
> particular program or collection of instructional practices has a record of
> success. That is, there is reliable, trustworthy, and valid evidence to
> suggest that when the program is used with a particular group of children,
> the children can be expected to make adequate gains in reading
> achievement (p. 2).

Scientifically research-based instruction and intervention include the following

components: phonemic awareness, phonemic decoding skills, fluency in recognizing

words and processing text, comprehension strategies and techniques, vocabulary,

spelling, writing, and mental processing and reasoning when reading (Mathes et al.;

NICHD; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Torgesen, 2002). Furthermore, according to

Gambrell and Mazzoni (1999), research-based best practices in reading include being

able to:

1. Teach reading for authentic meaning-making literacy experiences for pleasure, to be informed, and to perform a task.
2. Use high-quality literature.
3. Integrate a comprehensive word study/phonics program into reading/writing instruction.
4. Use multiple texts that link and expand concepts.
5. Balance teacher- and student-led discussions.
6. Build a whole-class community that emphasizes important concepts and builds background knowledge.
7. Work with students in small groups while other students read and write about what they have read.
8. Give students plenty of time to read in class.
9. Give students direct instruction in decoding and comprehension strategies that promote independent reading. Balance direct instruction, guided instruction, and independent learning.
10. Use a variety of assessment techniques to inform instruction (p. 14).

Likewise, Allington (2002), Mathes et al., Swanson, and Torgesen contend that reading

instruction must be explicit, meaning students are taught skills and strategies directly. At

the early elementary levels, instruction in the alphabetic principle should be explicit

especially for the students that are weakest in phonological skills (Felton; Foorman,

Fletcher, Francis, Schatschneider, & Mehta, 1998; Juel & Minden-Cupp, 2000).

Foorman and Torgesen (2001) stated, "The components of effective reading

instruction are the same whether the focus is prevention or intervention" (p. 203). To say

reading instruction needs to be more intense for struggling readers means more expert

instructional opportunities need to be provided to these kinds of readers each day, beyond

the typical classroom instruction (Allington, 2002, 2006, 2009; Johnston, 2011;

Torgesen, 2002). One key way to provide this intensive reading instruction is to employ

reading specialists who provide small group instruction in addition to the regular classroom instruction (Torgesen). Small group settings for intensive reading instruction are recommended for struggling readers (Foorman & Torgesen; Johnston, 2011; Rashotte, MacPhee, & Torgesen, 2001; Torgesen) with one-on-one tutoring being the most intense intervention (Allington, 2006). Furthermore, Allington (2009) shared that struggling readers, beyond first grade, need longer intervention periods because they have fallen further behind their peers. Allington (2009) stated, "By fourth grade there are too many struggling readers who are two full years behind their achieving classmates" (p. 17). Hence, these students need more intensive, expert instruction to double or triple their rate of reading growth (Allington, 2006, 2009). Torgesen asserted that at-risk readers need more cognitive instructional support in the form of "carefully 'scaffolded' instruction" (p. 17), such as using teacher-student dialog that demonstrates the kind of processing or thinking that needs to be done to complete a task successfully. Juel (1996) conducted a one-to-one tutoring study of first graders and college tutors to determine factors that led to successful learner outcomes. Results of this study showed scaffolding of reading and writing and modeling of how to read and spell unknown words were key factors in successful dyads.

Vaughn et al. (2008) distinguished between two kinds of interventions: standardized and individualized. Standardized interventions are matched to the students' current level, but the emphasis and procedures are implemented similarly for all students in the intervention. Unique characteristics of standardized interventions are: reduced instructional decision making, high control of materials used for instruction, highly specified curriculum, use of time specified, and high levels of fidelity to a single

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approach. Many of the current intervention studies have utilized standardized

interventions, meaning there are few individualized intervention studies. Individualized

interventions are those that respond to the differentiated needs of the struggling learners.

Unique characteristics of individualized interventions are: increased instructional

decision making based on student assessment results, lower control of materials used for

instruction, low to moderate specification of curricula, flexibility in the use of time to

address specific student needs, and responsive to students' needs. Individualized

interventions for older students with reading difficulties may be the necessary method

because of the varying reading needs of the students and because of the gap between their

reading performance and their grade-level expectations.

Early elementary intervention research. Early intervention can have a

significant effect on the reading achievement of struggling learners (Blachman et al.,

2004; Blachman, Tangel, Ball, Black, & McGraw, 1999; Dorn & Soffos, 2012; Foorman,

Breier, & Fletcher, 2003; Foorman et al., 1998; Fuchs & Vaughn, 2012; Fuchs, Fuchs,

Mathes, & Simmons, 1997; Simmons et al., 2007; Wanzek & Vaughn, 2007; Vellutino et

al., 1996; Vellutino, Scanlon, Small, & Fanuele, 2006; Vellutino et al., 2008). Juel

(1988) conducted a study of fifty-four at-risk students beginning in first grade through

fourth grade to determine if poor readers remained poor readers and to determine factors

that kept poor readers from improving. Results from Juel's study showed that building

phonemic awareness was a key factor to improving the reading success of at-risk readers.

A variety of early intervention studies have focused on the impact of phonological

awareness instruction on student reading achievement (Ball & Blachman, 1991;

Blachman et al., 2004; Blachman et al., 1999; Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Byrne &

Fielding-Barnsley, 1991, 1993, 1995; Castle, Riach, & Nicholson, 1994; Felton, 1993; Foorman et al., 1998; Lie, 1991; Lovett et al., 1994; Lundberg, Frost, & Peterson, 1988; Rashotte et al., 2001). Results of these studies showed instruction in phonological awareness to be an imperative part of early intervention, especially for struggling readers, to improve word reading (Allington, 2002). Phonological awareness refers to "awareness that the sound structure of language can be considered separate from meanings and functions" (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005, p. 68). Phonemic awareness is a subtype of phonological awareness and refers to "an awareness of the smallest units of sound that allow speakers of a language to differentiate among words" (Snow et al., p. 68). Vellutino (2010) describes phonological skills as knowledge of letter names and sounds, phoneme awareness, letter-sound decoding, verbal memory, and name retrieval.

Wanzek and Vaughn (2007) completed a synthesis of research on early reading interventions for students with reading difficulties and disabilities. Their findings supported small-group intervention sizes and early intervention, preferably K-1. Additionally, two intervention studies (Hatcher, Hulme, & Ellis, 1994; Iversen & Tunmer, 1993) were conducted to determine components of the most effective early interventions. Results indicated that the combination of phonological skills within a reading intervention showed the greatest gains for struggling readers (Hatcher et al., 1994; Iversen & Tunmber, 1993). Additional studies have been conducted on fluency interventions. Chard, Vaughn, and Tyler (2002) conducted a synthesis of research on effective interventions for building reading fluency with learning disabled, elementary students. Their findings suggested, "effective interventions for building fluency include an explicit model of fluent reading, multiple opportunities to repeatedly read familiar text

independently and with corrective feedback, and established performance criteria for increasing text difficulty" (Chard et al., p. 386). After this synthesis, Vadasy and Sanders (2008) took the results of repeated readings as a way to build fluency and conducted a study examining the effects of a repeated reading intervention with second and third grade students. Results showed that students involved in repeated readings of text made significant gains in word reading accuracy and fluency, especially students who were below-grade-level in word reading skills.

Adolescent intervention research. A variety of studies (Alexander, Anderson, Heilman, Voeller, & Torgesen, 1991; Lovett et al., 1994: Rashotte et al., 2001; Williams, 1980) conducted across elementary school levels found improvement in word reading when students were involved in an intervention including phonemic awareness. Likewise, there is evidence from intervention studies (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; NICHD, 2000; Swanson, 1999) conducted with strictly older students that they can improve their ability to decode words when they are provided with instruction in word reading. Swanson conducted a meta-analysis of intervention research for adolescent students with learning disabilities in the areas of reading comprehension and word recognition. Results of this meta-analysis revealed instructional components that increased the treatment effectiveness in the area of reading comprehension, as follows: providing a directed response or question, controlling the difficulty of the task, elaborating on concepts, procedures, and/or steps, modeling the steps, instructing in a small group setting, and providing strategy cues. Furthermore, components of word recognition instruction that led to treatment effectiveness were: sequencing the steps in the task, fading the prompts or cues, matching the difficulty level of the task to the

student, using step-by-step prompts, breaking down the skill into smaller parts, directing

students to look over the material prior to instruction, focusing students' attention on

particular information, providing information prior to a task, and/or stating objectives of

the task prior to commencing. Interestingly, all of these components are characteristic of

explanations about scaffolding.

Scammacca et al. (2007) published a meta-analysis of studies designed to improve

the reading abilities of adolescent struggling readers. Based on this intervention research

meta-analysis, implications for teaching practice were identified:

1. Adolescence is not too late to intervene. Interventions do benefit older
   students.
2. Older students with reading difficulties benefit from interventions
   focused at both the word and the text level.
3. Older students with reading difficulties benefit from improved
   knowledge of word meanings and concepts.
4. Word-study interventions are appropriate for older students struggling
   at the word level.
5. Teachers can provide interventions that are associated with positive
   effects.
6. Teaching comprehension strategies to older students with reading
   difficulties is beneficial.
7. Older readers' average gains in reading comprehension are somewhat
   smaller than those in other reading and reading-related areas studied.
8. Older students with learning disabilities (LD) benefit from reading
   intervention when it is appropriately focused (Swanson, p. 1).

Furthermore, Vaughn et al. (2008) claimed that older struggling readers "may need

instruction in any of a range of reading components from beginning phonics skills to

decoding multi-syllabic words and practicing reading for fluency, depending on their

degree of development and corresponding areas of need" (p. 339). Hence, the

intervention needs to be tailored to the needs of the students.

Kamil et al. (2008) provided a practice guide with the intent of presenting

"specific and coherent evidence-based recommendations" (p. 1) for educators to improve

the literacy levels of adolescent students, ranging from fourth grade to high school. Recommendations in this practice guide for adolescent literacy instruction and intervention were: explicit vocabulary instruction, direct and explicit comprehension strategy instruction, extended discussion of text meaning and interpretation, student motivation and engagement in literacy learning, and intensive and individualized interventions for struggling readers, provided by trained specialists. Edmonds et al. (2009) conducted a meta-analysis of intervention research to determine the outcome of comprehension, word study, vocabulary, and fluency on the reading comprehension of sixth to twelfth grade struggling readers. Results indicated that students with reading difficulties and disabilities could improve their comprehension when they were provided with a reading intervention in "comprehension, multiple reading components, or, to a lesser extent, word reading strategies" (Edmonds et al., p. 292). Furthermore, Edmonds' findings echoed Kamil's findings that older readers benefited from explicit comprehension strategy instruction – "that is, modeling and thinking aloud how to self-question and reflect during and after reading and engaging students to become actively involved in monitoring their understanding and processing text meaning" (p. 293). Wanzek, Wexler, Vaughn, and Ciullo (2010) conducted a synthesis of twenty years of research on reading interventions for struggling, fourth and fifth grade readers. Results of this synthesis supported high effects for students' comprehension achievement when the intervention included instruction in comprehension strategies before, during, and after reading. Thus, for older readers, explicit comprehension strategy instruction is recommended to improve comprehension.

Fluency and word-level intervention studies demonstrated less effect on the comprehension of older readers. Studies on fluency indicated that increased reading rate and accuracy did not always increase comprehension (Allinder, Dunse, Brunken, & Obermiller-Krolikowski, 2001; Edmonds et al., 2009). Word-level interventions had small to moderate effects on comprehension. However, for older students who lack word-reading skills, it is imperative that they build word-level skills, but this should occur with comprehension skills (Edmonds et al.).

Overall, results from these studies support interventions that are tailored to students' instructional needs. As students progress into upper elementary and beyond, they need interventions that also focus on comprehension development, such as strategy instruction, modeling, thinking aloud, opportunities to write and discuss their reading, and motivation and interest in reading.

RTI interventions. Recently, there has been a shift in intervention research to include components of RTI, where studies focus on secondary level interventions. Kamps and Greenwood (2005) conducted a study of first grade students and found explicit phonics instruction to be a necessary component of the intervention when the children were in a classroom that did not offer phonics instruction. Mathes et al. (2005) also conducted an RTI study and found that struggling first grade readers in an intervention combined with enhanced classroom instruction made greater reading growth than the students who only received enhanced classroom instruction. Similarly, Vaughn et al. (2009) conducted a study within an RTI model and found second grade students in a reading intervention made significant reading comprehension growth and word reading growth. Vellutino et al. (2008) conducted a study of at-risk students in kindergarten and

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assessed their reading development over the course of two years. Interventions were

provided in kindergarten to random at-risk students and then again in first grade if the

students were still at-risk. Results from this study showed most children at-risk for early

reading difficulties could be identified in kindergarten and provided with low-cost, small

group interventions that would accelerate a majority of their reading performance. Some

may require additional, intensive and individualized intervention in first grade to achieve

grade level reading skills. Gelzheiser, Scanlon, Vellutino, Hallgren-Flynn, and

Scatschneider (2011) conducted a study of an RTI intervention with intermediate level

struggling readers. Results of this study showed positive effects on comprehension when

an intervention was conducted in a one-to-one context and included a format of

minilesson, reading, discussing, and writing. Another aspect of this intervention was the

instructional goals and activities varied among students as their skills and progress

changed .

Qualitative interventiodn research. A variety of qualitative studies have been

conducted about reading interventions. McCormick (1994) conducted a three-year case

study of an elementary student who participated in a university reading clinic. Findings

from this study supported an intervention that was tailored to the reading needs of the

student and included student interest, multiple response opportunities, real text reading,

and appropriate text selection for a student's current reading stage (McCormick).

Hobsbaum et al. (1996) conducted a study of the writing portion of Reading Recovery, a

one-on-one intervention for first grade students developed by Marie Clay. Findings from

this study supported scaffolding as part of teaching in a reading intervention (Hobsbaum

et al.). Rodgers (2004) conducted a case study about the reading interactions between

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tutors and first grade students in Reading Recovery. Findings from this study showed the intervention to be effective at supporting struggling readers because of two key features: students had the opportunities to make errors and learn from these errors and the support provided by the tutor was modulated based on the student's needs.

Summary

A similar intervention finding in these studies was matching the intervention to the learner's needs. The students who benefited from an intervention the most were the ones who needed that intervention the most. For instance, struggling readers who lacked phonological skills benefited most from a phonological awareness intervention. Allington (2002) asserted that "many children will need access to larger amounts of more expert, more intensive, and more personalized teaching if they are to acquire reading proficiency alongside their peers" (p. 279). Personalized teaching means assessing students' needs and matching instruction to those needs. This means there will be ebb and flow throughout the intervention, as students' reading needs change. Likewise, the length of an intervention and the number of interventions a student receives depends on their individual needs.

<center>**Scaffolding**</center>

The term scaffolding originated in a paper written by Wood et al. (1976), who described it as assistance provided by a more capable other "that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts" (p. 199). The adult controls elements of the task that are initially beyond the child's capacity, thus allowing the child to concentrate on and complete only those elements within his/her range of competence (Wood et al.). Although Vygostky

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did not use the term scaffolding, his writings were an impetus for the metaphor (Stone, 1998). Other researchers (Brown & Palincsar,1989; Gaffney & Anderson, 1991) also made the connection between Vygotsky's theory of ZPD and Wood, Bruner, and Ross's development of the term expert scaffolding.

According to van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen (2010), scaffolding is a teaching method that focuses on the child's development in all its many facets. Furthermore, van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen (2011) viewed scaffolding as "the temporarily contingent (i.e., being responsive to the current level of the student) support provided by a teacher to a student during the performing of a task" (p. 46, emphasis in original). Wood (1998) explained the task of Reading Recovery teachers when asserting:

> In Vygotskian terms, they need to locate and work at the upper bounds of a child's zone of proximal development. The teacher must then be capable of scaffolding the child's activities to ensure that they meet the challenges set and do as much as they can for themselves but without being left to struggle alone when demands exceed their current abilities (p. 289).

Furthermore, Wood discussed the need of a teacher to fade support when a child is ready to perform the task alone and then be prepared to provide help to the child when new terrains of learning are encountered. Van de Pol et al. (2010) stated:

> Because scaffolding is such a dynamic intervention finely tuned to the learner's ongoing progress, the support given by the teacher during scaffolding strongly depends upon the characteristics of the situation like the type of task (e.g., well-structured versus ill-structured) and the responses of the student (p. 272).

For this reason, scaffolding will not look the same in different situations, nor will it be applied in every situation in the same way (van de Pol et al., 2010).

Scaffolding Terms Defined

To fully understand scaffolding, a variety of terms must be described that are paramount to effective scaffolding; these terms can be divided into two categories: diagnostic strategies and intervention strategies (van de Pol et al., 2011).

Diagnostic strategy terms. These terms refer to scaffolding strategies that allow a teacher to determine a child's level of understanding. These include contingency, fading or gradual withdrawal of scaffolding, and transfer of responsibility (van de Pol et al., 2010).

Contingency. This refers to the support provided by a teacher that is flexible because it is based on the teacher's diagnosis of the child's current level of competence, which is ever changing during the course of an instructional task (van de Pol et al., 2010). Also, van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen (2012) asserted that contingency is "a necessary condition for scaffolding" and "an indispensable characteristic of scaffolding" (p. 194). Other names for contingency include "responsiveness, tailored, adjusted, differentiated, titrated, or calibrated support" (van de Pol et al., 2010, p. 274). A teacher must determine the child's current level of competence in order to provide appropriate and effective support geared toward the child's specific learning needs. Determining or diagnosing a child's current level of competence (van de Pol et al., 2010) has been referred to as dynamic assessment (Fuchs et al., 2007; Lajoie, 2005; Lajoie & Lesgold, 1992; Pea, 2004; Swanson & Lussier, 2001), ongoing diagnosis (Puntambekar & Hubscher, 2005), and formative assessment (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Pellegrino, Chudowsky, & Glaser, 2001; Sadler, 1989; Shepard, 2005). Although these terms are

similar, I provide a brief explanation of each because they hold slightly different and noteworthy descriptions.

Dynamic assessment. Dynamic assessment was defined as moment-by-moment assessment of learners while they are in the process of problem solving so that feedback can be provided during the activity (Lajoie, 2003; Lajoie & Lesgold, 1992). Fuchs et al. (2007) affirmed that dynamic assessment allowed teachers to determine the aspects of a task that a child would need minimal support to achieve. Immediate feedback can be provided when and where the learner needs assistance; thus, it allows the assessment to improve instruction so that appropriate remediation occurs in the context of problem solving (Lajoie, 2003; Lajoie & Lesgold, 1992). According to Lajoie and Lesgold, dynamic assessment "implies diagnostic assessment in that it is used to both monitor and improve the learning situation" (p. 366). Pea (2004) explained that dynamic assessment and the scaffolding process are cyclical in that the adult considers the learner's assessed level of performance and provides appropriate scaffolding in response to that level, always working toward the learner's autonomous performance.

Ongoing diagnosis. A teacher scaffolds a learner appropriately based on an ongoing diagnosis of the learner's current level of understanding (Puntambekar & Hubscher, 2005). To appropriately scaffold, the teacher must have a thorough knowledge of the task and its components, of the subgoals that need to be accomplished, and of the child's capabilities that change as the instruction progresses. Wood et al. (1976) stated:

> The effective tutor must have at least two theoretical models to which he must attend. One is a theory of the task or problem and how it may be completed. The other is a theory of the performance characteristics of his tutee. Without both of these, he can neither generate feedback nor devise situations in which his feedback will be more appropriate for this tutee in this task at this point in task mastery. The actual pattern of effective

instruction, then, will be both task and tutee dependent, the requirements
of the tutorial being generated by the interaction of the tutor's two theories
(p. 206).

The teacher or tutor constantly fine tunes the scaffolding based on the child's changing

knowledge and skills, which are determined through diagnosis (Puntambekar &

Hubscher).

Formative assessment. Pellegrino et al. (2001) explained formative assessment as

"*assessment to assist learning"* (p. 38, emphasis in original). This type of assessment

provides specific information about students' learning strengths and needs (Pellegrino et

al.). According to Shepard (2005), formative assessment was used to determine a child's

current understanding level. This determination helped the teacher alter the instruction to

support the child's current competency level. According to Sadler (1989), when

assessing "the quality of a student's work or performance, the teacher must possess a

concept of quality appropriate to the task, and be able to judge the student's work in

relation to that concept" (p. 121). For the child to improve, the child must hold a concept

of quality similar to the teacher's concept of quality (or standard), be able to monitor

continuously the quality of what is being produced, and have a repertoire of strategies or

moves to use during the process. Sadler added that there are two key components of

formative assessment: feedback and self-monitoring. Feedback is explained later under

intervention strategy terms. Self-monitoring occurs when the student or learner identifies

the relevant information during a learning task independent of the teacher. Black and

Wiliam (1998) found that students learned more when they received explicit feedback

about errors and poor strategy use along with suggestions of how to improve.

Fading. Fading or gradual withdrawal of scaffolding refers to the amount and/or level of support decreasing over time, determined by the teacher who knows the child's current competency level (van de Pol et al., 2010). As the teacher contingently fades the scaffolding, the responsibility of task performance transfers to the learner (van de Pol et al., 2010). Fading is the teacher's job as scaffolder. Pearson and Gallagher (1983) coined the term *gradual release of responsibility*, which is synonymous with fading (as cited in Duke & Pearson, 2002). This model is a framework for implementing instructional scaffolds in reading comprehension, particularly in strategy instruction (Frey & Fisher, 2010), and came from Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) work on comprehension instruction (as cited in Duke & Pearson, 2002). According to this model, the teacher assumes all the responsibility for performing a task in the initial stage; this is called modeling or demonstrating a strategy. Then the task becomes shared between teacher and students. Finally, the student assumes all responsibility of the task or independent strategy use. The teacher then shifts to a participant role. Frey and Fisher state: "As part of the gradual release of responsibility framework, the teacher scaffolds learning to facilitate student understanding" (p. 84).

Transfer of responsibility. This refers to the performance of a task being "gradually transferred to the learner" (van de Pol et al., 2010, p. 275). Responsibility may include cognitive or metacognitive activities, as well as students' affect (van de Pol et al., 2010). The responsibility is considered transferred when the learner takes more and more control of the activity or task (van de Pol et al., 2010). This is the goal of scaffolding (van de Pol et al., 2012).

Intervention strategy terms. These included modeling, feeding back, instructing, questioning, and cognitive structuring (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; van de Pol et al., 2010). Additionally, Wood et al. (1976) included these terms: recruitment, reduction in degrees of freedom, direction maintenance, marking of critical features, and frustration control.

Modeling. According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988), modeling is "the process of offering behavior for imitation" (p. 47). Wood et al. (1976) referred to this as demonstrating or modeling. These authors asserted that the teacher demonstrates or models "an idealized form" of the solution for the learner. Tharp and Gallimore made the connection between modeling and imitation, stating that it is "more complicated than simple mimicry" (p. 48). An individual must process the modeled behavior before s/he can perform the behavior . Likewise, the individual can transform the modeled activity into images and verbal symbols for guidance when performing later . According to Gallimore and Tharp (1990), expert teachers are highly important sources of scaffolding.

Feeding back. This term referred to the feedback provided about performance (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). Sadler (1989) described feedback as information given about how successfully something has been done or is being done; it is external to the learner. Gallimore and Tharp stated, "Feedback alone can guide a student to substantial improvement in performance on the next try" (p. 180). Furthermore, they asserted, "In educational programs, feedback on performance is vital to every participant" (p. 180). However, Gallimore and Tharp clarified that feedback must be compared to a standard to be effective. Furthermore, feedback involves a teacher who knows the skills to be

learned, recognizes and describes a fine performance, and indicates how a poor performance can be improved (Sadler).

   Instructing. This term refers to instruction that occurs during the learning task, allowing the learner to move through the zone of proximal development (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). The instructing voice of the teacher becomes the self-instructing voice of the learner, as there is a gradual withdrawal of responsibility of task performance.

   Questioning. When a teacher scaffolds using questions, s/he elicits a learner to actively respond verbally and cognitively (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). Gallimore and Tharp stated, "The *assistance question*, on the other hand, inquires in order to produce a mental operation that the pupil cannot or would not produce alone. The assistance provided by the question is the prompting of that mental operation" (p. 182; emphasis in original).

   Cognitive structuring. This term refers to "the provision of a structure for thinking and acting" (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). Furthermore, Tharp and Gallimore (1988) stated, "It may be a structure for beliefs, for mental operations, or for understanding. It is an organizing structure that evaluates, groups, and sequences perception, memory, and action" (p. 63). Gallimore and Tharp identified two types of cognitive structuring: structures of explanation and structures for cognitive activity. Structures of explanation refer to the explanation provided by a teacher that assists learners in organizing perception of new information. Structures for cognitive activity refer to the structures provided to learners that assist in their cognitive processing; this type of cognitive structuring is often referred to as metacognition .

Recruitment. The originators of the term scaffolding described recruitment as enlisting the learner's interest in the task and the learner's adherence to the requirements of the task (Wood et al., 1976). Rogoff (1990) called this intersubjectivity and described it as "a sharing focus and purpose between children and their more skilled partners" (Rogoff, 1990, p. 8). Stone (1998) called it "shared understandings" (p. 352). The child and teacher mutually engage in an activity that interests the child and that is understandable to the child (Stone, 1998). Both share an understanding of the activity and maintain a common focus of attention. The teacher or adult may interact in a manner to focus the child's attention on critical elements of the activity or situation.

Reduction in degrees of freedom. This term refers to simplifying the task by reducing the number of acts or steps to reach a solution (Wood et al., 1976). The teacher, in effect, completes some of the acts while allowing the learner to complete components of the task that they can manage.

Direction maintenance. This term refers to the role the teacher plays of keeping the learner interested in the task and motivated to complete the task (Wood et al., 1976). Furthermore, it also refers to the role the teacher plays of directing the learner's attention to the next step in the task and to the worthwhile nature of more complex steps in the task.

Marking critical features. This term is rather self-explanatory when it refers to the teacher's role of drawing the learner's attention to the relevant or critical components of the task (Wood et al., 1976). This involves the teacher interpreting the discrepancies between a learner's production and what is considered a correct production.

Frustration control. This term refers to the teacher's role of controlling elements of the task with the intent of eliminating or reducing the stress level for the learner (Wood et al., 1976). However, there is a major risk of creating too much dependency between the teacher and the learner.

Historical Review of Scaffolding

The term scaffolding was coined in a study conducted by Wood et al. (1976). This particular study sought to understand the nature of the tutorial process, "whereby an adult or 'expert' helps somebody who is less adult or less expert" (Wood et al., p. 198). Wood et al. presented findings about the scaffolding functions of the tutor, which included acting as a recruiter of the learner's attention, a calibrator of the task to ensure learner success, a reminder of the learner's goal, an identifier of the relevant features of a correctly, performed task, a controller of frustration during problem solving, and a demonstrator or modeler of the learning task. Stone (1998) asserted, " . . .what was being scaffolded was not the completion of a specific task but, rather, the child's understanding of how to conceptualize the task and of the proper sequence of steps toward its accomplishment" (p. 345). Since the coining of scaffolding, it has been called assisted performance (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988), cognitive apprenticeship (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; Rogoff, 1990), guided apprenticeship (Rogoff, 1990), and responsive teaching (Gaskins, Anderson, Pressley, Cunicelli, & Satlow, 1994).

The original scaffolding study conducted by Wood et al. (1976) consisted of dyadic interactions between adult tutors and children ages 3, 4, and 5. Cazden (1979) extended the scaffolding metaphor to parent-child interactions and teacher-student interactions. This extension showcased the use of scaffolding in multiple situations and

for multiple purposes. Over the past thirty years, a variety of studies have been conducted about parent-child interactions. Originally, the majority of early scaffolding studies focused on understanding the way parents scaffolded their young children and how this scaffolding changed during a task (Greenfield, 1984; Heckhausen, 1987; Hodapp, Goldfield, & Boyatzis, 1984). Later, studies extended the term to understanding how mothers scaffolded their developmentally delayed children (Levine, 1996; Skibbe, Behnke, & Justice, 2004). Recent studies have sought to understand how scaffolding differed among mothers and children from diverse cultural backgrounds (Kermani & Brenner, 2000; Robinson, Burns, & Davis, 2008; Sun & Rao, 2012) and from different socioeconomic levels (Hustedt & Raver, 2002; Landry, Smith, Miller-Loncar, & Swank, 1998; Sun & Rao). Likewise, recent studies have delved into the impact higher cognitive abilities had on scaffolding (Mulvaney, McCartney, Bub, & Marshall, 2006) and the impact child compliance had on scaffolding (Gauvain & Perez, 2008). Furthermore, studies have compared the scaffolding provided by parents to that provided by teachers (Hess, Dickson, Price, & Leong, 1979; Sun & Rao).

Findings from these parent-child studies confirmed that effective scaffolding became less explicit and direct as a child progressed in learning a task (Greenfield, 1984; Heckhausen, 1987; Skibbe et al., 2004), was related to the child's level of competence with the task and to the task demands (Kermani & Brenner, 2000), aided children in the mastery of skills (Hodapp et al., 1984; Landry et al., 1998; Mulvaney et al., 2006; Skibbe et al.), was influenced by a child's compliance (Gauvain & Perez, 2008; Hustedt & Raver, 2002) and a child's ability (Levine, 1996; Mulvaney et al.), was influenced by the SES level of the family with middle or upper SES parents providing more optimal

scaffolding (Sun & Rao, 2012), included getting the child's attention and providing appropriate contextual clues (Hodapp et al.), and was influenced by the person providing the scaffolding (Hustedt & Raver; Levine, 1996; Mulvaney et al.; Skibbe et al.) with teachers making more appropriate shifts in the levels of scaffolding provided to children (Sun & Rao).

In the mid-1980s, studies of teacher-student interactions informed by the scaffolding metaphor began to emerge (Stone, 1998). Palincsar and Brown (1984) conducted two mixed method studies that investigated the effectiveness of reciprocal teaching, a comprehension focused intervention that was based on the notions of expert scaffolding. Findings from these studies revealed reciprocal teaching to be an effective intervention for poor junior high readers because it involved "continuous trial and error on the part of the student, married to continuous adjustment on the part of the teacher to their current competence" (Palincsar & Brown, p. 169). Furthermore, the students and teacher engaged in interactions where each was mutually responsible for accomplishing the task and where the teacher acted less as a model and more as a coach as the students adopted more of the skills essential to the task. To accomplish this effective interaction, the teacher had to be sensitive to each student's needs at any stage during the process by engaging in ongoing diagnosis that guided the level of participation provided. According to Palincsar and Brown, diagnosis involved "continuous evaluation and revision in the teacher's theory of the student's competence, a theory that must be responsive to the level of participation of which the student is currently capable" (p. 169). Palincsar (1986) conducted another reciprocal teaching study with first graders "at risk for academic difficulty" (p. 73) because she wanted to extend the reciprocal teaching intervention from

junior high to first grade students. Also, Palincsar wanted to examine the role dialogue

played in facilitating scaffolded instruction. Results of this study revealed that teachers

who interacted with students effectively were the ones who supported students'

contributions to dialogue, who linked student ideas to new knowledge, who made

evaluative statements that changed student viewpoints from negative to constructive, and

who made the purpose of instruction explicit to the students.

Clay and Cazden (1990) evaluated Reading Recovery (RR), a tutorial program,

for first grade children who had not "'caught on' to reading and writing" (p. 206). Their

discussion revealed that scaffolding occurred at "the cutting edge of the child's

competencies, in his or her continually changing zone of proximal development" (p.

219). Mariage (1995) conducted a quantitative study to examine patterns of talk among

more and less effective teachers using a multicomponent reading-comprehension

framework. Results from this study showed that high-gaining teachers spent

considerably more time during the reading process scaffolding students by modeling,

thinking-aloud, transferring control, and constructing background knowledge. Dole,

Brown, and Trathen (1996) conducted a quantitative study comparing student

comprehension scores from three different treatment groups: story content, strategy, and

basal instruction groups. Results indicated that "at-risk readers who received strategy

instruction made superior gains in comprehension performance over their peers who

received story content or traditional base instruction" (Dole et al., p. 72). Dole et al.

stated, "The specific focus of the strategy treatment group on modeling, coaching, and

fading may have provided our at-risk readers with the scaffolding necessary to

incorporate the procedural and conditional knowledge they were learning into their own repertoire of reading strategies (Roehler & Duffy, 1991)" (p. 73).

Juel (1996) conducted a study of one-on-one tutoring between first grade struggling readers and college students who struggled with reading to determine components contributing to successful outcomes from the intervention. The most effective tutors engaged in scaffolded interactions and modeled how to read and spell unknown words. Maloch (2002) conducted a qualitative study exploring the relationship between the teacher's role and the students' participation in literature discussion groups. Scaffolding was a component used in the analysis to explain the teacher's role in the students' development of exploratory talk during literature discussion groups. Maloch found that the teacher's scaffolded responses were based on the students' actions and interactions; thus, the teacher's scaffolded responses were contingent on the students' actions, were explicit to components of the task, and were based on an understanding of the expected outcomes and goals of literature discussion groups. Gillies and Boyle (2005) conducted a qualitative study to explain the types of mediated-learning, otherwise known as scaffolded, interactions teachers demonstrated when they used "specific communication skills designed to challenge children's thinking and understanding during cooperative learning" (p. 254). Findings demonstrated scaffolded interactions to include: "probing and clarifying to extend children's thinking, acknowledging and validating children's understandings, focusing on key issues, confronting discrepancies in their thinking, challenging children to identify problem issues, validating children's ideas, and tentatively offering suggestions" (Gillies & Boyle, p. 254).

Cole (2006) qualitatively studied first grade teacher volunteers as they worked with first grade students to understand their scaffolding behaviors. Findings revealed that scaffolders moved from micro prompts (focused on the word, letter, or sound) to the macro level (focused on text meaning) and back again. As students became more fluent with their reading, the scaffolders provided more macro prompts. Cole's study revealed that when scaffolders worked with novice readers, they provided lengthier scaffolding periods, more praise and affirmation, more interruptions during the reading process, and more gestural marking behaviors. Many, Dewberry, Taylor, and Coady (2009) conducted a qualitative study to describe how English as a second language (ESOL) preservice teachers viewed scaffolding and how they provided scaffolded instruction. Their findings revealed one noteworthy claim: scaffolding was evident in the decision-making processes of the preservice teachers, though it varied in depth of use among the interns.

The three following studies of teacher-student interactions were the most similar to my study and are explained in more detail.   The first study was conducted by Hobsbaum et al. (1996) of a Reading Recovery intervention with first grade students. The purpose of this study was to determine if the tutoring was built on scaffolded assistance. Results of this study revealed three phases of scaffolding:

1. The teacher monitors and structures the writing task.
2. The student identifies his/her needs independently while the teacher provides questions, prompts, or cues to assist the child in making connections or retrieving stored information.
3. The student internalizes the teacher's prompts and social exchanges and now can exercise increasing control over his/her cognitive processes with regulatory language.

Furthermore, Hobsbaum et al. concluded, "We think that scaffolding can take place only in one-to-one teaching situations because contingent responding requires a detailed understanding of the learner's history, the immediate task, and the teaching strategies needed to move on" (p. 32). This study showed that the scaffolding process underpins teaching in a reading intervention.

The second study most similar to this study was conducted by Many (2002). The purpose of this naturalistic study was to describe the nature of scaffolding during conversations in different instructional contexts. Findings from this study confirmed that scaffolding with the greatest amount of support involved the teacher or more knowledgeable peer providing direct assistance to the learner, supplying additional information to the learner, clarifying information that the learner had already encountered, or modeling a strategy or an understanding to the learner. Furthermore, more interactive scaffolding included using "questions or prompting statements to elicit additional information from students and to guide students' efforts" and using "verbal or nonverbal methods to focus students' attention on particular areas" (Many, p. 384). Finally, scaffolding with the greatest amount of student participation included students in "monitoring their own understanding or strategy use" (Many, p. 384). Additionally, this kind of scaffolding involved the teacher naming effective processes the students used or in-depth understandings the students had. The third study most similar to this study was conducted by Rodgers (2004). The purpose of this naturalistic study was to describe the nature of effective scaffolding provided by two Reading Recovery teachers who were tutoring two first grade struggling readers each. Rodgers found that the tutors varied the kind of help they provided and matched it to each student's development. The help

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included assisting students at the word level and at the action level. Word level help ranged from words previously encountered that were expected to be known by sight or new words that the teacher either told the student or taught the student so the word would become a sight word. Action level help included prompting a student to take action by matching their utterances with the words in the text one-to-one, using the meaning of text, using the initial letter of a word, using parts of the word, or rereading. Another aspect of Rodgers' study was describing the level of help provided. Rodgers broke this down into four categories, from most to least helpful: telling, demonstrating, directing, and questioning. Rodgers found that directing and questioning students to take an action occurred more than demonstrating or telling.

In the 1990s, scaffolding studies shifted from studies of social mediated learning to studies of cultural artifacts, curriculum, activities, tasks, and computer programs or software as scaffolds. Palincsar (1998) asserted that researchers should "consider the ways in which contexts and activities –not just individuals- scaffold learning" (p. 370). Furthermore, Kamberelis & Bovino (1999) argued that educational research on scaffolding had focused mainly on its social aspects, neglecting "the mediational function of cultural tools" (p. 145). Hence, a variety of studies were conducted about this type of scaffolding. There were also a variety of studies conducted about developing teacher scaffolding through professional development. These kinds of studies are not the focus of this study; thus, they will not be reviewed.

Types of Scaffolding

Instructional scaffolding. This addresses the support a teacher provides to students, such as questioning, directing attention, or giving hints about strategy use, to

enable students to engage in ways they could not on their own (Bruning et al., 2004). A shared understanding of the task between teacher and students is necessary for successful scaffolding (Newman, Griffin, & Cole, 1989; Rogoff 1990). According to Greenfield (1984), scaffolding involves a teacher structuring an interaction to build "on what he or she knows the learner can do" (p. 118). Sternberg and Williams (1998) asserted that scaffolding is a continual revision, where the level of support changes according to the child's development. As a child develops, the teacher changes the scaffolding so the child gradually becomes responsible for producing the expected behaviors (Sternberg & Williams). According to Puntambeker and Hubscher (2005), one key element of scaffolding is "that the adult provides appropriate support based on an *ongoing diagnosis* of the child's current level of understanding" (p. 3). Thus, the adult must have knowledge of the task and its components, of the subgoals that should be accomplished, and of "the child's capabilities that change as the instruction progresses" (Puntambeker & Hubsher, p. 3). The adult must draw from a repertoire of methods and strategies to provide support for changing learners; the adult must also fine-tune this support as the child's abilities and knowledge change. Support changes and adapts as ongoing assessment reveals changes in the learner. Thus, the nature of scaffolded instruction is "*dialogic and interactive*" (Puntambeker & Hubsher, p. 3, emphasis in original). Wood (2003) described five levels of scaffolding support:

> Level One: General Verbal Intervention
> Level Two: Specific Verbal Intervention
> Level Three: Specific Intervention and Nonverbal Information
> Level Four: Prepares for the next action
> Level Five: Demonstrates action (p. 12).

Level one involves the teacher providing a low level of support; level five involves the teacher providing a high level of support by taking control of the next action through demonstrating or modeling.

Torgesen (2002) asserted that struggling readers need two types of scaffolding. One type is "careful sequencing so that skills build very gradually" (Torgesen, p. 17). Another type is teacher-student dialog, identified by four components of reading scaffolding:

(a) the student is presented with a task such as reading or spelling a word, or making a paragraph summary (i.e., tries to spell the word "flat");
(b) the student makes a response that is incorrect in some way, or indicates that he/she doesn't know how to proceed (i.e., spells it "fat");
(c) the teacher asks a question that focuses the child's attention on a first step in the solution process, or that draws attention to a required piece of information ("If you read that word, what does it say?" Child responds, "fat." "So, what do you need to add to make it say flat?" No answer. "When you say *flat*, what do you hear coming right after the beginning sound /f/?"); and
(d) another response from the child ("I hear the /l/ sound.") (p. 17).

This type of interaction continues until the child has been guided to successfully complete the task. The premise of this kind of scaffolded instruction is that the child is guided by the teacher to discover the crucial information or strategies needed to accomplish the task, rather than being told what to do.

Within an RTI model, Fuchs and Vaughn (2012) contend that teachers must be able to differentiate instruction by assessing students' needs on critical skills at their grade level and by varying the kind and intensity of instruction to meet those needs. Varying instruction includes being able to adjust the focus of instruction, the group size, and the instructional scaffolding. Instructional scaffolding must include feedback to the students about their strengths and needs.

Clark and Graves (2005) added to the literature with types of instructional scaffolding that support reading comprehension. The first type is moment-to-moment verbal scaffolding, where a teacher prompts a child by asking probing questions and elaborating on the student's responses during the instruction. The second type is an instructional framework that fosters content learning. In this type of scaffolding, the teacher structures and orchestrates the learning experience for optimal learning. This may include moment-to-moment verbal scaffolding or a variety of other scaffolds. Finally, the third type is instructional procedures for teaching reading comprehension strategies. In this case, the teacher explicitly teaches strategies to students, engages students in supported practice with a variety of texts, and slowly transfers strategy use to students as they become able to use the strategies. According to Clark and Graves, all scaffolding must provide enough support to allow students to succeed during the learning task, but not too much support that the students do not use cognitive effort to learn.

Textual scaffolding. Instructional scaffolding is usually verbal, but it can be extended to text (Brown, 1999). This refers to teachers selecting particular texts that support the developmental level of specific readers (Brown, 1999). The text difficulty increases as the student develops as a reader (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Teachers can determine the appropriate text level by taking running records of the students reading (Clay, 2000). According to Hobsbaum and Peters (1996), teachers of Reading Recovery (RR), a tutoring intervention for first graders, know they must be very sensitive to each child's learning history and use this knowledge when choosing texts to offer opportunities for consolidating old learning while reaching out for new. RR teachers scaffold by providing introductions to new text that gives the tutee helpful highlights

about syntax difficulty and unusual vocabulary. They also carefully select texts to

provide optimum learning and fluent performance.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to understand the nature of scaffolding designed and implemented by an experienced district literacy coach to support struggling readers in a small group intervention. The overarching question guiding this study was: Using sociocultural and cognitive lenses, what is the nature of reading scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach to students in a small, Midwestern city during a small group intervention? Supporting questions included: (a) How does the experienced district literacy coach determine the kind and level of scaffolding to provide? and (b) How does the kind and level of scaffolding change?

Research Paradigm

The constructivist paradigm informed the methodology of this study. I believe that multiple realities exist on the basis that individuals "experience the world from their own vantage points" (Hatch, 2002, p. 15). Hatch states that "the objects of inquiry are individual perspectives or constructions of reality" (p. 15). The inquiry process involves co-construction between the participants and researcher who construct the subjective reality together (Hatch, p. 15). Methodologically speaking, the methods used by naturalistic inquirers fit with constructivists (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Extended periods of time are spent interviewing participants and observing participants in their natural settings (Hatch). The goal is to reconstruct "the constructions participants use to make sense of their worlds" (Hatch, p. 15). Often constructivist findings are presented from a case study tradition or rich narrative. Presenting findings involves providing enough

detail about the context and about "the voices of the participants" (Hatch, p. 16), so that readers can live vicariously in the lives of the participants and judge the transferability of the findings to their setting. This paradigm guided my study because I sought to understand the reality (perspective) of an experienced district literacy coach as she scaffolded struggling readers. Through persistent observations in the natural setting of her intervention, frequent interviews, and member checks, I worked with the experienced district literacy coach to understand the kind and level of scaffolding she provided.

Tradition

The primary goal of this descriptive case study was to understand the nature of scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach during a small group reading intervention using sociocultural and cognitive perspectives. Yin (2009) explains that there are four different applications for case studies with one being "to describe an intervention and the real life context in which it occurred" (p. 20). Merriam (2009) states, "*Descriptive* means that the end product of a case study is a rich, "thick" description of the phenomenon under study" (p. 44). The purpose of this study was to describe the nature of scaffolding. The sociocultural perspective establishes that learning occurs in social contexts and cannot be understood apart from the teaching and learning venue. Furthermore, a cognitive perspective contends that teachers make decisions within learning contexts and readers develop reading expertise during the act of reading. The case study tradition recognizes that understanding a phenomenon requires studying it within its natural setting. Hence, a case study tradition fit sociocultural and cognitive perspectives because it allowed the researcher to study the phenomenon in the natural setting.

Time, place, and the participants made this study a bounded system. The experienced district literacy coach worked with five fourth grade students during a small group intervention that occurred from March to August. This completed one cycle of the intervention. Purposeful sampling was pursued to maximize my ability to describe the phenomenon and thus uncover the scaffolding perspectives of the experienced district literacy coach. Qualitative data were gathered because it was "more adaptable for dealing with multiple realities" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 40). Inductive data analysis was used because this was more likely to allow for the identification of multiple realities, for describing the setting and allowing for transferability, and for making the interactions between investigator and respondents explicit and accountable (Lincoln & Guba).

The case study tradition allowed me to describe the multiple realities of the respondent, to negotiate outcomes and interpretations with the respondent, to acknowledge my values, and to report consequent biases (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It also allowed me to report on the findings without making "broad application of the findings because realities are multiple and different" (Lincoln & Guba, p. 42).

Research Context

This case study was conducted in the natural setting because "naturalistic ontology suggests that realities are wholes that cannot be understood in isolation from their contexts" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 39). The phenomenon of interest was the nature of scaffolding provided by a district, literacy coach during a small group intervention. Lincoln and Guba assert, "No phenomenon can be understood out of relationship to the time and context that spawned, harbored, and supported it" (p. 189). In the following section, I describe the district setting so the reader may understand "the

outside features" of the case that helped "define the contexts or environment of the case" (Stake, 2006, p. 3). Then I describe the components that "lie within the system, within the boundaries of the case" (Stake, p. 3).

Backyard: Pros and Cons

The key participant, Jane (pseudonym), was selected because of her expertise in literacy instruction, especially with struggling readers. I had known Jane for nine years and participated with her in some of the reading intervention and literacy coach training. I had worked in the district where the study occurred for eleven years. I had also conducted the same kinds of interventions as Jane. Some refer to this as a backyard study. Advantages and concerns with conducting a backyard study are explained.

Advantages. The knowledge I had about reading intervention, about struggling readers, and about scaffolding helped with my data collection and analysis, in that I knew what was considered scaffolding and what was not. I also knew the format of the intervention and the components of the intervention where scaffolding would occur. I was able to jump right into observation and interview data collection because I was familiar with the location and the key participant.

Concerns. Some threats to my study and findings were my knowledge of scaffolding, the intervention, and struggling readers, having participated in similar training as Jane. My prior understandings influenced the interview questions I asked because I knew what to ask about scaffolding and struggling readers. Because of my familiarity with Jane, my questions could be leading. In the beginning, Jane did not think she needed to explain her scaffolding to me. This was evident in the following interchange:

Interviewer: And then with Stacey, she came to frail and said failure. And with her and Cole and Larry, you said, "Does that bother you? Does that make sense? Did that bother you?"

Jane: It should bother them. Don't you think it should bother them?

Interviewer: I'm just asking (Interview, April 7, 2011).

I had talked with Jane earlier about my purpose for asking questions to understand her thinking about scaffolding. In this example, though, she expected me to know the reason why she took the actions she took. Once I stated that I was just asking, Jane provided a response. It did not take long for Jane to fall into the role of participant who was revealing her reality to me about scaffolding and struggling readers. Explanations of how I addressed these trustworthy concerns are presented in my trustworthiness section.

The Location

This study occurred in a Midwestern city with a population of approximately 40,000. The school district in this city included seven K-3 buildings, one intermediate school with fourth through sixth grade, one junior high school with seventh through ninth grade, and one high school with tenth through twelfth grade. The intermediate building was the location of this study. The building housed 1,448 students in 2010 with an African American population of 8.7 percent, a Hispanic population of 1 percent, and a multi-racial population of 4.6 percent (Illinois Interactive Report Card, 2010). Sixteen percent of the students had an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). Fifty-four percent of the students were classified as low income. Because the low income percentage rate was above fifty, the school was considered a Title One school, receiving extra funds, which were used to reduce class sizes and pay the salaries of reading interventionists and literacy coaches.

The intermediate building used to house the high school, but was converted into an intermediate school twenty-seven years ago. Lockers line the hallways creating more of a middle school feel, than an elementary school. Due to its large size, the building was divided into three schools that shared a roof. Although the schools each had their own name, literacy coach, interventionist, counselor, and principal, they still shared the hallways, bathrooms, gym, playground, cafeteria, in-school suspension room, and auditorium. Plus, one of the three principals also acted as the head principal for the building. The schools acted as one unit many times when participating in assemblies, fundraisers, drama club, Young Author's Conference, and talent show. Teachers across schools worked together by setting school improvement goals, participating in after school planning sessions, and attending professional development seminars. During the week, though, teachers from one school met together in Professional Learning Communities (PLC). This did not occur across buildings because the large number of staff members would hinder the effectiveness of the PLC groups. As it was, each PLC group had at least eight members, which was deemed to be the perfect size to function well.

How the School Selected Students for Interventions

Teachers' data on their students and the State Achievement Test results were key components used to identify students for reading interventions. Every quarter teachers gathered student reading data and tracked the progress of their students on an assessment wall. The Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark Assessment System (2007) was used to assess students each quarter. This assessment provided teachers with a corresponding, independent reading level for each child.

The assessment wall was housed in the literacy coach's room. It included four pocket charts for each grade level. Each chart represented a different level of mastery: academic warning, below standards, meeting standards, and exceeding standards. Every student had an index card with his/her reading information recorded on the back. Teachers updated these cards every quarter with students' current reading level and placed them in the corresponding level of mastery. Students who fell in the academic warning or below standards categories were considered for interventions, as were students who feel below expectations on the State Achievement Test. This was how the experienced district literacy coach selected students for her intervention. I did not know the students prior to the study.

In 2007, the district began utilizing a Response to Intervention (RTI) framework. The framework included four tiers. The first tier included additional reading support provided by the classroom teacher. The second and third tiers included reading interventions provided by a reading intervention specialist. These interventions were designed to accelerate student learning using scientifically research-based instruction and intervention. Each school had one and a half reading interventionists who provided Tier II and Tier III interventions outside the classroom. These included Guided Reading Plus (GRP) and Comprehension Focus Group (CFG) interventions.

Many students who fell below expectations were assessed by an interventionist to see what kind of intervention best suited their reading needs. Of these students, the ones who struggled with oral reading at their grade level were placed into a GRP intervention. Students who could read text at their grade level with ease, but struggled with comprehending their reading, were placed into a CFG intervention. Hence, GRP differs

from CFG in that part of the focus is on helping readers develop visual strategies for figuring out tricky words in text. CFG students already employ a wide range of visual strategies when reading and need a strong focus on comprehension.

Guided Reading Plus

GRP was the reading intervention observed in this study. Dorn and Soffos (2012) designed GRP and explained the intervention as enabling "struggling readers to read for understanding, think critically about their reading, practice efficient decoding strategies, and use what they know about reading to assist with their writing, and vice versa" (p. 73). Furthermore, Dorn and Soffos stated, "The goal is to enable the struggling reader to acquire flexible strategies for solving problems in reading and writing, while maintaining a focus on comprehension" (p. 73). Readers "must keep the focus on meaning at all times, while simultaneously developing a toolbox of visual searching strategies for solving words with speed and efficiency" (Dorn & Soffos, p. 72).

At the intermediate school, the GRP lessons occurred in a two-phase cycle (see Table 1). During phase 1, the lesson began with word study, where Jane presented a word principle and provided some form of word work for students to do. The word principle was selected based on student needs; these were determined on initial assessments, such as spelling, reading, and writing results, and on ongoing informal assessments, such as writing logs and running records. Jane also provided a fluent write word, which was a word students were not writing correctly and needed additional practice writing. Then Jane introduced a new book to the students, providing necessary background knowledge about the content and/or structure, explaining key vocabulary or unusual sentences or phrases, and giving a purpose for reading. This book would be used

during phase 1 and 2. Following this, students sat around the room to read the text independently while Jane met with students for the individual conferencing portion (only Jane and the five students were present in the room). This entailed participating in a conversation with the student about the content of the text, listening to the student read a portion of the text, reflecting on the student's strengths and needs, and providing a teaching point. After students read all of the text or most of it, Jane called them together to discuss key aspects of the text. At the end, students took the book home to read again.

Phase 2 occurred on the following day, when students reread the text and Jane conducted two running record conferences with two students. During these conferences, Jane listened to the students read a portion of the text. Jane would have the student read one hundred to two hundred words while she marked a check for words read correctly while writing out the words read incorrectly (miscues). According to Shea (2006), a running record is used to determine the strategies a reader uses successfully on his/her own. Clay (2000) explained that a running record allows a teacher to review what happens while a child is reading, leading to on-the-spot instructional decisions or decisions for later lessons. Following the running record, Jane would discuss with the student his/her strengths and needs as a reader. Once these running record conferences were completed, Jane called the students together at a round table and provided a writing prompt designed for students to think deeply about the text. A discussion was held about the writing prompt with Jane scaffolding student responses. Students then wrote independently about the prompt, while Jane held individual conferences. Jane focused on word solving tools for writing words and on thinking deeply about the text. For this

study, the reading portions of the intervention were the focus for data collection and analysis.

Table 1

Components of GRP Phases

Phase 1: Reading Phase	Phase 2: Reading and Writing Phase
• Word Study (whole group) • Fluent Write (whole group) • Text Introduction (whole group) • Independent Reading with Conferences (students individually with Jane) • Group Discussion about Text (whole group) • Homework: Reread the text at home that night.	• Independent Rereading of the Text • Running Record Conferences (one or two students individually with Jane) • Group Discussion about Text (whole group) in Preparation for Writing • Independent Writing with Conferences (students individually with Jane) • Homework: Read a book at home that night.

GRP was designed to allow Jane to assess students weekly using a running record. This ongoing assessment provided her with information about the students' progress (Interview, August 11, 2011). Jane used this data to select leveled texts for future lessons, to tailor the lessons to meet students' specific needs and strengths, and to set reading goals with individual students.

Ethical Considerations

Observations for this study were conducted in a natural, school setting. Thus, the only obtrusiveness was the presence of the researcher in the room. Data were collected from participants who signed a consent form and knew the purpose of the study. Jane agreed to be interviewed weekly. To keep the identification of the participants confidential, pseudonyms were used on the data collected and in this report. Likewise, in all reports the location of the study is left unclear. No photographs were taken of the

participants to be used in this report or other publications. Whenever there were changes

in the study, I sought IRB for assistance and approval. Findings and other information

included in this report that were deserving of a member check were given to Jane for

review and input.

<center>**Gaining Access and IRB Approval**</center>

Initially, I received approval from the Midwest district on October 18, 2010. I

received IRB approval for my study on March 7, 2011. It was then that I recruited Jane.

After talking about the intervention groups she already had in process, she felt it would

be best if I observed a new intervention group she was starting after school on March 21,

2011. My approved consent forms stated that the intervention group would occur during

the school day. I had to change these to say the intervention group would occur after

school. After making revisions to my consent forms and talking with my advisor I

submitted an amendment to IRB on March 17, 2011. See Appendix A for the written

consent form that the district literacy coach received. See Appendix B for the youth

assent form. See Appendix C for the parental consent form. During my time waiting on

amendment approval, I observed the GRP intervention, but only gathered data through

field notes; no digital recordings were taken. I received approval for my amendment on

March 29, 2011, and talked with the students about the research study the next day. By

April 6, 2011, I had received permission from all the students in the intervention group,

and I began audio recording the intervention sessions. I was able to record fifteen

intervention sessions. There were three times when I was unable to audio record due to a

technical difficulty, forgetting my audio recorder, and my absence due to severe weather.

On July 14, 2011, I submitted an event report. I wanted to use the data gathered in field notes during the first few weeks of the intervention before I had received amendment approval. This data proved to be important because it showed how Jane developed expectations in the group and fostered student reflection. On August 31, 2011, IRB approved this event report.

Jane decided to continue this intervention group into summer school. I planned to continue observing. Four out of the five students had continued the intervention into summer school. I received the district's approval to conduct research during summer school on June 10, 2011. Then I received IRB approval on June 16, 2011. Summer school had been in full swing for two weeks at this time. I was able to collect data for two days in June and two weeks in August. This gave me a total of thirty-two intervention sessions where data were collected.

Participants

The Key Participant

Jane was the key participant in this case study. I wanted to understand and be able to describe the nature of scaffolding as it occurred during her small group, reading intervention. To fully understand the nature of scaffolding in this study, it is imperative that the reader knows and understands Jane: her philosophy about teaching and learning, her educational and professional background, and the way she created a learning environment.

Jane's teaching and learning philosophy. Jane's beliefs about children motivated her; she asserted, "I know most struggling readers can be average readers at least. I've seen that and I know that and I feel that, so I think that's what drives me"

(Formal Interview, August 11, 2011). Jane was a firm believer that all children could be successful readers, stating, "I think you also have to have the right philosophy. It's about knowing in your heart that that child, that struggling reader, cannot only grow, but grow with leaps and bounds if you're effective" (Formal Interview, August 11, 2011). Jane felt being effective meant letting the students be the problem solvers; when they came across a difficulty while reading she did not want to come to their rescue. She acted as a supporter while expecting the students to do the work. She wanted students to feel the success of solving a problem on their own and to transfer this success to every reading experience they had.

When Jane listened to students orally read, she always wanted the focus to be on the meaning of the text (Informal Interview, April 7, 2011). She wanted students to know that reading was about understanding the author's message and thinking how the text could have an impact on their lives.

Much of this philosophy developed as Jane underwent training to be a reading interventionist. Over time, she continued to modify her practices with children as she read current research and learned more about struggling readers by working with them. Her work as a literacy coach also impacted how she worked with struggling readers. She expected teachers she coached to be reflective practitioners. She transferred this mindset to her intervention students, expecting them to reflect on their practices as readers and writers.

The many hats Jane wears. Jane fills many roles for her district. First of all, Jane is a literacy coach professor, teaching college courses in her district through a Midwest university. Secondly, she is a district literacy coach, providing support for the

seven, K-3 buildings and the one intermediate building in her district. In this role, she provides communication between the buildings by holding monthly meetings to discuss literacy interventions, to look at student data, and to share professional articles with other literacy coaches and reading support staff. Her ultimate goal is to create literacy "seamlessness and consistency" (personal communication, August 27, 2011) between the elementary buildings. Along with the district coach, Jane is the literacy coach for one of the sections within the intermediate building. Her role as literacy coach includes coaching teachers in grades four through six and providing professional development training. She also wears the hat of reading intervention specialist, acting as an active participant on the school's intervention team and providing interventions to struggling readers in grades four through six. These interventions include Guided Reading Plus, Comprehension Focus Group, and one-to-one tutoring. During the spring when data were collected, Jane provided an additional intervention group to five, fourth graders after school as part of an extended day initiative. This group continued with Jane into summer school where she was teaching a soon-to-be, fifth grade class.

Prior to filling the role of literacy coach, Jane had taught 27 years in the classroom, teaching preschool through sixth grade. In 2006, she left the classroom to act as a reading intervention specialist and literacy coach-in-training. The reason Jane took on this new role was because she felt she was missing something as a classroom teacher when it came to working with struggling readers. She wanted to learn how to effectively help struggling readers become proficient readers. She began this endeavor at a K-3 building. In 2008, she took on the same role at the intermediate school and has been there for four years. In 2009, she added district coach to her job title.

Jane's literacy education. From 2005 to 2009, Jane was trained as a reading interventionist from the literacy coordinator in her district; from 2005 to 2008, a Reading Recovery teacher leader who trained under Marie Clay (founder of Reading Recovery) was also one of the trainers. To develop the skills of a reading interventionist, Jane was expected to tutor struggling readers in a one-to-one setting during the school day. She was trained to use ongoing assessments to hone her reading support to meet the child's individual needs. Jane met once a month with the literacy coordinator and a Reading Recovery teacher leader to problem solve about struggling readers. This involved analyzing student data and determining the kind of support to provide each struggling reader. It also involved Jane herself tutoring a student behind a glass wall, where her colleagues could watch the tutoring session, but Jane and her student only saw a mirror. Jane also observed her colleagues tutor behind the glass wall. This enabled everyone present to determine strengths and needs of each student and potential next steps. Through this training, Jane learned how to support and scaffold struggling readers based on their needs. The ultimate goal was to support the child until they were able to read material at their age level with no support.

The tutoring training provided the foundation Jane needed to work with struggling readers. During the last three years of this training (2006-2009), literacy coach instruction was added because Jane was filling the role of coach and interventionist. Beginning in 2009, she completed one year of literacy coach training through a Midwest university near her home. Then she took college courses for one year to be certified as a district literacy coach through a different Midwest university.

Jane was chosen for this study because of her literacy experience. At the time of this study, she had provided reading interventions and had been trained in how to support struggling, elementary readers for six years. Jane often read current trends in literacy education and in literacy research. She utilized this knowledge as she worked with students. She was also a literacy leader in her district.

Jane's setting. When observing Jane, it was evident that she was very organized and wanted to create an efficient environment for learning. All of her materials were easily accessible. Each intervention group had their own reading tub which held the students' reading folders and journals, Jane's lesson plan folder, and the books Jane chose for the students to read. Additionally, each child had his/her own book basket stored in a central location. Jane's lesson plans were organized neatly in a three-prong folder with lesson plans written in advance. Her running record forms were kept on a clipboard with colorful ribbon for easy finding, since this clipboard was used with more than one intervention group. All writing tools and writing supplies were stored in a plastic basket in the middle of the table; the student dry erase boards were tucked underneath the basket to save space and allow easy access. Jane had pillows available that could be used during independent reading to get comfortable on the floor. These pillows were kept on student chairs for comfort while sitting. Jane used an easel that held chart paper to demonstrate and model for her students. She had a handful of charts for reference; these included word work principles, pushing your thinking prompts, and writing response expectations. Jane built rapport with her students by listening to them intently, noticing and naming their strengths, fostering a sharing environment where everybody's voice was heard, and being a facilitator of discussion rather than the leader.

Jane's role in this study. In this study, Jane was observed as a reading intervention specialist, providing the Guided Reading Plus intervention to students in fourth grade. As an interventionist, Jane relied on student data (reading, writing and spelling assessments) to initially identify individual student needs. This guided her as she set goals with students and scaffolded their learning. Likewise, Jane gathered data (running records, writing about reading, listening to students read, discussing with students about books) during the course of the intervention and used this data to determine student strengths and needs. Jane said:

> With struggling readers they're all so different so you have to kind of be aware of what the child's strengths are and what they're doing. What they're doing that's tripping them up and maybe why. And try to diagnose and problem solve that. (Interview, August 11, 2011)

This often meant making a split second decision to scaffold in a particular way, using her past experiences with children and her training to guide her decisions.

The Students

Five, fourth grade students were selected to participate because at the beginning of this study they were beginning a GRP intervention group with Jane. The intermediate building had received additional funding to have a variety of reading intervention groups held after school for fourth grade students. The students were selected from across the intermediate building. The three schools selected fourth grade students who fell into the below expectations or academic warning categories on the assessment wall. They then assessed these students with a word test, reading inventories, and a spelling assessment. The students were sorted according to their reading level and placed into GRP groups. Typically, the GRP intervention would occur thirty minutes during the normal school day. However, for the after school intervention, the students met three days a week

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Monday through Wednesday for one hour. Students met for nine weeks including

twenty-six lessons. Transportation home was provided by the school district.

This group was selected because I wanted to observe a group from beginning to

end. All five students and their parents agreed to participate. There were three boys and

two girls. Four of the students were reading at a middle third grade level. One of the

students was reading at a beginning third grade level.

Data Collection Methods

The data collected were observation, interview, field notes, and artifacts (e.g.

lesson plans, teacher notes, intervention updates, copies of books, student assessments).

Table 2 provides the match between my data collection and research questions. Corbin

and Strauss (2008) state that for the purposes of triangulation, researchers may combine

Table 2

Matching Data Collection Methods with Research Questions

Research Question(s)	Data Collection
1. Using sociocultural and cognitive lenses, what is the nature of reading scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach to students in a small, Midwestern city during a small group intervention?	Field notes, observations of intervention sessions, interviews with district literacy coach, artifacts
2. How does the experienced district coach determine the kind and level of support to provide?	Field notes, observations of intervention sessions, interviews with district literacy coach, artifacts
3. How does the kind and level of scaffolding change?	Field notes, observations of intervention sessions, interviews with district literacy coach, artifacts

interview with observation and then add artifacts to verify findings. This was true in my study. I used interview and observation in combination to obtain rich data. Then I added artifacts and student assessments to disconfirm my findings. For a timeline of what and when data were collected see Table 3.

Table 3

Timeline for Data Collection Methods Used

Time Frame	Data Collection Methods Used
March 21-30	Field Notes, Interviews
April 4-May 18	Observations, Field Notes, Interviews, Artifacts, Audio Recordings
June 22-23	Observations, Field Notes, Interviews, Artifacts, Audio Recordings
August 1-11	Observations, Field Notes, Interviews, Artifacts, Audio Recordings

Observations

Often, the most meaningful data-gathering methods in a case study are observations (Stake, 2006, p. 4). Hatch (2002) asserts, "The goal of observation is to understand the culture, setting, or social phenomenon being studied from the perspectives of the participants" (p. 72). I observed Jane as she worked with struggling readers in a small group intervention to understand the scaffolding she provided (the social phenomenon). Patton (2002) states, "Naturalistic observations take place *in the field*" (p. 262). I wanted to observe the intervention as it occurred naturally; therefore, I acted as a "passive observer" (Hatch, p. 73). To fully capture how Jane scaffolded struggling readers, I remained removed from the intervention, not wanting to intrude on the interactions or to change the course of events. There were a few times when Jane would ask me a question specifically during the intervention sessions. These were typically

about a content question the students had or about how to pronounce a word. For example, on April 6, 2011, Jane asked me to pronounce the author's last name, Arschibaugh. In these instances, I provided an answer and then returned to taking field notes. My field notes initially consisted of scripting comments made by Jane and the students along with information about the general layout of the lessons and the charts used. There were instances when I recorded information about the environment, such as the temperature, noise, and location of materials. As I determined my data collection unit (DCU), I shifted to jotting down questions I had for Jane, noticing and scripting pieces of data that seemed important, and recording my assumptions about what I thought was occurring. Most observations were audio recorded. When choosing a passive role, Hatch (2002) states, "A third issue has to do with what data might be missed while the researcher is participating instead of taking field notes" (p. 74). This is another reason I chose to remain passive. I wanted to concentrate heavily on the interactions between Jane and the students. The observations gave me the opportunity to document questions I had for Jane about the way she worked with students. It also allowed me to notice important pieces in the data for further discussion with Jane. On many occasions these led to follow-up interviews after the intervention sessions. These observations were the springboard into further interviews with Jane. They were an integral component of my data collection.

Initially, I had planned to video record these sessions, but when I visited the setting (a small room) and watched the way the experienced district literacy coach moved, I did not think it was necessary to video record. The video recorder would have only captured the coach's movements, which really were less vulnerable to the data.

Plus, it would have been difficult to put the video recorder in a corner, as most of the space was storage, bookshelves, or places for students to sit and read. The intervention sessions were audio recorded and therefore, I was able to move to where Jane sat with each student, capture the conversations, and record in my field notes the order of her conferencing and the physical actions Jane used (e.g. pointing to a word, writing a word on a sticky note), making video recording unnecessary.

I observed every intervention session, but one in the spring. This amounted to 23 out of 24 lessons. They occurred for 1 hour Monday through Wednesday each week. In the summer, I observed in June for 30 minute sessions, but was only allowed to use collected data 2 days due to waiting on district and IRB approval. I did observe 8 days in August, for thirty minute sessions. The total intervention sessions where data was collected and analyzed were 33 out of 50.

Interviews

According to Merriam (2009), "Interviewing is necessary when we cannot observe behavior, feelings, or how people interpret the world around them" (p. 88). Patton (2002) states, "We cannot observe how people have organized the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions about these things" (p.341). To understand Jane's actions during the intervention sessions, how she interpreted students' actions, what informed her moment-to-moment decisions, and how she viewed her role as an interventionist, I conducted two kinds of interviews. The first was informal. These occurred spontaneously after an intervention session and lasted between two and fifteen minutes. I did not audio record these, but took notes along with my field notes. The questions were directed at explaining Jane's actions

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or students' actions during the session. See Appendix D for examples of the informal interview questions.

The second kind of interview was semistructured (Merriam, 2009). This kind of interview was conducted every week that data were collected. Data from the observations were used to develop questions for these interviews. While Jane was responding to these questions, I made notes to assist with follow-up questions. Another aspect of these interviews, and probably one of the key components, was seeking deeper understanding of the scaffolding Jane provided. To do this I used more "in-depth interviewing" (Johnson, 2001, p. 104) techniques. Johnson describes this form of interviewing as seeking "'deep' information and understanding" (p. 106). It can be used "to learn the meanings' of participants' actions" (Johnson, p. 106). The kinds of questions asked address "the heart or essence of the research question(s)" (Johnson, p. 111). These questions were not about the observations per se, but about Jane's beliefs and views of student learning and scaffolding. To conduct the semistructured interviews, I audio recorded most of these conversations so that I could "capture the words and perceptions" (Johnson, p. 111) of my key participant. These interviews ranged from thirty minutes to an hour in length. They occurred in Jane's office or classroom, usually on a weeknight. See Appendix E for examples of semistructured interview questions.

Field Notes

During the observations, I took field notes, which were discussed previously. Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that field notes are not as threatening to a participant, and they keep the researcher "alert and responsive" (p. 241). Also, Lincoln and Guba assert "field notes are not subject to the technical difficulties that beset recording" (p. 241). My

field notes proved to be a valuable resource for data collection and analysis. I was able to use them to generate questions for interviews and to record observations that were not evident on the audio recordings. When experiencing technical difficulties with my audio recorder, I was able to use my field notes to gather valuable data. For example, during the informal and semistructured interviews, I took field notes of things Jane said to springboard into more discussion. During one semistructured interview my digital recorder was not working properly. I took extensive notes on Jane's comments. These interview notes were a key part of my initial data analysis and my identification of emerging themes.

Artifacts

There were a variety of artifacts gathered for data analysis. I also copied a variety of artifacts. These included the texts students read, the lessons Jane created, the running records of students, the students' summer school report cards, the pre- and post-assessments of students, some of the students' writing, Jane's intervention updates for each student, and Jane's anecdotal notes. Photographs were taken of the charts Jane used with students. I also obtained copies of professional materials that Jane referred to in the interviews. These artifacts allowed me to triangulate the data during analysis.

<div align="center">

Data Analysis Procedures

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This study occurred in four phases (see Table 4). Lincoln and Guba (1985) state, "Data analysis is open-ended and inductive for the naturalist" (p. 224). Patton (2002) states, "Categories or dimensions of analysis emerge from open-ended observations as the inquirer comes to understand patterns that exist in the phenomenon being investigated" (p. 56). I could not presuppose what these important dimensions would be,

but allowed them to emerge from the data. Thus, when I began collecting data, I began

analyzing data.

Table 4

Phases of Inquiry

Phase	Role of Researcher	Time Frame
One Goal: To determine DCU, obtrusiveness, and learn the culture	• Negotiated my role • Learned the culture through observations • Sent consent forms home • Kept field notes on observations • Considered obtrusiveness • Received all six consent forms with approval • Observations of intervention sessions (audio recorded) • Kept field notes on observations • Interviews with district coach about students in intervention groups (audio recorded) • Gathered artifacts • Established schedule for observations and interviews • Observed and interviewed (audio recorded) • Analyzed data gathered, identifying emergent themes or important details • Solidified initial data collection focus and data collection techniques	March 21, 2011–April 19, 2011
Two Goal: To collect and analyze data	• Collected artifacts • Defined DCU • Transcribed data • Analyzed data gathered, identified themes, triangulated data, constantly compared data, confirmed and disconfirmed themes, synthesized data (e.g. typological coding, open coding, axial coding) • Member checked • Revisited data collection techniques • Debriefed with peer • Debriefed with advisor	April 25, 2011–May 17, 2011 June 22–23, 2011 August 1–11, 2011

Three Goal: To conclude data analysis and write report	• Synthesized data for report writing • Wrote report • Member checked • Submitted findings to committee • Debriefed with peer and made revisions to report • Debriefed with advisor	August 12, 2011–June 29, 2012
Four Goal: To revise based on advisor feedback and submit final report	• Revised final report based on feedback from advisor • Submitted final report to committee	June 28, 2012-July 2, 2012

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the goal of the first phase of inquiry is "to obtain sufficient information to get some handle on what is important enough to follow up in detail" (p. 235). This was true in my initial observations when I was recording field notes. I began data analysis by making notes in the margins of the ways Jane scaffolded, such as modeling, providing text introductions, providing background information during a discussion, and connecting the new to what she perceived the children already knew. I used these elements and the structure of her lessons to design an initial concept web, illustrating the instructional times and ways she scaffolded. This web included three umbrella concepts: scaffolding students' oral reading, scaffolding students' comprehension of text, and scaffolding students' sense of agency.

Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtle (2010) state that one aspect of data analysis is reviewing and exploring the data. Further data analysis occurred when I reviewed and explored my field notes, selecting important pieces to use in my informal and semistructured interviews. In this way, I was analyzing the data by choosing aspects that warranted further discussion and insight from Jane. I was also beginning to form my DCU. This proved valuable as I entered the second phase of inquiry. I knew when Jane

scaffolded the students' reading: during the text introduction, the one-to-one conferences, the text discussions, and the formal running record assessments.

Phase two of the inquiry involved focused exploration (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). When I entered this phase, I had my DCU in mind and began using my observations (the field notes and audio recordings) to design interview questions that would get at the heart of what I saw emerging. I noticed the way scaffolding differed from student to student and how some comments made by Jane were recurring. I also noticed that the scaffolding changed based on the way the student responded. These observations furthered my inquiries during the interviews. The responses I received proved to be a turning point in my data analysis. I began to wonder why Jane interacted in the manner she did. I probed deeper into discovering what was Jane's philosophy about providing interventions, about her practices as an interventionist, and about struggling readers. This helped me clarify key themes I saw emerging in the data. It also allowed me to write a rich description of Jane.

Another aspect of phase two was transcribing the observation and interview recordings. According to Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtle (2010), an aspect of data analysis is organizing the data. I organized my transcripts by date and activity. For instance, if Jane conferenced with a child, this was written as one transcript with the date the conference occurred. Every activity was transcribed separately to keep it whole as one activity while also keeping it separate from the other activities that occurred during the intervention. Student conferences, text introductions, and reading discussions were considered separate activities. They were further separated by the date they occurred.

Once an activity was transcribed, I coded it. Merriam (2009) states, "Assigning codes to pieces of data is the way you begin to construct categories" (p. 179). At first, my coding was typological (Hatch, 2002). I used what was known about scaffolding to develop initial codes: giving hints about strategy use (Bruning, Schraw, Norby, & Ronning, 2004), questioning (Bruning, Schraw, Norby, & Ronning), directing attention (Bruning, Schraw, Norby, & Ronning), and reminding learner of his/her learning goal (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). However, coding in this fashion was difficult because the data did not fit neatly into these four typologies. Therefore, I began to open code (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), but marked places in the data where there was evidence of scaffolding typologies. Initially, my open codes were numbers with a code key, but then I transitioned to making comments on the transcripts. This required reading through the transcripts and recording comments at the end of sentences. I used these comments to create more concise codes at the bottom of each transcription. As I reread my codes, I began to see how they fit together. At that point, I moved into axial coding (Corbin & Strauss). I collected these initial codes into a table, but reduced the number to twenty by combining some codes (i.e. fluency, expressive, self correcting, etc.) into one code (i.e. oral reading expectations) (see Table 5). Richards (2005) refers to this as analytical coding where the researcher creates "categories that express new ideas about the data" (p. 102-103).

Table 5

Twenty Open-Codes

Codes	Explanation
Strategies Proficient Readers Use	Provide insight into the strategies readers use when reading to fix confusion or to navigate through text
Text Structure	Provide background knowledge about the text structure to allow student to navigate through text
Vocabulary	Introduce key vocabulary or define words that student does not understand
Text Content	Provide information about the text content to build students' background knowledge about an otherwise unknown topic
Transfer	Encourage students to transfer their reading abilities to every setting where they read
Student Strengths	Notice and name reading strengths
Student Needs	Notice and name reading needs or areas where the student is not yet proficient
Explicit	Provide comments in a concise, straightforward manner to ensure retention and understanding
Modeling	Scaffolding technique to demonstrate how to do something otherwise unknown to student
Prompting	Scaffolding technique to encourage child to take action or think deeply
Questioning	Scaffolding technique to encourage child to take action or think deeply
Lowest Level of Support	A verbal or nonverbal prompt to encourage a child to take action without being told or shown how to complete an instructional

	task
Oral Reading Expectations	A variety of expectations of what students should do when they orally read, including reading the words on the page, problem solving unrecognizable words, looking carefully, reading at a fluent rate, heeding punctuation, self correcting, etc.
Meaning Making	The focus for reading is always understanding the meaning of the text including the author's message or intent.
Self Reflection	Notice and name strengths and goals
Independence	Foster independent learners by allowing students to do the problem solving and then providing support when needed; interventionist's role is not to rescue
Accountability	Setting high expectations and then holding students to those expectations by providing forms of accountability
Attainable	Setting high expectations that are attainable and do not overwhelm students
Sense of Agency	Belief that one can change the course of their learning through effort and strategic action (Johnston, 2004)
Diagnostic	Determine reason for student's action and provide a scaffold to support while providing explicit feedback about reason to student

My next step was to further organize my data codes by identifying overarching themes. This was a process of "intensive analysis" when tentative themes were "substantiated, revised, and reconfigured" (Merriam, 2009). Conversations with my peer debriefer and my advisor helped me to rethink my codes and identify key categories. Merriam asserts that the categories constructed should address the research questions,

contain all data, *"be mutually exclusive",* be specific in nature to the data, and *"be*

conceptually congruent" (p. 185-186). Categories should be refined until they meet these

requirements. This was my goal as I arranged, rearranged, and again rearranged my

findings into categories that fit my questions and my data. I narrowed my findings about

the nature of scaffolding to three themes: possessing in-depth of knowledge of proficient

reading, diagnosing students' needs and strengths, and providing lower-level to higher-

level scaffolding. See chapter four for more explanation about these findings.

Trustworthiness

According the Lincoln and Guba (1985), for qualitative research to be

trustworthy, a researcher must address four expectations of the research: credibility,

transferability, dependability, and confirmability. See Table 6 for my trustworthiness

table. I have organized this section by criteria. Each criterion is explained with the

corresponding concerns. Then I explain the methods that address these concerns.

Table 6

Trustworthiness

Criteria	Concerns	Methods
Credibility	• Subjective findings • Inquirer bias • Familiarity with setting	• Member checks • Peer and advisor debriefing • Method triangulation – constant comparison of data • Negative case analysis • Prolonged engagement – until redundancy • Persistent observation – until redundancy • Referential adequacy (audio recording)
Transferability	Single case, not multiple-case study	• Purposeful sampling – unique case • Thick description of context and

		• findings
		• Review of literature
Dependability	Design decisions	• Clearly document and explain data collection and analysis process
		• Audit trail
Confirmability	• Premature judgments	• Findings grounded in the data
	• Faulty inferences	• Audit trail
	• Inquirer bias	• Data triangulation
		• Prolonged engagement – until redundancy
		• Member checks
		• Peer and advisor debriefing

Credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985) assert the need for techniques that make the findings

and interpretations of a study credible or believable. Concerns with credibility are

subjective findings, inquirer bias, and familiarity with the setting. Subjective findings

means the findings are based on my preconceived ideas, rather than what the data reveals.

Inquirer bias is the view I hold toward the study that impacts how I interpret the findings.

Familiarity with the setting means I am too close to the participant and context that I

allow my perceptions to influence my data collection and analysis. To address these

concerns, I used these methods: prolonged engagement, persistent observation,

triangulation, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, referential adequacy, and member

checking.

Prolonged engagement. Lincoln and Guba (1985) explained prolonged

engagement as spending adequate time in the field to understand the culture, test for

inaccurate information and build trust. At the time of the study I had taught in this setting

for eleven years, known Jane for eight years, and conducted the same interventions as the

one observed. I knew the culture and found it easy to negotiate the site. I purposely out

of 50 intervention sessions. This amounted to about 28 hours of observation, along with 4 spontaneous interviews and 6 informal interviews, ranging from 5 minutes to 1 hour.

Persistent observation. Lincoln and Guba (1985) described persistent observation as identifying "those characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued and focusing on them in detail" (p. 304). I began data collection by determining when scaffolding occurred during the intervention: reading conferences, running record conferences, text introductions, and text discussions. Then I determined what components of reading Jane scaffolded: oral reading and comprehension. Knowing this allowed me to narrow my focus during observations to those instances when scaffolding occurred. I continued persistent observations until redundancy in the data occurred. As Lincoln and Guba (1985) state, "Repeat until redundancy – and then just one more time for safety" (p. 219).

Triangulation. I triangulated the data across methods and participants. Method triangulation involves triangulating the data across interviews, observations, and artifacts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to demonstrate how the findings permeate the data. To demonstrate how my second finding, diagnosing students' strengths and needs, was triangulated across methods, I have included excerpts from an observation of a reading conference, from an interview, and from an artifact. These examples also demonstrate how the findings triangulated across participants. During a reading conference with Cole, Jane scaffolded his identification of the word "pyramids" in the book *Science at the Park*. This was her comment toward the end of the conference:

> That was a lot of work, wasn't it? But that's because you're not used to looking. So I'm slowing you down to help you look. You know a couple of things you can do. You know how to chunk. I just saw you do that two times. You did a nice job of that. And you also know you can write the

word to help you to look at it. Also, think about what you know (May 2, 2011).

Jane's comment to Cole drew his attention to his needs and strengths as a reader. First of all, she diagnosed Cole's reading needs: slow down, look carefully at the words in the text, chunk the unrecognizable words, and think about what he knew to support his identification of the word. Jane also diagnosed and identified one of Cole's strengths, which was chunking words. During an interview with Jane, she diagnosed Larry's needs:

> And Larry has misconceptions when he reads as far as misconceptions are concerned and I know that about him from the QRIs I've given and little bit of the conferencing. I've also noticed that he does not always read for meaning and that fact that he doesn't read for meaning interferes with his concepts. What he's understanding. In the beginning I wasn't so sure why he was confused on the retells, but I think it's because he's basically not reading for meaning (April 7, 2011).

Jane diagnosed Larry's need to read in a way that he understood the author's information and message. Finally, on one of Jane's anecdotal notes for Sarah, she wrote about her strengths and needs as a reader:

- fluent, self-correcting (fixing errors in oral reading)

- don't insert (May 10, 2011)

Jane diagnosed that Sarah read fluently and self-corrected some of her errors. She also made a note that Sarah needed to stop inserting words into the text when she read orally. This second finding, along with the other two findings, was triangulated across methods and participants.

Peer debriefer. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend the use of peer debriefing because the process helps keep the researcher honest, provides an opportunities to test hypotheses that may be emerging in the researcher's mind, and provides an opportunity for the researcher to clear her mind of emotions and feelings that may cloud good

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judgment (p. 308). My peer debriefer used questions to probe my biases, explore my meanings, and clarify my interpretations. She provided opportunities for me to test my working hypotheses to see if they were reasonable and if I could defend them. For example, when determining my finding, diagnosing students' needs and strengths, I had my peer debriefer review an observation, an interview, and an artifact to determine if this finding permeated across the data sources. The peer debriefer kept me honest, by helping me separate my thoughts and biases from true data findings. I selected my peer debriefer because she was a doctoral student in elementary education, conducted a similar study about teacher expertise, and had the same timeline as I did. We debriefed weekly during data analysis and then as needed when writing our report (mode: Skype).

Negative case analysis. Negative case analysis involves refining "a hypothesis until it *accounts for all known cases without exception*" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 309; emphasis in original). However, Lincoln and Guba point out that finding zero exceptions may be too rigid of an expectation for research. Instead, they propose that if a hypothesis fits a reasonable number of cases, there would then be enough substantial evidence to accept it. Data analysis included careful reviewing of the data to make sure emergent findings were confirmed and negative cases were identified. One negative case emerged. Four out of the five students ended the intervention in August with no recommendation for further intervention. However, one of the five was recommended for further intervention. This child, Cole, provided a negative case because the scaffolding provided by the experienced district literacy coach did not develop the same progression in his reading development as it did the others.

Referential adequacy. Data were collected using an audio recorder. The referential adequacy approach involves archiving "raw" data and agreeing not to use those materials in the inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Skeptics who wish to confirm or disconfirm the study's findings can test this raw data. Raw data were archived (see Appendix F for archived reading observation data).

Member checks. To make my findings credible, I had Jane review them. Twice during the data analysis process I consulted Jane with my findings. The first time I presented a concept showing what she scaffolded. The next time I showed my findings diagram and table. My findings were consistent with what she knew and believed about scaffolding.

Transferability

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the naturalist can "provide only the thick description necessary to enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility" (p. 316). Lincoln and Guba assert that "the burden of proof lies less with the original investigator than with the person seeking to make an application elsewhere" (p. 298). One concern exists with the transferability of my findings: a single case, rather than a multiple-case study. To address this concern, I provided a thick description of the components of my study, purposefully selected my key participant, and review the literature. In this report, I provide a rich description of my participants, the context, and my findings to allow others to determine "'fit' with their situations" (Merriam, 2009, p. 226). Providing quotes from the data helped support my findings. Purposeful sampling also was imperative for enhancing transferability (Merriam, 2009). Patton (2002) states "the logic and power of

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purposeful sampling lies in selecting *information-rich* cases for study in depth" (p. 230, emphasis in original). Information-rich cases are those that allow the reader to learn a great deal about important issues related to the purpose of the inquiry. The selection of the district coach was purposeful because she was unique in her position and level of training. Finally, I conducted a review of the literature to situate my study and the findings.

Dependability

As Lincoln and Guba (1985) state, "Since there can be no validity without reliability (and thus no credibility without dependability), a demonstration of the former is sufficient to establish the latter" (p. 316). Hence, to show dependability, all of the research techniques explained earlier must be considered. Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtle (2010) assert that dependability involves one being able to track the procedures and processes employed to collect and analyze data. One concern was my design decisions. To address this concern, I organized the data in case of an inquiry audit by keeping electronic copies of data on my computers and a flash drive and hard copies of my data in binders and notebooks. I also provided detailed explanations in this report of how I collected and analyzed data and how I interviewed and observed.

Confirmability

Confirmability refers to "the quality of the data-in other words, whether it is confirmable by other observers or interpreters" (Levin & Wagner, 2009, p. 238). Three concerns for confirmability were premature judgments, faulty inferences, and inquirer bias. First of all, premature judgments refer to findings that are determined early in a study and may not be confirmed throughout the study. Faulty inferences are

interpretations of the data that may not be rooted in the data and are difficult for another to confirm. Inquirer bias is a preconceived interpretation of the data or the orchestration of the data to fit the inquirer's feelings toward the study. I used a variety of techniques to establish confirmability. First of all, my peer debriefer and advisor reviewed my study, perused the relevant data gathered, asked me questions, and provided feedback throughout the study. Secondly, toward the end of the study, I confirmed my findings with the experienced district literacy coach (member checking). Thirdly, my data were organized to maintain an audit trail. Fourthly, I triangulated the data using a variety of methods, including interviews, observations, and artifacts. Fifthly, I prolonged my engagement in the setting to address any premature judgments. Likewise, I provided a clear explanation of how data were collected and analyzed.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to understand the nature of scaffolding implemented by a district literacy coach to support struggling readers in a small group, research-based intervention. The overarching question guiding this study was: Using sociocultural and cognitive lenses, what is the nature of reading scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach to students in a small, Midwestern city during a small group intervention? The supporting questions were: (a) How does the experienced district literacy coach determine the kinds and levels of scaffolding to provide? and (b) How does the kind of level of scaffolding change? Jane's reading scaffolding occurred during a variety of components of the intervention (e.g. text introduction, the individual conferences, the text discussions, and the running record conferences). It was in these components of the intervention that I collected and analyzed data. As each finding emerged, I triangulated across data sources (interview transcripts, observation transcripts, field notes, and artifacts) to confirm whether these findings permeated the data.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the findings that emerged from the data about the nature of scaffolding. Corbin and Strauss (2008) described different aims of qualitative research: description, conceptual ordering, and theorizing. This chapter addresses the first aim of qualitative research by describing the three findings that emerged: possessing in-depth knowledge of the qualities of proficient reading, diagnosing students' needs and strengths, and providing lower-level to higher-level scaffolding.

Finding One: Possessing In-Depth Knowledge of the Qualities of Proficient Reading

This finding addressed my first supporting question by describing how Jane determined the kinds of scaffolding to provide. Jane understood qualities of proficient reading and this informed her scaffolding. For instance, when I asked Jane in an interview on August 11, 2011, about the qualities that reading teachers needed in order to scaffold struggling readers, she explained that reading teachers must know what proficient readers do and hold that in the forefront of their minds as they scaffold struggling readers. She explained that a reading teacher wants his/her struggling readers to become proficient readers. Thus, they must possess an understanding of what proficient readers do. (See chapter two for an explanation of characteristics of proficient readers.) The following characteristics of a proficient reader emerged as qualities Jane used to evaluate her students and to make instructional decisions to scaffold the reading process:

1. Reading to understand the information presented by the author.

2. Reading to understand the author's message.

3. Using decoding strategies to figure out unrecognizable words.

4. Self-monitoring to make sure the reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right, and using fix-up strategies when it doesn't.

5. Reading at a sufficient rate with fluency.

6. Thinking deeply about the text.

7. Using text features and structure to assist with understanding the author's message.

8. Using background knowledge to understand the text.

Each quality is explained in more detail. The data showed how Jane scaffolded the students based on her knowledge of what proficient readers do, always striving for the struggling readers in her intervention to take on reading behaviors that proficient readers possess.

Reading to Understand the Information Presented by the Author

Proficient readers understand the information the author presents. Thus, Jane prompted the students to talk about the book at a surface level [a summary] during reading conferences and text discussions. Jane explained why she did this: "Sometimes I'm wanting to make sure they are understanding or sometimes they'll have a question, like something they don't understand" (Interview, May 12, 2011). Jane prompted students to talk about the content of the text at the beginning of a conference or text discussion so she could determine their level of understanding and then scaffold if and where necessary.   Jane would also ask the students if there were any confusing parts and then scaffolded their understanding.

Reading conferences. Jane often began a reading conference by prompting the student to talk about the book. For instance, when conferencing with Larry on April 12, 2011, Jane began by prompting him to talk about the book *Fireflies*.

> Jane: What have you learned so far?
> Larry: That Chinese people thought that fireflies were from burning grass.
> Jane: What do you mean, "They were from burning grass"?
> Larry: They thought from the glow.

Early in the intervention, Jane identified that Larry had misconceptions about his reading (Artifact, March 22, 2011; Artifact, April 4, 2011; Artifact, April 7, 2011; Interview, April 18, 2011). During this conference, Jane began by checking that Larry understood the information in the text. Her additional question prompted Larry to explain his

understanding further. Jane began her *Fireflies* conference with Damion in a similar

way:

> Jane: What have you noticed?
> Damion: The Indians use the light up stuff as face paint.
> Jane: Ooh. Have you ever tried that?
> Damion: No.
> Jane: Me neither. Although I have, when I was little, maybe my brother
>   did, I'm not sure, tried to smear fireflies on us. Have you ever
>   seen people do that?
> Damion: I've smeared firefly on the ground.
> Jane: Yah. Looking back on it that probably wasn't very nice to do, but I
>   did. Anyway. Is there anything in here you're wondering about?
> Damion: No.
> Jane: You're understanding it all?
> Damion: Yah (Observation, April 12, 2011).

Jane began with a simple prompt to talk about the book. This led to more discussion

about the content of the book. Jane ended this excerpt by prompting Damion to reflect on

his understanding of the book, showing that proficient readers understand the information

presented in a book. On the same day Jane conducted a reading conference with Stacey

that went a little differently. Stacey began the conference by sharing a part that was

confusing her in *Fireflies* (Observation, April 12, 2011). Jane directed her to reread this

part aloud. Throughout the rereading, Jane stopped Stacey and asked her if she

understood everything. When Stacey did not, Jane explained what the text meant or

prompted Stacey to use the text to help her understand the information being presented.

Thus, one aspect of proficient reading is understanding the information presented by the

author.

Text discussions. Jane often began text discussions by prompting the group to

talk about the content of the book, to talk about any confusing parts, or to talk about the

purpose she gave for reading. For example, Jane began the discussion of *Behind the*

Scenes at the Zoo by saying:

> Let's talk a little about this book. Did you have questions that you found answers for or didn't find answers for? Did anybody have anything that you were like wondering about, like "I just didn't understand that"? So open your books and we'll answer just a few questions that you had because remember we said we were going to read to find answers to our questions (Observation, May 17, 2011).

Jane prompted the students to talk about any confusing parts and to talk about their

purpose for reading, which was to find answers to their questions. During the discussion,

students presented confusing parts and answers to their questions. The discussion started

with understanding the information the author presented. When discussing *The Babe and*

I, Jane prompted the students by saying:

> Okay, have your book out. I heard some of you say you learned something today. I heard some of you say you have a question. I've got some things I want to talk about today, too, so let's see what we can get done today. Cole, what did you want to talk about today? (Observation, May 10, 2011)

Jane began this discussion by prompting the students to share what they learned or any

questions they had. Later in the discussion, Jane said, "Let's talk a little bit. I said that

you were going to find out that the boy found out a secret" (Observation, May 10, 2011).

After the students cleared up their confusions and shared their learning, Jane shifted the

discussion to the purpose for reading – to discover the secret in the story.

Through the reading conferences and text discussions, Jane developed the

expectation that reading involved understanding the information the author presented.

Many of the comprehension prompts included eliciting the students to share and clarify

the information in the book. Jane did not drill the students with questions about their

reading, but provided lower-level prompts to facilitate discussion. She viewed

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confusions as learning opportunities, where she could scaffold, leading the students to use proficient reading strategies.

Reading to Understand the Author's Message

This particular quality of proficient reading deals with reading to understand the author's intent and purposes. Jane explained it in this way:

> I think writers in general are always leaving you messages otherwise they wouldn't put things down there [in books]. I just think that it's more than just the facts they're trying to teach you if it's done well. Well, there are some really easy ones. . . But lots of times, especially, with Seymour Simons and writers like that. They leave you a message to think about like what's happening to wolves. Just like in fiction. What lesson can we learn from our characters? Our characters learn lessons and change. What lessons can we learn from what our characters did or didn't do? I'm not saying every piece of writing is like that, but quality writing is like that (Interview, August 11, 2011).

Jane stressed that authors write to give the reader a message. Determining this message takes an orchestration of text clues, personal experiences, and background knowledge. Jane also explained author's message when writing an intervention update on Cole at the conclusion of the spring portion of the intervention. Jane wrote, "He (Cole) has trouble inferring the big idea, lesson learned, theme. . ." (Artifact, May 22, 2011). Thus, the author's message is often inferential and requires synthesizing ideas and text clues to grasp the 'big idea.' Jane explained that often an author communicated more than one message, and that message could differ from student to student because of the differing backgrounds and values each student possesses (Interview, June 24, 2011). Jane wanted her students to understand that reading involved more than getting an answer right or finding one tiny detail. It involved understanding the author's message, which depended in part on the students' background knowledge and what they valued.

To support students in their understanding of author's message, Jane selected

discussion and writing prompts that probed students to think about the overall theme or

lesson in the text. For instance, in Jane's lesson notes on August 1, 2011, she wrote this

question for students to discuss and write about: "Making a chocolate candy bar possible

is complicated. Explain why." Jane focused her discussion and writing prompt on

understanding the author's message for *Chocolate Wasn't Always Sweet*. During the

discussion of this book, Jane probed the students to think beyond all the facts and steps

mentioned in the book and instead to think about the author's message (Observation,

August 1, 2011). Larry identified one of the author's messages about making chocolate –

don't take chocolate for granted. Another example occurred when Jane provided the

students with a purpose for rereading the book *Richard Wright and the Library Card* for

homework:

> Tonight I want you to reread the book [Their homework was to reread
> *Richard Wright and the Library Card*] and think it's not about a library
> card. It is about a library card, but it's not only about a library card. *Pink
> and Say* [A book one student mentioned that they s/he had read] was not
> really about a war. It was about blacks and whites and being treated fairly.
> *Those Shoes* [A book Jane had read aloud to the students] was not only
> about those shoes. Is it really about the library card? Think what is this
> really about. (Observation, June 22, 2011)

Jane wanted the students to think beyond the details in the text and think about the

author's overall message or messages. Sarah showed proficiency early in the

intervention with grasping the author's message. When writing Sarah's intervention

update on April 2, 2011, Jane wrote, "She was able to discuss the deeper meaning the

author intended during conferencing." Grasping the author's message involved

understanding the meaning the author intended in the text.

In conclusion, proficient readers read to grasp the author's message. During an interview with Jane on April 18, 2011, she stated this:

> Our reading should change us. I read one time . . . that writers write to change people. And that's why they're so passionate. They hope they change people. The way they think and feel and so if the writer hasn't done that or we haven't picked up on that then you know we haven't done our part of the job have we?

According to Jane, if readers have not grasped the author's message, then they failed to accomplish their task as a reader.

Using Decoding Strategies to Figure Out Unrecognizable Words

Jane would often scaffold students' ability to decode unrecognizable words. This included prompting them to look at word parts or chunks, to notice prefixes and suffixes, and to use what they knew from similar words. Below are three examples of different ways Jane scaffolded how to decode unrecognizable words: one is how she prompted a student to look at word parts and think of similar words, another is how she prompted a student to see the prefix of a word, and the other is how she prompted a student to look at word parts or chunks.

Larry. Larry encountered difficulty when he came to the word 'fairies' when he read from the book *Fireflies*. Jane showed Larry how he could use parts of words he knew to figure out words he did not recognize initially. The following interaction highlights this:

> Larry: [He reads aloud saying 'fire eyes' for fairies.]
> Jane: I'm glad you stopped. I wish you wouldn't have gone on, though.
> Larry: Fire – rees
> Jane: Okay, reading always has to make. .
> Larry: Sense.
> Jane: Okay. Have you learned anything about how words work that could help you with that?
> Larry: Fuh – ri , fair, fire, fair ries [pronounced ryes], fair why. Fair why?

> Jane: You're killing me here. You know that don't you? What's this
> word? [Wrote sunny for the child] I want you to get it. I don't
> want to tell you.
>
> Larry: Sunny
>
> Jane: Good. What sound does that make? [Motioned to y in sunny]
>
> Larry: 'e'
>
> Jane: Okay. [Wrote fair y]
>
> Larry: Fair y – oh fairies.
>
> Jane: Sometimes you have to use more than one word to help you with an
> unknown word. Okay? But it always has to make . . .
>
> Larry: Sense.
>
> Jane: So you work at it until it does. (Observation, April 12, 2011)

Jane showed Larry how he could use parts of words he knew to figure out a word that he did not immediately recognize. She also showed him how to chunk the word to figure it out. She made a point of stating the strategy she used – "use more than one word to help you with an unknown word".

Damion. During a reading conference, Damion came across the word 'unemployed' and read 'employed' instead (Observation, May 10, 2011). Jane prompted Damion to look at the first part 'un' and then the second part 'employed' by writing the word in these chunks. When she did this, Damion was able to identify the word unemployed. During another reading conference with Damion, she asked, "Do you see a prefix?" (Observation, August 11, 2011). Damion accurately identified the prefix on the word. Hence, when a student encountered difficulty with a multisyllabic word that contained an affix, Jane would direct their attention to this part of the word to assist with decoding it.

Stacey. Jane prompted Stacey to look at word parts during a reading conference. Stacey had a difficult time figuring out the word frail in the book *Knots on a Counting Rope* when she read aloud to Jane.

> Stacey: [Reads aloud saying failure for the word frail. Then she

immediately paused.]

Jane: You stopped.

Stacey: Yah, because I didn't . . . I thought that was not failure.

Jane: It's not. What made you think it wasn't failure?

Stacey: Because the way it looked. . . the way it's long.

Jane: And it doesn't what?

Stacey: And it doesn't have. . . and it doesn't sound right.

Jane: It doesn't make sense really. "You were sick and failure" doesn't make sense. Was there anything we learned today [referring to their word work where they learned how the letters 'a' and 'i' together make the long 'a' sound]?

Stacey: Yah, the a and i.

Jane: Uh-huh. Can that help you?

Stacey: far – feril –

Jane: You write the word for me [on a sticky note] and see if you can figure it out.

Stacey: [Wrote fr on the sticky note.]

Jane: What's that?

Stacey: far [Student says far for the 'fr' in frail]

Jane: Not far.

Stacey: fur

Jane: No 'fr'. [Jane said the beginning sound in frail]

Stacey: fr-il

Jane: frail

Stacey: frail (Observation, April 6, 2011)

To figure out the word frail, Jane provided Stacey with a sticky note to write the word.

This enabled Stacey to look more closely at the parts of the word. Jane provided Stacey

with a decoding strategy to use to figure out the word. In another reading conference

about two weeks later, Stacey used this very strategy to help herself problem solve a

tricky word.

Stacey: I'm stuck on that word [The word Bronoski – a name].

Jane: So what can you do to help yourself?

Stacey: Chunk it out.

Jane: You can. You want to try it.

Stacey: [Took sticky note and initiated writing word in chunks]

Jane: What part would that say?

Stacey: Bro

Jane: Bro

Stacey: noski

Jane: Could be. Or it could be Broniski. This is a name. It could be

either one of those. (Observation, April 18, 2011)

This interaction showed how Stacey initiated the decoding strategy Jane had presented to

her to figure out an unrecognizable word. Toward the end of this conference, Jane talked

with Stacey about her reading:

> Jane: What do you think about your reading?
> Stacey: Good.
> Jane: It's getting better, isn't it? You're doing real well at chunking when
> you used to go real fast over things, didn't you? Good job.
> (Observation, April 18, 2011)

Jane noticed that Stacey had improved in her ability to chunk while she read aloud.

Later, when Jane reflected on this interaction in an interview, she stated:

> Well, I said, "You could chunk it." And before I even got it out of my
> mouth, she grabbed a piece of paper. I was about ready to say let's grab a
> piece of paper. And she grabbed a sticky note and chunked it. She did
> that. She initiated that. Wasn't that good? Yah. And not only that. She
> is chunking really well and pronounced those names as well as I would
> pronounce them, so she's looking really well. (Interview, April 18, 2011)

Jane was pleased with the progress Stacey had made in being able to chunk words and

pronounce names. On May 4, 2011, Jane wrote in her anecdotal notes that Stacey

showed evidence of problem solving while reading. Jane reflected this also in her

intervention update for Stacey when she stated, "She problem solves unknown words

while reading continuous text with little to no scaffolding" (Artifact, May 14, 2011).

Summary. Being able to decode unrecognizable words using a variety of

strategies is a trait of proficient readers (Block & Duffy, 2008). Data analysis revealed

that Jane attended to how the students decoded unrecognizable words. Strategies that

Jane taught students were to look at word parts or chunks, to notice prefixes and suffixes,

and to use what they knew from similar words to figure out words they did not recognize.

Jane wanted the intervention students to possess this proficient reading trait, therefore she

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scaffolded the students' reading so they would take action to problem solve

unrecognizable words. This was an expectation she held for these students. With Stacey,

it did not take long for her to begin to take action and problem solve herself.

Self-Monitoring to Make Sure the Reading Makes Sense, Looks Right and Sounds

Right and Using Fix-Up Strategies When It Doesn't

Jane used the term self-monitoring often. To Jane, self-monitoring involved a

reader using the visual information of words, the syntactical information of sentences,

and the meaning of the text to determine the words the author placed on the page. In my

final interview with her, I asked her to talk about self-monitoring:

> That's when a person is thinking about, they are taking on responsibility
> of what they're doing. . . Are they monitoring for meaning? Are they
> self-monitoring to make sure they're reading what's there and self-
> correcting? It's really that sense that it's their responsibility to make sure
> that whatever they're doing, they're doing it correctly as well. (Interview,
> August 11, 2011)

To synthesize how Jane defined self-monitoring, it is what a reader actively does to make

sure s/he understands his/her reading and s/he is reading the words that the author placed

on the page. Furthermore, it involves a reader actively thinking about the text and what

s/he is discovering and learning. It requires getting into a habit of self-monitoring or

actively reflecting on the reading processes one is using. Jane expected her students to

self-monitor when they read in three ways, making sure their reading made sense, that

what they read matched what they saw on the page, and that their reading sounded right

syntactically (the placing of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences)

(Observation, August 3, 2011). She identified what types of self-monitoring students

used and what types they did not use. Throughout the intervention, there were different

moments when Jane scaffolded each child to self-monitor. A brief description for some

of the students is provided below to show how self-monitoring differed.

Larry. For Larry, Jane showed concern because he did not read for meaning,

signifying he did not self-monitor his understanding of the text (Interview, April 7, 2011).

She explained why Larry had trouble with comprehending what he read:

> And Larry has misconceptions when he reads . . . I've also noticed that he
> does not always read for meaning and the fact that he doesn't read for
> meaning interferes with his concepts when he does read – what he's
> understanding. And it's because he's not always reading for meaning
> (Interview, April 7, 2011).

In the middle of the spring portion of the intervention, Jane wrote the following in

Larry's intervention update:

> He [Larry] also does not read for meaning all of the time as his
> substitutions [words read in text in place of the actual words the author
> wrote] don't always make sense.. He is attempting to self-monitor more
> but still needs a great deal of scaffolding. My goal is for him to be
> bothered when he reads something and it doesn't make sense. I want him
> to be bothered enough to do something about it! (Artifact, April 7, 2011)

When Larry made an error, such as omitting a word, inserting a word, or changing a

word, in his oral reading, Jane would prompt him to read it again by saying, "Try that

again" or "Nearly right" or "Not quite right". On occasion, he had to reread a sentence

three times before he read the words the author had placed on the page (Field Notes,

April 6, 2011). Jane would also prompt Larry to go back and reread when his errors did

not make sense in the text. She might say something like, "I want to stop you because it

[your reading] did not make sense". She may also say, "Look carefully. Remember it

always has to make sense". She may ask, "Does that bother you?" or "Does that make

sense?" Jane felt he and others should be bothered when their reading did not make sense

(Interview, April 7, 2011). Jane saw a shift in Larry's self-monitoring at the end of the

spring portion of the intervention. Jane wrote Larry's intervention update and stated, "His [Larry's] misconceptions about his reading have cleared up as he is now self-monitoring his reading for meaning" (Artifact, May 22, 2011). Larry had developed the proficient reading trait of self-monitoring his understanding of the text.

Cole. Jane's first goal for Cole was to fix his reading errors promptly, meaning he would self-correct his errors on his own (Field Notes, March 21, 2011). She had Cole state this goal before orally reading the text, and then she prompted him to fix his errors when he did not initiate this action on his own. In the first intervention update about Cole, Jane listed self-monitoring as a concern, when she wrote, "When he [Cole] reads, he does not always read the words on the page and will substitute others that don't change the meaning" (Artifact, March 27, 2011). Cole's errors were typically because he did not look carefully at the visual aspects of the words. His errors did not change the meaning of the text, showing he was reading to understand the author's message, just not looking carefully at the words. For instance, during a reading conference on May 16, 2011, Cole read the book *Behind the Scenes at the Zoo* and said the word 'temperatures' when the word on the page was 'temperature.'" The sentence stated, "That's why the sensors for temperature and light are next to the koala's area" (p. 24). Saying temperatures for temperature did not change his understanding of the text, but it showed he did not look carefully. Jane said this to Cole, "I need you to watch your final s's. You're putting s's on that don't belong. So read that again and make sure you're not putting s's where they don't belong" (Observation, May 16, 2011). A little later, Cole read aloud and said the word 'sizes' for the word 'sized'. The sentence stated, "Different-sized snakes are fed different-sized mice" (p. 25). After making this error,

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Cole reread and self-corrected [fixed] his error. This is the conversation that followed

between Jane and Cole:

> Jane: Good for you. What did you do there at the end?
> Cole: I said, "sizes" and then I went back and said, "sized."
> Jane: So what do you think is a tricky part for you in words?
> Cole: s's
> Jane: That are at the . . .
> Cole: end.
> Jane: Yah, so endings are kind of tricky for you, so now that you're
> slowing down make sure you're paying attention to that tricky part.

Jane explicitly drew Cole's attention to where he did not look carefully – the endings of

words. As the conference continued, Cole began to look more carefully at word endings,

attending to the visual information of words, as evidenced by his self-correction.

It appeared that Cole made a shift in his self-monitoring. However, later in the

intervention, self-monitoring emerged again as something he was not doing. Jane

conferenced one day with Cole after he had completed a running record for the book

Chocolate Wasn't Always This Sweet (Observation, August 3, 2011). During his oral

reading, Cole was unable to correctly identify the word Asia, even saying, "I know it

can't be Asia" (Observation, August 3, 2011). Later when he spoke about this error, he

said, "Usually when I sound out what the letters have and when I say Asia [he

pronounced age-uh], it sounds like it has a 'g', but there's A-S-I-A" (Observation, August

3, 2011). Jane followed up with this teaching point to Cole:

> Jane: This is what I want you to know. As a fourth grader, you've
> probably seen that word before. Okay? And it doesn't matter
> whether that's that word or other words. If it makes sense and it
> looks like it could be that word. It's not Age-uh, it's Asia. That's
> how you say the word Asia, okay? And I think sometimes I think
> this is what you're doing. I think you are trying to go only by the
> sounds and *not what makes sense*, okay? Let me give you an
> example. [Scans text. Finds 'weigh'.] You said the word weigh

there, but it really looks kind of like weeg. But weeg doesn't make
sense, does it? But you didn't say weeg. Why did you say weigh?

Cole: Because I seen that word around and my sister been saying it a lot,
so . . .

Jane: Hmm.. . and it makes sense.

Cole: Um-hmm.

Jane: So when you're a reader and you're using strategies to figure out
words, you have to do several different things. You have to look at
it and say, "Does that look like a word I know? Can I do
something with the sounds? Does it make sense?" You have to do
those things kind of quickly, altogether. . . You kind of thought
Southeast Asia made sense, but you didn't say it. Okay? So if
you're going to pick something, pick something that makes sense.
And then you say, "Could that be Asia?" It could, couldn't it?
(Observation, August 3, 2011)

Jane wanted Cole to self-monitor his reading to see that it made sense, sounded right

syntactically, and looked right visually. With Cole, when he encountered Asia, he relied

solely on the visual aspect of the word. He had changed from the beginning of the

intervention in the way he made errors. He now relied on the visual information of the

word and neglected the meaning of the text or what would make sense. Jane wanted him

to realize that his reading had to look right, sound right, and make sense, but most

importantly, it had to make sense.

  Sarah. During a reading conference with Sarah on April 12, 2011, Jane noticed

Sarah did not make sure her reading sounded right syntactically. Jane stated to Sarah, "It

[Sarah's oral reading] didn't sound right. Any time that happens, knowing yourself as a

reader, you say to yourself, 'Oh, I'm probably skipping words. That doesn't sound right.'

So go back and fix it" (Observation, April 12, 2011). In this case, Jane drew attention to

Sarah's need to self-monitor how her reading sounded and when it did not sound right

syntactically, she should go back and fix it.

Summary. In essence, Jane used her knowledge of proficient reading to determine how the students were self-monitoring their reading, making sure it makes sense, sounds right syntactically, and looks right visually (Observation, August 1, 2011). Jane determined the kind of scaffolding to provide based on which of these three components the child did not attend to. Her first line of attack was meaning (Interview, April 14, 2011), which referred to the child reading the text to understand it. Jane explained that proficient readers read to understand and when their reading does not make sense, they are bothered enough to work at fixing the confusion (Interview, May 12, 2011). She chose to put her emphasis here first because the purpose of reading is to understand the author's message.

Reading at a Sufficient Rate with Fluency

In the data, fluent reading involved pausing at punctuation, using expression and intonation when appropriate, reading punctuation (questions sound different than exclamatory sentences), reading the way the author intended, and reading in four to five word phrases. During an interview on April 7, 2011, I asked Jane why she read the first page of a book aloud to students as part of her introduction:

> I had a little bit of intonation and was stopping. Did you notice I stopped? Who was it? Like Larry sometimes, they don't stop as much in between [paragraphs]. And that's something I hope that when I listen to them the second time they'll stop more in between. But that was basically why.

Jane purposely read the text aloud as a model for students of how oral reading should sound – having intonation and pausing at the end of a paragraph. A description of a few students is provided to showcase how Jane helped them develop effective oral reading, which included reading at a sufficient rate with fluency.

Stacey. When Jane conducted a reading conference with Stacey about the book

Knots on a Counting Rope, she drew Stacey's attention to the way the author wrote a

word, signifying how then Stacey should read that word:

> Stacey: Boyyyyyyy. Boyyyyy [The text said 'Boy-eeeee. Boy-eeeee'].
> Jane: Good. I want you to go back and read this part here. You used a lot
>   of expression. Why do you think the author put all those 'e's' in
>   there?
> Stacey: The wind usually goes long.
> Jane: So can you sound like that?
> Stacey: Boy –eeeeeee.
> Jane: Uh-huh. That's what he wants you to do. Uh-huh. Go ahead.
> Stacey. Boy-eeeee. (Observation, April 6, 2011)

Fluency, as showcased here, involved reading the text the way the author intended it to be

read. This is something Jane drew Stacey's attention to. A similar example occurred

during a later reading conference. Stacey had read a question, but it did not sound like a

question because her voice did not drop at the end of the sentence. This is what

transpired in the reading conference:

> Stacey: [Read aloud the sentence "'My grandpa?' I ask."]
> Jane: Okay, he asked. So how would that sound?
> Stacey: [Reread, not like a question, though.]
> Jane: How would that sound?
> Stacey: [Reread and sounded like a question] (Observation, April 18,
>   2011)

Jane drew Stacey's attention to how punctuation is intended to sound. Stacey maintained

fluent reading throughout the intervention, as noted on Jane's anecdotal notes. However

there were a few instances like these where Stacey did not read the text the way the

author intended. During these times, Jane would direct Stacey's attention to the text

structure and how the author intended it to sound. On May 6, 2011, Jane noted on

Stacey's intervention update: "She is fluent on cold [never read before text] and

expressive when she reads aloud." Stacey displayed the proficient reading quality of fluency when reading.

Damion. Often in Jane's anecdotal notes, proficient reading qualities would be noted. For instance, after completing a reading conference with Damion, Jane wrote this on March 29, 2011, about her teaching point with him: "Reread for phrasing." During the conference, Jane noticed Damion did not read in four to five word phrases (Field Note, March 29, 2011). She then modeled for him how he should read a portion of the book *Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day*. She prompted him to reread the same portion of text.

> Damion: [Read choppy without phrasing.]
> Jane: Put those words together, "In the carpool . . ."
> Damion [Reread the text like the teacher.]
> Jane: Reread this part. "I said . . ." Put those words together.
> Damion: [Reread like the teacher.]
> Jane: Could you feel the difference there? (Field Notes, March 29, 2011)

Following this, she told Damion that reading was not about speed, but about putting words together. Jane showed Damion what proficient readers do – they phrase (put four to five words together when reading). She also had Damion practice this quality of proficient reading. In many instances, after Damion would read orally, Jane would ask him how he thought his reading sounded. On April 14, 2011, I asked Jane why she asked Damion this:

> That's because he was working on fluency. That's why I said that to him. That's part of that reflective, agency thing. I want them to know when they're growing and when they're not growing (Interview, April 14, 2011).

Damion's reading goal at that time was to read fluently. Jane wanted Damion to know

when he read fluently and when he did not. Jane did see an improvement in Damion's

oral reading mid-April. It occurred during a reading conference:

> Damion: [Reads aloud expressively.]
> Jane: Okay, tell me how you're sounding.
> Damion: Better than I used to.
> Jane: You're sounding good, bud. It sounds good. You're reading at a nice pace.
>   I hear your voice going up and down. You're looking at chunks. You're
>   doing a good job.
> Damion: Okay.
> Jane: Good. Do you think you're understanding it better?
> Damion: Mmm-hmm.
> Jane: Good for you. The thing I'm going to tell you is keep doing what you're
>   Doing. (Observation, April 12, 2011)

Jane witnessed Damion reading fluently during this reading conference. He read with

expression at an adequate rate. She drew Damion's attention to this and tied it to

understanding the text – the ultimate purpose for reading. These qualities are traits of

proficient readers.

Cole. During a reading conference, Jane noticed Cole read too fast. Jane did not

allow Cole to read very far before she stopped him to address this.

> Cole: [Read aloud.]
> Jane: I'm going to stop you and why am I going to stop you?
> Cole: Because I'm going too fast.
> Jane: Uh-huh and therefore what are you doing?
> Cole: I'm probably skipping words or making them up.
> Jane: No, you're actually skipping, you're not looking carefully, all the
>   way around. You're running right over the periods. So this is not
>   a race. I want you to try and slow down a little bit (Observation,
>   April 12, 2011).

When Cole read at an inadequate rate, Jane drew attention to this because his speed

impacted his reading accuracy, which would subsequently impact his understanding of

the text.

Summary. Data analysis revealed that Jane attended to the students' oral reading by listening to see if it sounded fluent and if it was at an adequate rate to support understanding the author's message. When Jane noticed the student's oral reading seemed to impact his/her understanding of the text, she scaffolded his/her oral reading. In some cases, this involved scaffolding the way the author intended the text to sound. In other cases, it involved scaffolding the student's rate or fluency.

Thinking Deeply about the Text

Jane would often probe students to think deeply about the text during reading conferences and text discussions. Her probing included questions, statements, and hanging statements, such as "And they gave him. . ." (Observation, April 6, 2011). Jane explained why she probed students to think deeply about the text when she said, "I'm trying to get them to infer. I never want to tell them that this is the answer." (Interview, April 18, 2011). Furthermore, she stated, "When you pick up something and read it, it should change your mind about something. You should learn something. It should make you think and go beyond where you were. Have an opinion about something. I don't want them to think it's just about the facts. Although the facts are important, but it's not about the facts" (Interview, August 11, 2011). Jane referred to thinking deeply about the text as making inferences. Inferences are interpretations a reader makes about the text, based on the text clues the author presents and the reader's background knowledge and experiences. Thus, proficient readers make inferences about the text. They actively think about the text, and it changes them in different ways. A brief description of a few students is provided to show how Jane probed the students to think deeply about the text.

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Cole. On April 6, 2011, she conducted a reading conference with Cole and probed him to think deeply about symbolism in the book *Knots on a Counting Rope*. The interchange is provided:

Jane: So what are you thinking the horses stood for in this book?
Cole: I don't really have a clue yet.
Jane: Well, you kind of told me a little bit about it. You said he raised his
     hands. And they gave him . . .
Cole: Strength to live.
Jane: So what do you think they might stand for?
Cole: I think like a newborn baby like he would touch them and it would
     give him the strength to live.
Jane: So what might the horses stand for?
Cole: To, um, make newborns to live. Um, because he was blinded.
Jane: Could be. Think some more about that. Like what did those horses
     stand for. Was it just about the newborn? Authors, all throughout
     this book, these authors use . . . have you heard of figurative
     language? Things like similes and metaphors. I'm sure teachers
     have taught you about those things, okay. And things stand for
     other things in here. (Observation, April 6, 2011)

During this conversation, Jane probed Cole to think deeper about the horses in the story and what they might have symbolized using questions and a hanging statement. She ended the conference by leaving Cole to continue thinking about the horses and what they represented in the story. She did not give the answer to the question. This showed Jane wanted Cole to think deeply about the text, something proficient readers do.

Sarah. Jane felt Sarah had an insightful way of interpreting text throughout the intervention. On March 23, 2011, Jane facilitated a discussion following the reading of the book *A Day in the Life of a Vet*. It began with Jane asking the students how the three vets discussed in the book were alike or different (Field Notes, March 23, 2011). She probed them to compare, a way to think deeper about text. Sarah's final comment drew Jane's attention. Sarah's remarked that the vets were alike because they did the best job to keep the animals alive. Following this, Jane stated, "Yes, that's what really matters.

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That's what authors want you to know – that big idea" (Field Notes, March 23, 2011).

This led Jane to write a remark in her lesson notes that Sarah's response was very

insightful (Artifact, March 23, 2011). During another discussion about the book *The

Wall*, Sarah again showed the ability to make interpretations about the text by connecting

her life to the boy in the story, who lost his grandfather in the Vietnam War. The

discussion follows:

> Jane: So like when people were visiting the Wall and when the boy and
> his dad were visiting the Wall, we said that we were going to talk
> about how it affected them. What did you notice about the way
> they were thinking and feeling as different people came and went?
> Came and went? Was there something that you like noticed about
> that? Sarah?
> Sarah: When he saw the grandpa and the little kid. It made him feel like
> he was left out.
> Jane: Okay, talk about that Sarah.
> Sarah: My mom and dad had got divorced. When I see a mom and dad
> together, I feel left out cause I had to live without my dad.
> (Observation, April 18, 2011)

Jane probed the group with questions and a statement to facilitate their discussion about

The Wall. Sarah provided insight into the feelings of the boy who had lost his

grandfather because she herself felt the loss of a family unit with the divorce of her

parents. When speaking about this discussion, Jane said, "Is Sarah insightful or what? It

just really touches you" (Interview, April 18, 2011). Later in the intervention, Jane wrote

in Sarah's intervention report: "Sarah's strength is that she is a thinker and often sees the

bigger picture" (May 22, 2011). Jane referred to Sarah's ability to think deeply about

text and to pick out the messages hidden within the text. When commenting on Sarah's

impact on the deepness of the group conversation, Jane said, "You know Sarah,

sometimes she shifts the conversation somewhere where I'm like I would never have

thought of that. That's really good" (Interview, June 24, 2011). Jane noticed Sarah's

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strength with grasping the deeper meaning of books. Sarah showed proficiency as a reader in this area.

Summary. Data analysis revealed that Jane attended to the students' understanding of the text to see if they could think deeply about text, meaning they thought beyond the literal information presented in the text to the deeper messages the author was communicating. Inferential thinking was an aspect of deeper understanding that Jane fostered. Jane scaffolded deeper thinking about texts during reading conferences and discussions. By the end of the intervention, Jane noticed that four out of the five students thought deeply about the text (Interview, August 4, 2011), therefore they showed reading proficiency in this area.

Using Text Features and Structure to Assist with Understanding the Author's Message

Text features refer to components of nonfiction text, such as photo captions, text boxes, headings, contents, labels, maps, diagrams, figures, glossaries, and indexes. In an interview on May 12, 2011, Jane explained why she focused students' attention on text features: "Because I'm not skipping them. You know. A lot of them [students] do. I know a lot of them do. And those features are there to support plus give you added information." Jane expected students to attend to these features because authors placed them in books to give support to the information in the text while providing additional information. Text structure refers to the way the information or events in text are organized. In an interview on April 14, 2011, Jane talked about why she explained the text structure to students:

> I see that talking about structure and layout part of the scaffolding thing
> because everything I've read recently, in Dorn [an author], she talks about

the three things that help kids with their reading comprehension are strategies, structure of the text, and vocabulary. Those are the three things that can get in the way if they don't have them. And I just felt like especially Fireflies was lacking in structure. But I think this one [Larry] needs the structure. If you don't give it to him, I don't think he's going to pick it up on his own. Right now anyway. I'm hoping he does. His thinking is a little bit disorganized.

Jane explained in this interview that to assist students with text comprehension, a teacher should scaffold their understanding of the text structure. As the students developed into proficient readers, Jane wanted them to take on the responsibility of identifying text structure. In a later observation, Jane stated, "What they [the students] have to know is that there are different structures and they've got to be on the lookout and think, 'Okay, what has the author put there for me to help me?'" (May 2, 2011). Descriptions are provided, showing how Jane scaffolded the features and/or structure of nonfiction and fiction text.

Nonfiction text. When Jane introduced a nonfiction book for the first time, she wrote this in her lesson plan:

Orientation to the New Book:
- nonfiction/read differently
- text layout → intro./headings/highlighted words/pictures/labels/captions (March 23, 2011)

Jane presented this information to the students so they would understand the structure of nonfiction text and use that to grasp the author's message as they read *A Day in the Life of a Vet*.

Another instance arose during a text introduction of *Behind the Scenes at the Zoo* when Jane expected the students to preview the book and set a purpose for reading. This involved using text features, like the title and table of contents, to determine the structure and content of the text. The following dialogue occurred between Jane and the group:

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Jane: As you're reading, I want you to be thinking about this. I want you
to look at the title. I want you to look at the table of contents. . .
And you're going to be previewing your book. Are you going to
do a walk through? No. How have we been previewing our books
lately?

Damion: We look at the table of contents.

Jane: Title. Table of contents. We're not doing a walk through. . . Cause
we've become, not that that's a bad thing, but we've become more
of a sophisticated reader and we can tell lots of stuff from the title,
cover, table of contents – the map of the book. We can pretty
much get an idea of our book from the get-go. . . What are you
noticing about this book that maybe is different than books we've
read in the past? Especially at the table of contents. . .

Cole: It's telling the time of day what was going on.

Jane: So is this book put together a little bit differently than some of the
other ones we've had?   Instead of saying chapter 1, chapter 2 or
Part 1, Part 2, Part 3. It just says times, doesn't it? So this is
another way an author has chosen to put his writing together in a
book. And you need to understand that at this time, will do this at
the zoo. At this time, we'll do this at the zoo. At this time, this
might be happening at the zoo. That will help you to understand
the book better, won't it. (Observation, May 16, 2011)

In this interaction, Jane fostered the students' use of previewing strategies, such as

reading the title and table of contents, to determine the content and structure of the text.

She drew their attention to how knowing this structure and content would help them

understand the book. She also talked to them about being a more sophisticated reader,

one who used the text features given by the author to determine the content of the book.

She wanted the students to go beyond a 'walk through', which she referred to in an

interview as a picture walk (May 12, 2011). Early elementary teachers often encourage

students to conduct a picture walk, or to look at the pictures in the book, to determine the

book's content. She discussed how she felt about picture walks in this interview:

Because a lot of them want to take picture walks. You know what I mean.
We've got to get beyond that. So you want them looking at the cover and
inferring and predicting. And looking at the back of the book and trying
to decide if there's an author's note somewhere and looking at the table of
contents and making some better judgments on the book instead of picture

walks. (May 12, 2011)

By fourth and fifth grades, Jane wanted these students to use more sophisticated ways of determining the content of a book, such as using the text features.

Later in the intervention on June 24, 2011, Jane talked about why she provided the pronunciation of the word altimeter during a text introduction, but did not give the word's meaning. In the interview, she explained that she did not give the meaning of the word because the meaning was given in the text. Furthermore, she stated, "Sometimes it says in the text and sometimes it says in the glossary. They're R level [end of fourth grade level] readers or Q/R level [level at third semester in fourth grade] readers. They have to be able to know" (Interview, June, 24, 2011). In this instance, Jane identified another trait of proficient readers, using text features and structure to determine meanings of words they did not know. In this case, the author provided the glossary as a text feature to assist the reader in word understanding. The author also provided the meaning of the word in the text as part of the text structure. Jane felt students who could read text at the end of fourth grade level should be able to figure out the meanings of words on their own, using the text features and the text structure.

Fiction text. On April 6, 2011, Jane introduced the fiction book *Knots on a Counting Rope*. She began the introduction by reading the first page of the book aloud and asking the students to listen to how it was different from most books. Then she explained the text structure:

> There's really not anybody telling you the story – like a narrator. It is told from the grandfather and the boy, talking back and forth and back and forth and back and forth. As you flip through, what are you noticing? Back and forth. Back and forth. You can be looking for that, okay. Back and forth. That is how the story is structured. That is how the story is put together. And you need to understand that in order to understand the

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story. And you have to keep track of that so that you understand the story. (Observation, April 6, 2011)

In this introduction, Jane explained that understanding the structure of the book would help with understanding the story. In an interview with Jane, she explained why she read this first page aloud:

> Jane: I wanted them to hear what I wanted them to be hearing and that was the structure of the text.
> Interviewer: And you talked to them about the structure of the text. That it's important to know.
> Jane: Yah. Cause it was different and you really have to pay attention because they're [the authors] going back and forth, back and forth. They [the students] won't get it. (April 7, 2011)

Jane affirmed that understanding the structure of the text helped readers understand the author's message. Otherwise, without this understanding, Jane stated, "They won't get it" (Interview, April 7, 2011), or they won't understand what the authors are saying.

Summary. Data analysis revealed that Jane attended to the structure of the text the students read to help them with understanding the author's message. She used the author's text features to support their understanding of the text. Jane scaffolded students' understanding of text features and structures through reading conferences and text introductions. She wanted the students to determine the features and structures of books on their own and use this knowledge to assist with understanding the author's message. To close, during a reading conference with Larry, Jane prompted him to read the heading because he skipped it. She followed up with a question, asking Larry why he needed to read the headings. He replied that the heading would tell him what that part of the book was about. Jane replied, "Good. Good readers do that" (Field Notes, March 23, 2011), meaning good readers read the headings so they know what to anticipate in the text.

Understanding the author's message and purpose included using the text features and the text structure, which the author chose for a reason (Observation, May 2, 2011).

Using Background Knowledge to Understand the Text

Jane wanted the students to activate their background knowledge about the content of books and make connections as they read. Jane prompted the students to access their background knowledge during text introductions, text discussions, and reading conferences. Typically, she fostered accessing personal experiences that were relevant to the text, eliciting knowledge of books that were similar to the book they were about to read, or activating knowledge of the world and how it functions as ways to deepen their understanding of the text.

Personal experience. In the literacy world, this is known as a text-to-self connection. When Jane introduced a new book to students, she would often connect the book to the students' lives. For instance, when introducing the book *A Day in the Life of a Vet*, Jane asked the students if they had a pet and if they had ever taken their pet to the vet (Field Notes, March 23, 2011). This was Jane's way of activating the students' knowledge of vets before she read the first three pages of the book to them as part of her introduction. Jane also connected key vocabulary in this book to students' personal experiences. For example, Jane chose to introduce the phrase "has effects on wild animals" by activating students' knowledge of the effects of weather (Field Notes, March 23, 2011).

During many of her interactions with the students, Jane shared her own personal connections to the text. Early on, the students shared their personal connections to the text. This occurred distinctly when Jane and the students discussed the book *The Wall*:

Jane: So like when people were visiting the Wall and when the boy and his dad were visiting the Wall we said that we were going to talk about how it affected them. What did you notice about the way they were thinking and feeling as different people came and went? Came and went? Was there something that you like noticed about that? Sarah?

Sarah: When he saw the grandpa and the little kid. It made him feel like he was left out.

Jane: Okay, talk about that Sarah.

Sarah: My mom and dad had got divorced. When I see a mom and dad together, I feel left out cause I had to live without my dad.

Jane: Cole, did you hear what Sarah said? Okay, was that surprising to you? The very first time I read this book that was very surprising to me. And then I stopped to think, Yah, if you've ever lost something then you notice it. I have a friend who lost a husband. He passed away. And so ever since that, it makes me stop and think, "I wonder if when she sees other husbands and wives together, does that make her miss her husband?"

Sarah: I bet it does.

Jane: I bet it does, too. And I never really thought about it much before I read this book. But it made me really stop and think, "Gosh, I bet that is hurtful and painful sometimes." It makes us stop and think about it. That made you understand this book even that much better, didn't it, Sarah? Good for you. Anybody else have a part in here that really said something to them. Damion?

Damion: I wonder how the boy feels about, feels about losing his grandpa in that war.

Jane: How do you think he feels about it?

Damion: Because if I had never seen my grandpa I'd be sad because I like have fun with my grandpa and he seen that boy with his grandpa and that was happy with his grandpa.

Jane: Yah and I've never thought of this before but my younger son who is studying right now in Wales. My dad passed away before he was even born, so he never had a grandpa around. But now that he is in Wales, my husband's dad is alive so he gets to be with that grandpa and I'd never thought about it until you just said that. I bet when he was growing up he probably missed not having a grandpa. I thought about it, but I never thought about him thinking about that. (Observation, April 18, 2011)

Jane explained her own personal experiences, probed students to talk about how the

characters might be feeling, and encouraged the sharing of personal connections. She

explained that thinking of personal experiences helped readers understand the text 'that much better.'

Book knowledge. In the literacy world, these are called text-to-text connections. During Jane's text introductions and conferences with students, she encouraged them to make connections between books. On August 4, 2011, Jane wanted her group to notice how the book *The Rough-Face Girl* connected to the story of *Cinderella.* She provided this purpose for reading the book:

> As you're reading it, you know how you just said, 'Oh, this reminds me. This book should remind you of another book. I won't tell you which one. At the end, I want you to think, 'What does this book remind me of. What story does this book remind you of? And see if you think of that book, see if it helps you understand the story.

Jane encouraged the students to activate their knowledge of another book. She pointed out that thinking of a similar story would help them with understanding *The Rough-Face Girl*. During an interview with Jane about her introduction, she responded in this way to two questions I asked:

> Interviewer: When you introduced *The Rough-Face Girl*, you did ask them if it reminded them of another story. What was your purpose for that?
> Jane: I just wanted them to make that correlation. That you know, that's one of the things like I don't see this group doing this in particular, not . . . Very many times, when we talk as adults, we'll say, "Oh, yah, this reminds me of that other book that we read or Allington wrote this other book." I don't see these kids doing that. I don't see them making those kinds of connections. Sometimes they do, but I don't see it happening very often. It's probably something they needed to be doing more.
> Interviewer: Why did you choose *The Rough-Face Girl*?
> Jane: It was another one that I just upped the ante on. It was a narrative. I thought it had some other text connections that they could be talking about and thinking about. (Interview, August 11, 2011)

Making connections is a quality of proficient reading, as evidenced by Jane stating that

adults make connections all the time across books, but students do not. Selecting this

book was a way for Jane to foster the students' development of that quality. During a

conference with Cole on April 12, 2011, Jane fostered Cole's use of book connections:

> Jane: That reminds me. I know of other animals that do that sometimes and then
>   they slurp it out. Have you ever heard of other animals doing that kind of
>   thing?
> Cole: Like the *Gross Out* book with the possum.
> Jane: You're right. It is. Just like the *Gross Out* book. Excellent connection
>   there. (Observation, April 12, 2011)

During this conversation, Cole connected the book *Fireflies* to the book *Gross Out*. Jane

encouraged this connection. Jane wanted students to make connections across books

because she felt it helped with their understanding (Observation, May 16, 2011). During

a text introduction of *Behind the Scenes at the Zoo*, Jane encouraged the students to make

connections between books when she said, "Does this book remind you of another book

that we've read recently?" (Observation, May 16, 2011). Cole responded, "We had the

one about the day at the vet and it shows the zoo and we also had Science at the Park and

it talks about animals, too". Jane followed up with this explanation:

> Okay, would those two books help you to understand this book –
> especially the vet one? You're right, using that background knowledge is
> going to help you.   We already have a little background knowledge about
> vets and vets at the zoo from another book, *Life as a Vet*. Remember that
> was one of our very first books. So that background knowledge is going
> to help.

Jane knew proficient readers elicited their knowledge of other books to understand new

books, therefore she fostered the development of this quality through her text

introductions and conferences.

Knowledge of the world. In the literacy world, this is known as text-to-world connections. Making this kind of connection involved connecting the content of a book to the bigger picture of the students' world. For instance, when Jane introduced the book *The Wall* about the Vietnam Memorial in Washington, D.C., she connected the content of the book to the students' world by saying:

> Actually we have something like this in our town, in downtown. It's not really from this war. . . Maybe you've heard about too lately on the news. Have you heard of the World War II veterans going out to Washington and looking at their memorial wall? Well, we have something in our town. I don't know if you've ever noticed it, but it's a building and on the building are names of people who fought and maybe died, who fought in the war and the reason I know that is my dad's name is on the wall. Now he didn't die in the war. Lots of times they'll put people's names on the wall. It's kind of like an honor because they fought in wars. This is a wall that honors men who died and women who died in a war in Vietnam. Have you heard of that? . . .Well, Vietnam is a country. There's a North Vietnam and a South Vietnam. And they kind of fought a war against each other and the United States got involved. A lot of soldiers died in Vietnam, a lot of American soldiers died. To honor them, do you know what that means to honor them? To stop and think, oh, of all the good things, so their life is kind of remembered. . . They build this wall as kind of a place of honor. (Observation, April 18, 2011)

Jane began the introduction to *The Wall* by connecting the content to the students' world. She connected memorial walls to a wall in the students' hometown and to a regular occurrence in their hometown – war veterans visiting their war memorial in Washington, D.C. She also explained the significance of memorial walls. This allowed the students to see how the content of the book connected to the world around them. Later, when Jane discussed this book with the students, she made another connection to their world:

> Jane: Okay. Look at this picture here. [Directs to a page in the book that shows students on a field trip at the Vietnam Wall] You guys go on field trips, don't you? In fact, you guys just went to _____ [Place left out for anonymous purposes], didn't you? And you saw some . . . I know you didn't see something like this, but when kids go on field trips and you pass other people, like they

passed the boy and his dad, I wonder how that made them feel
because they were probably loud and talking and probably happy
to be on a field trip, right? But this was kind of a quiet . . .

Larry: It was like the people ain't supposed to be talking cause the people
don't like. . . like they want to have quiet around them. It's kind of
rude.

Jane: Yah because some people who are going to visit this wall are
feeling how?

Larry: Upset. (Observation, April 18, 2011)

Jane probed the students to connect the content of the book to their world by

discussing how students act on field trips. She then probed the students to think

about how the children on a field trip impacted the characters in the story who

visited the Wall feeling sorrow.   Thus, Jane linked knowledge of their world to

the content of the book, probing the students to think more deeply about the

characters in the story and the implications of the characters' actions.

Summary. Jane fostered the students using their background knowledge to

understand the text being read. She knew proficient readers activate their background

knowledge and make connections when reading. When looking in Jane's lesson notes on

May 10, 2011, she wrote:

- b.k. [background knowledge] – helps me understand

- setting – NY city

  - 1932

  - Great Depression

When introducing this book, Jane stated, "It's [the book] called *The Babe and I*. So how

many of you know a little bit about baseball. . . Good. We need to know that. The

background knowledge is going to help you with this" (Observation, May 10, 2011). To

foster the use of background knowledge, Jane demonstrated how she used background

knowledge to understand the text during her text introductions, reading conferences, and text discussions with students. She encouraged their use of meaningful connections. She also prompted the students to elicit connections between the books they read and other books and between books they read and the world. Making these connections and eliciting this background knowledge enabled students to have a fuller understanding of the text.

Summary for Finding One

Data analysis revealed that Jane attended to the following qualities of proficient reading: read to understand the author's message, use decoding strategies to figure out unrecognizable words, self-monitor to make sure their reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right, and using fix-up strategies when it doesn't, read at a sufficient rate with fluency, think deeply about the text, use text features and structure to assist with understanding the author's message, and use background knowledge to understand the text. Jane fostered the students' development of these qualities through her scaffolding during the text introductions, discussions, and conferences. She explicitly explained to the students what proficient readers do when they read and then expected to see these qualities from the students.

This first finding answered the first supporting research question: How does the experienced district literacy coach determine the kind of scaffolding to provide? Data analysis revealed that Jane possessed in-depth knowledge of proficient reading, therefore she referred to these qualities to determine the kinds of scaffolding to provide. She observed what a student was doing and then determined what proficient reading qualities s/he exemplified and what qualities s/he did not exemplify. This finding shows that the

nature of reading scaffolding involves possessing knowledge of the qualities of proficient

reading. Observing students' actions and responses to determine their proficiency with

the reading qualities allowed Jane to select her scaffolding to meet the students' needs.

This segues into the next finding.

Finding Two: Diagnosing Students' Needs and Strengths

For Jane, the nature of scaffolding was based on her understanding of the qualities

of proficient reading. But these qualities were not the only component of how she

determined the kinds and levels of scaffolds to provide her students. Another component

of Jane's scaffolding was diagnosing students' needs and strengths. Her diagnoses were

based on the qualities she had identified for proficient reading. When talking with Jane

about her scaffolding, she said, "I think the diagnostic piece is huge" (Interview, August

11, 2011). Jane's knowledge of proficient reading helped her determine the students'

reading needs and strengths. Jane stated:

> And then with struggling readers they're all so different so you have to
> kind of be aware of what the child's strengths and what they're doing.
> What they're doing that's tripping them up and maybe why. And try to
> diagnose and problem solve that. And then on top of that, there's the
> comprehension piece. Okay, maybe they're reading okay and they're
> sounding okay, but are they comprehending. And also what do good
> readers really do because you want all kids to be good readers. So what
> do proficient readers do? (Interview, August 11, 2011)

Jane chose the kind and level of scaffolding to provide based on her diagnosis of the

students' needs and strengths. For instance, in an interview on April 14, 2011, she said:

> I'm thinking about what the child's doing. If the child's not reading for
> meaning, that's my first line of attack. So I try to think what does the
> child have control of and what does the child need support with. If the
> child has control of meaning, but needs support with visual that's where I
> do my scaffolding. If a child does not have control of meaning, then that's
> where I go to first. Like sometimes they don't have control of meaning
> and they have very little control of visual, but I still try to go to meaning

first.

Jane chose her scaffolding based on what the students did. Jane's diagnosis differed for each student. Jane stated, "Of course, it's [scaffolding] different per learner. Every learner has different needs, but you find yourself doing the same kinds of things, over and over" (Interview, August 4, 2011). Her diagnoses also changed throughout the intervention based on the changes in the students' reading behaviors. Below I have provided examples of how Jane diagnosed some of the students' needs and strengths as readers.

Cole

Prior to the beginning of the intervention, Jane assessed Cole to determine his reading level. During this assessment, Jane identified a need of Cole's when she stated, "He was omitting and inserting and therefore his comprehension was. . . he kind of had misconceptions about his comprehension" (Interview, April 14, 2011). She discussed this with Cole the day of the assessment. On the first day of intervention, she asked Cole to state what he was working on as a reader; he confirmed that he needed to fix his errors as he read (Field Notes, March 21, 2011). During this first reading conference, Jane listened to Cole read a portion of the book *Wednesday's Surprise*. At one point, she told Cole that there were three places in his reading where he did not fix an error (Field Notes, March 21, 2011). She told him to look carefully at what the author wrote, thus naming what he needed to do as a reader. Following this, she prompted Cole to reread and then scaffolded his oral reading further. At the end of the conference, Jane followed up by saying, "While you're here, you need to look carefully. I will talk to you about it for a while. You will be a phenomenal reader when you look" (Field Notes, March 21, 2011).

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Jane explicitly named for Cole what he needed to do as a reader. Early in the intervention, it was apparent on artifacts that Jane diagnosed the students' needs and strengths. For example, Jane noticed that Cole was reading fluently and self-correcting his errors (Artifact, April 18, 2011). On May 3, 2011, Jane wrote on a running record that Cole chunked words into syllables (Artifact). On another artifact from a running record with Cole, Jane wrote: "omits, inserts – not looking" (Artifact, April 19, 2011). Jane diagnosed that Cole omitted and inserted words, showing that he did not look carefully at the words on the page. Jane also noticed that Cole read fast and this impacted his careful looking (Artifact & Field Notes, April 5, 2011). She stated, "You need to look carefully . . . and slow down. That's your goal" (Field Notes, April 5, 2011). Explicitly naming the students' needs occurred often during the intervention.

Toward the middle of the intervention, Jane selected books at a fourth grade reading level, meaning the books included more multisyllabic words. When this happened, it became evident to Jane that Cole needed assistance with looking carefully at the chunks in the multisyllabic words. During a reading conference on May 2, 2011, Jane supported Cole in identifying the word 'pyramids':

> Cole: [Read] Perimeters, primary, prim ide? [For the word pyramids]
> Jane: It doesn't make sense, does it? So what are you going to go back
>   and do?
> Cole: [Read] Primaries in Egypt. Ancient.
> Jane: What's ancient in Egypt? What's in Egypt from your background
>   knowledge?
> Cole: I know there's treasure in Egypt that's over 1000 years old.
> Jane: Where do they find those treasures?
> Cole: In . . .
> Jane: Here's what you have to help you. You have your background
>   knowledge. This is what you have [motioned to text].
> Cole: If I block right here [covered up 'amid' in the word pyramid], that's
>   pri.
> Jane: No, it's not.

Cole: Pray.

Jane: No, it's not.

Cole: If I break it here.

Jane: Okay, you're putting the 'r' next to the 'p'. It's not next to the 'p'. Honey, what makes sense? What do you find in ancient Egypt that begins with 'p'?

Cole: I don't know.

Jane: Yes, you do. Do you see any part of that word that makes sense to you?

Cole: Minds.

Jane: But you're not reading what's there. You're putting in other sounds. Write the word right there. [Handed him a sticky note] Look at it as you write it.

Cole: [Wrote pyramids on a sticky note] Per mids. Pyramids in Egypt.

Jane: Okay. That was a lot of work you did there. That was a lot of work, wasn't it? But that's because you're not used to looking. So I'm slowing you down to help you look. You know a couple of things you can do. You know how to chunk. I just saw you do that two times. You did a nice job of that. And you also know you can write the word to help you to look at it. Also, think about what you know. That's a lot of thinking you have to do. You think you can do that?

Jane noticed Cole needed help with figuring out the multisyllabic word 'pyramids.' First, she prompted him to take action, which resulted in Cole rereading the sentence. When this did not result in the correct identification of the word, she asked him about his background knowledge related to ancient Egypt. She knew Cole possessed knowledge of the pyramids and thought this would result in correct identification of the word, but it did not. After that, she directed his attention to the visual information of the word 'pyramids'. When Cole was unable to look carefully at the word 'pyramids', Jane prompted him to write the word on a sticky note. This resulted in Cole's correct identification of the word. Jane then explicitly explained to Cole what he needed to do to figure out multisyllabic words, even stating his strength of chunking words. During an interview with Jane on this day, I asked:

Interviewer: With Cole, you pushed him really hard to figure out the word

> on his own.
> Jane: Yah, they're really not looking and I want them to – it took him a lot of energy. I know it. I think he's been able to get away with not looking. I really wanted him to know success and what it took to do that. . . . You have to work and it may feel a little exhausting, but that's what you need to do. (May 2, 2011)

Jane also stated that she wanted to make a point that reading takes work and that readers do that kind of work. On May 10, 2011, Jane conferenced with Cole and explicitly named his strengths and needs at the end. She said, "I'm noticing you're fluent today. I'm noticing you are able to chunk syllables. But there is another thing I'm noticing. When you get to the end of the page, you kind of quit looking". Throughout her time with Cole, Jane identified his needs and strengths and scaffolded accordingly. However, Jane did not feel Cole made the progress he needed to make in reading (Interview, August 11, 2011). Jane expressed that Cole was inconsistent about using strategic reading behaviors and seemed confused about what readers do when they encounter words they do not recognize. During the last interview, Jane stated, "I worry about him [Cole]. He's a kid I know I'm going to pick up or I need to pick up [in an intervention] somewhere along the line again. . . My recommendation is that he continues with some sort of intervention" (Interview, August 11, 2011).

Larry

Larry began the intervention as a student Jane was very concerned about. During an early interview, Jane talked about her concern:

> Interviewer: Who are you most worried about?
> Jane: Larry. That's why I spend so much time with him. I'm worried about his comprehension most of all. I'm not so worried about the others' comprehension. (Interview, April 7, 2011)

Her concern with Larry influenced the amount of time she spent with him in the

beginning. She diagnosed Larry as the one who struggled most with comprehension

early in the intervention. Jane also identified self-monitoring as a proficient reading

quality he lacked, along with problem solving unrecognizable words and fluency

(Interview, April 7, 2011). Jane's diagnosis of Larry's needs influenced the scaffolding

she provided. During a reading conference on March 29, 2011, Jane noticed Larry's oral

reading lacked fluency. Their interaction follows:

> Jane: Read that one more time and put those words together.
> Larry: [Reread fluently]
> Jane: Do you hear the difference?
> Larry: I read fast.
> Jane: You did. Not too fast. You put the words together. (Field Notes,
> March 29, 2011)

Jane diagnosed Larry's oral reading as lacking fluency, therefore she prompted him to put

the words together in phrases when he reread. When he did this, she drew his attention to

the difference in his reading, being explicit about what proficient reading entailed. The

following day Jane conducted a running record with Larry when she stopped him shortly

after he began. Their conversation follows:

> Jane: I'm going to stop you. Why?
> Larry: I read too fast, but I got all the words right.
> Jane: Yes, you read too fast. No, you didn't. You were getting the words
> wrong. It's not a speed contest. Reading is like talking. (Field
> Notes, March 30, 2011)

Jane then had Larry reread the page. When he finished reading, she told him that his

reading sounded good, meaning he read fluently. Plus, Jane pointed out that he self-

corrected many of his errors. At the end of the running record conference, Jane stated,

"Good. Keep looking carefully" (Field Notes, March 30, 2011). On her running record

form, in her lesson notes, and on her intervention update, Jane wrote that Larry read

fluently (Artifact, March 30, 2011; April 2, 2011). Another time when Jane conducted a

running record with Larry he omitted some words as he read. A portion of their

conversation follows:

> Jane: Well, I thought you were reading at a really nice pace, but you
> skipped the word 'my'. You skipped the word 'but'. You skipped
> the word, no you went back and fixed that one. But you skipped
> the word 'and'. And you don't normally skip words, but I noticed
> you skipping little words today. Are you usually doing that?
> Larry: No, unless it's like a really long page and my eyes start to water.
> Jane: Oh, did that happen today?
> Larry: A little bit.
> Jane: So one of the things, can I tell you, that might help you focus.
> Sometimes I do that when I'm reading. I keep my thumb going
> along here [down the side of the page] or I'll put my hand here, so
> it'll help keep me, but if I put it out here, my eyes might have a
> hard time. So your thumb can do this. (Observation, May 9, 2011)

Jane used her prior knowledge of Larry's reading behaviors when she listened to him

read and diagnosed his reading behaviors. She noticed he skipped words, an unusual

behavior for Larry. Hence, her conversation centered on why he exhibited this behavior.

When she determined the reason, she suggested he use his finger to keep track of his

reading. As the intervention progressed, Jane was less and less concerned about Larry.

On May 19, 2011, Jane stated:

> Something clicked for him. . . Like there is something happening here
> with this kid and his teacher said she's noticing, too. . . I don't know what
> it was. Part of it was making him look better. Slowing him down, I think
> that was part of it. . . Also, he's a little go-getter and he's not afraid.

Jane noticed a shift in the areas Larry struggled. She attributed this to his development of

looking carefully when he read and to his personality, being a go-getter. In her

intervention update about Larry, Jane wrote:

> Larry has also become more fluent when he reads, and says that he enjoys
> reading more now than before starting the group. His misconceptions
> about his reading have cleared up as he is now self-monitoring his reading

for meaning. Larry seems to understand the deeper meaning. (Artifact, May 22, 2011)

In a final interview with Jane, she confirmed that Larry had developed proficiency with reading and had a sense of agency about his reading (August 11, 2011). Agency is the belief that if I act, and act strategically, I can accomplish my goals (Johnston, 2004).

Summary for Finding Two

This finding answers this study's first and second supporting questions: How does the experienced district literacy coach determine the kinds and levels of scaffolding to provide? and How does the kind and level of scaffolding change? When it came to the kind and level of scaffolding Jane provided, this depended on the individual and what s/he was doing (Interview, April 14, 2011). Jane explained how her scaffolding differed between Larry and Cole when one of them made an error in their oral reading:

> Larry has different strategies in place than Cole has. Some of the scaffolding has to do with those kinds of strategies. Larry exhibits different kinds of behaviors than Cole when he's reading. And just that alone will provide you with different scaffolding then and there. . . Well, for one thing, Larry seems much more aware of what he does and really wants to improve. Cole oftentimes seems very unaware or he'll be aware for a very short time and then he like doesn't care anymore. Very inconsistent. Have it for a while and then won't have it. Have it for a while and then won't have it. Whereas, Larry isn't like that. (Interview, August 4, 2011)

Jane's scaffolding depended on the student and what strategies the student used when reading. Jane attributed success in reading to the proficient reading behaviors the student displayed, affirming that these constituted strengths (Artifact, May 6, 2011). Jane also strived to notice these positive behaviors and explicitly name them for the student. Jane said, "I try to pick out something that I'm noticing they're doing, so they'll keep doing

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that" (Interview, August 4, 2011). By acknowledging these strengths, Jane hoped the

students continued to exhibit these qualities. Jane stated:

> If I notice they're doing something well that they've been working on, I
> try to compliment that. If they're not doing well what they've been
> working on, I try to figure out some angle to attack that again or to talk
> about that in a different way. (Interview, May 19, 2011)

Jane always discussed the students' needs as a reader, even when these reoccurred. She

stated, "I still try to make a teaching point, so they can carry on with that" (Interview,

August 4, 2011). When asked about how she determined, which needs to scaffold in the

moment, Jane asserted:

> You know, I always go for meaning. I go for the thing that's going to get
> them the biggest bang for the buck in their reading. And if they're not
> reading for meaning they've got to be doing that. If they're not looking,
> they've got to be doing that. If, like with Damion, if they're not fluent, if
> they're not phrasing, you've gotta be. . . you know. There's kind of a
> hierarchy and meaning is the most important thing. It doesn't mean I want
> them reading just anything that's on the page that makes sense. It's gotta
> make sense. What I really want them to realize is that it's all important,
> but you know. It's rare that a child isn't doing any of that. You know
> what I mean. It's rare that a child's not making sense and they're not
> looking and they're not. . . And they're not using their language. It's
> unusual that they're not doing any of that. (Interview, August 4, 2011)

Jane determined the scaffolding based on what the student did in that moment, with her

focus always on understanding the text first. Noticing and naming the students' needs

and strengths constituted a bulk of the conversations between Jane and the students.

Diagnosing these needs and strengths informed her scaffolding. To answer the two

supporting questions, data analysis revealed that Jane determined the kind and level of

scaffolding based on the students' strengths and needs. The kind and level of scaffolding

changed as the students displayed different strengths and needs with proficient reading.

To answer the primary question, for Jane the nature of scaffolding is diagnostic of student's strengths and needs.

Finding Three: Providing Lower-Level to Higher-Level Scaffolding

For Jane, the nature of scaffolding was based on her understanding of the qualities of proficient reading and her diagnoses of students' needs and strengths. But these were not the only components for how she determined the kinds and levels of scaffolds to provide her students. Another component of Jane's scaffolding was providing lower to higher scaffolds.

Jane described scaffolding as the support she provided or "the guiding part" (Interview, April 14, 2011). She felt she scaffolded by starting with the least amount of support and moving to more support based on the student's response to the scaffolding (Interview, May 19, 2011). She also referred to this as moving from general to higher-level scaffolding (Interview, May 12, 2011). Jane explained:

> So you just get more specific but you really want them [the students] to do the pecking and the hunting for it. Because then otherwise I'm always coming to their rescue. And I don't want to come in and rescue them right away. Sometimes it's just sitting there, watching them, ready to jump in if I have to, but trying to see them problem solve. (Interview, April 14, 2011)

Jane scaffolded the students to complete the reading task using lower scaffolds and moving to higher scaffolds as needed. However, in my observations, Jane did not always move in a sequential manner – from higher to lower. Her scaffolding decisions depended on her knowledge of the child's needs and strengths and her knowledge of proficient reading. She stated, "I choose my scaffolding depending on what I'm seeing. It really is a split second decision I make" (Interview, April 14, 2011). Jane scaffolded two key components: the students' oral reading and the students' comprehension.

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Oral Reading

During the reading conferences, Jane scaffolded the students' oral reading by addressing proficient reading qualities, such as the students needed to read the words the author wrote, to make sure the reading made sense, to make sure the reading sounded right syntactically, and to make sure the reading sounded fluent. Lower oral reading scaffolds included prompting the students to take action, prompting the students to reflect on their reading actions, and explicitly naming the students' strengths and needs. Lower scaffolds did not state the error specifically or show the student how to fix the error, but rather prompted the students to find their error and fix it. Naming the students' strengths and needs, also a lower scaffold, gave the students a target for future reading. Higher oral reading scaffolds included explicitly directing the students' attention to steps or strategies and telling or modeling an aspect of reading.

Read the words the author wrote. When Jane noticed a student was not reading the words on the page, she scaffolded first with a lower-level prompt. These prompts occurred when a student did not take the initiative to fix his/her error. These included:

- try it again (Field Notes, March 23, 2011; March 29, 2011),
- you're not quite right there (Field Notes, March 29, 2011),
- nearly right (Field Notes, March 29, 2011; Field Notes, April 4, 2011; Observation, April 18, 2011; Observation, May 10, 2011),
- read that again until you get only the words the author said (Field Notes, March 23, 2011),
- now something made sense, but didn't look right (Field Notes, March 23, 2011),
- do it again (Field Notes, March 23, 2011),
- look again (Field Notes, March 29, 2011; Observation, May 10, 2011; Observation, May 16, 2011),
- nearly (Field Notes, April 4, 2011; Observation & Artifact, April 18, 2011),
- read it again (Observation, April 18, 2011),
- I want you to go back and read that sentence again (Observation, April 18, 2011),
- look closer (Observation, May 10, 2011),

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- look (Observation, May 10, 2011),
- almost (Observation, May 10, 2011),
- you're not looking (Observation, May 10, 2011),
- no, go back to the beginning of that sentence (Observation, May 16, 2011), and
- read what's only there (Observation, August 1, 2011).

Jane usually scaffolded with the least amount of support first. These simple statements prompted the students to take action by rereading. Jane stated, "Reread and think about what it means. That's where I'd like them to go first. I just read somewhere in research that the number one strategy that helps you the most is rereading. I always think if you're going to struggle, okay, what can you go to first?" (Interview, May 2, 2011). On different occasions (Field Notes, March 23, 2001; Field Notes, March 29, 2011; Field Notes, April 4, 2011; Observation, April 18, 2011; Observation, May 10, 2011; Observation, May 16, 2011; Observation, August 1, 2011), these simple statements prompted the students to reread and resulted in accurate reading. Sometimes these lower-level scaffolds did not result in accurate reading. In these instances, Jane provided higher-level scaffolds. For example, when Jane conferenced with Cole on May 10, 2011, he failed to fix an error.

> Cole: [Read] "Where we lived, in the Bronicks, New York" [for the word Bronx]
> Jane: Look closer.
> Cole: [Reread] "Bur on. Bron, New York."
> Jane: Honey, what would this word be? [Wrote axe]
> Cole: Act. Axe.
> Jane: What would that word be? [Motioned to Bronx]
> Cole: Bron. That's axe.
> Jane: And what sound does 'x' make here? [Motioned to axe]
> Cole: [Reread] "Bronx, New York."
> Jane: Mmm-hmm.

Jane began with a lower-level prompt, "Look closer." Then she shifted to a higher-level of scaffolding when Cole struggled with identifying Bronx by directing Cole's attention

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to the sound 'x' made in an analogy word, axe. This proved to be effective when Cole

identified Bronx. Another time Sarah struggled with looking carefully when she read.

> Sarah: [Read] "On Tuesday Jacob and I called out, 'Babe Ruth collapsed!
> Read all about it!'" [Text said, "On Tuesday Jacob and I called
> out, 'Babe Ruth collapses! Read all about it!'"]
> Jane: Look again.
> Sarah: [Reread] "On Tuesday Jacob and I called out, 'Babe Ruth
> collapsed!'"
> Jane: Almost.
> Sarah: "collapse"
> Jane: "collapses" (Observation, May 10, 2011)

In this situation, Jane began by use a lower-level scaffold, "Look again." However,

Sarah struggled with identifying the word collapses, saying collapsed and collapse

instead. Jane decided to tell Sarah the word, moving from a lower-level scaffold to a

higher-level scaffold, telling the word. When writing Sarah's intervention update on May

14, 2011, Jane wrote, "She [Sarah] has had trouble reading what is on the page". On

occasion, Jane did not begin with the least amount of support. The following conference

with Cole displayed higher-level scaffolding:

> Cole: [Read] "temperatures and light" [Text said, "temperature and
> light"]
> Jane: Okay, you're looking really carefully and really slowing down. I
> need you to watch your final s's. You're putting s's on that don't
> belong. So read that again and make sure you're not putting s's
> where they don't belong.
> Cole: [Reread] "temperatures and light" [Text said, "temperature and
> light"]
> Jane: Is it temperatures and light or temperature and light?
> Cole: Temperature and light.
> Jane: Okay. Did you know you said temperatures and light?
> Cole: Yah.
> Jane: It sounded to me like twice that you did that, so be careful not to. . .
> So what do you think is a tricky part for you in words?
> Cole: s
> Jane: That are at the . . .
> Cole: end.
> Jane: Yah, so endings are kind of tricky for you, so now that you're

slowing down make sure you're paying attention to that tricky part. (Observation, May 16, 2011)

In this instance, Jane began with higher-level scaffolding by drawing Cole's attention to the endings of words. Then she prompted him to reread, directing his attention to the endings of words. When this did not result in accurate reading, Jane chose to use specific scaffolding, giving Cole two choices. He correctly identified the word "temperature" then.

In all these instances, Jane's goal for the students involved reading the words the author placed on the page. Her scaffolding typically began with a lower-level prompt that encouraged the students to take action and look more carefully at the words on the page. Occasionally, this did not result in accurate reading, in which case, Jane provided higher-levels of scaffolding to support the student's identification of the word. This included directing the student's attention to an analogy word or to a specific part of the word. The most specific scaffold included telling the student the word on the page.

Make sure the reading made sense. When Jane noticed a student read a word that did not make sense, signifying it changed the meaning of the text, she prompted them to take action; thus, she provided a lower-level scaffold. Some of the lower-level prompts she used first were:

- Can you try the sentence again? It didn't make sense to me (Field Notes, March 23, 2011).
- Did it all make sense to you (Field Notes, March 28, 2011)?
- Does that bother you (Observation, April 6, 2011)?
- I'm glad you stopped. I wish you wouldn't have gone on, though (Observation, April 12, 2011).
- I thought you were going to do something (Observation, May 2, 2011).
- That doesn't make sense, what you read (Observation, May 16, 2011).

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Many of these lower-level prompts resulted in the student rereading and fixing his/her

errors (Field Notes, March 23, 2011; Observation, April 6, 2011; Observation, May 16,

2011). On occasion, the student did not fix an error even after rereading. Jane then

provided higher-level scaffolds. For instance, Larry struggled with identifying the word

"fairies" in the book *Fireflies*. His conversation with Jane during a reading conference is

provided:

> Larry: [Read] "People in Europe thought they were fire eyes." [Paused,
>   then continued reading] "Native" [Text said, "People in Europe
>   thought they were fairies. Native Americans used. . ."]
> Jane: I'm glad you stopped. I wish you wouldn't have gone on, though.
> Larry: [Reread] "Fire – rees."
> Jane: Okay, reading always has to make. . .
> Larry: Sense.
> Jane: Okay. Have you learned anything about how words work that could
>   help you with that?
> Larry: [Reread] "Fuh – ri, fair, fire, fair ryes, fair why, fair why?"
> Jane: You're killing me here. You know that don't you? What's this
>   word? [Wrote sunny] I want you to get it. I don't want to tell you.
> Larry: Sunny
> Jane: Good. What sound does that make? [Motioned to the 'y' in sunny]
> Larry: 'e'
> Jane: Okay. [Wrote fair y]
> Larry: Fair y. Oh! "Fairies."
> Jane: Sometimes you have to use more than one word to help you with an
>   unknown word. Okay? But it always has to make . . .
> Larry: Sense.
> Jane: So you work at it until it does. (Observation, April 12, 2011)

In this example, Larry was unable to say a word that made sense in the sentence even

after Jane prompted him to take action by saying, "I'm glad you stopped. I wish you

wouldn't have gone on, though." Jane then told Larry that his reading always must make

sense. Her next prompt was higher level because it provided an action for Larry to take

beyond rereading, which included thinking of what he knew about words to help him

figure out the word 'fairies.' However, when this did not result in accurate identification

of the word, Jane provided a higher-level scaffold by showing Larry the word 'sunny' and directing his attention to the sound 'y' made at the end of the word. Once he identified this, Jane redirected his attention to the word fairies by writing the word 'fairy' in two syllables. Jane's scaffolding became higher level during this reading conference based on Larry's need for support. However, Jane did not tell him the word 'fairies' but provided enough scaffolding that Larry identified it on his own. Following this, she relayed to Larry what readers do – they always make sure their reading makes sense and they work at it until it does. Thus, she explicitly named his need as a reader to encourage that he continued doing this. Jane also gave Larry a strategy he could use – use more than one word to help with an unrecognizable word.

Jane's scaffolding proved to be effective because Larry showed progress over the course of the intervention in monitoring his understanding of his reading. In the beginning, Jane wrote, "He [Larry] also does not read for meaning all of the time as his substitutions don't always make sense" (Artifact, April 7, 2011). By May, Jane noticed a change in Larry. On May 6, 2011, Jane wrote in Larry's intervention update: "On cold text [new text for Larry], he is self-monitoring for meaning with little to no scaffolding." On May 22, 2011, Jane noted that Larry was "now self-monitoring his reading for meaning." Jane's scaffolding enabled Larry to become proficient in self-monitoring his reading. When I discussed Larry's progress with Jane, she said, "Something clicked for him. . . Part of it was making him look better. Slowing him down, I think that was part of it. . . Also, he's a little go-getter and he's not afraid" (Interview, May 19, 2011). Jane attributed Larry's change to the scaffolding she provided and the expectations she held for him and to his personality, being a go-getter.

Stacey was another student who showed progress in her reading. In the following

excerpt, Jane scaffolded Stacey when her error did not make sense. The difference in this

scaffolding was that Stacey knew her reading of *Behind the Scenes at the Zoo* did not

make sense, but needed more support in fixing her error. Their conversation follows:

> Stacey: [Read] "These sensors tiger a computer program. These sensors
> tigers a computer program." [The text said, "These sensors trigger
> a computer program."]
> Jane: Okay, now, you've stopped there twice, haven't you? Why?
> Stacey: It doesn't sound right.
> Jane: Well, it doesn't make sense. Where does it stop making sense?
> Stacey: [Pointed to the word "trigger"]
> Jane: Yah, so when if doesn't make sense, what do you have to do?
> Stacey: Reread.
> Jane: It looks like tiger. Is it tiger?
> Stacey: [Reread] "Trigger"
> Jane: Yah, so now read it thinking about that.
> Stacey: [Reread correctly]
> Jane: Does that make more sense?
> Stacey: [Nodded] (Observation, May 16, 2011)

Jane noticed Stacey's struggle with the word 'trigger' and prompted her to reflect on why

she stopped twice when reading. This scaffolding was lower-level in that Jane did not

identify the error; she just prompted Stacey to reflect. After Jane prompted Stacey to

reflect, she prompted her to take action to identify where in the text it stopped making

sense. Though this was a lower-level scaffold, Jane provided higher-level support to

Stacey by supplying a step proficient readers use to fix their errors. Proficient readers

begin by identifying where the confusion occurred in the text. The next step involved

rereading. Instead of telling Stacey to reread, Jane prompted her to reflect on what

readers do. Then Jane provided a higher-level scaffold by drawing Stacey's attention to

the visual aspect of the word when she stated, "It looks like tiger. Is it tiger?" Stacey

immediately said, "Trigger," showing she was looking more carefully. After Stacey

reread the sentence, Jane asked if her reading made more sense, signaling that the

purpose of rereading and fixing her error was to understand the text. At the end of the

conference, Jane stated, "Always read for meaning. You did the right thing to stop and

think twice. Then to fix it. Good girl" (Observation, May 16, 2011). Jane explicitly

named what proficient readers do, thus encouraging Stacey to always read for meaning.

When writing her last intervention update for Stacey, Jane noted, "She is now self-

monitoring when she reads" (Artifact, May 22, 2011). Stacey showed growth in her self-

monitoring over the course of the intervention. On May 12, 2011, Jane spoke about

Stacey's progress: "She is doing really well. . . I think with Stacey growing like she did,

that's gotta come partially from extended day [the intervention after school]." Stacey

began the spring portion of the intervention reading at a level N [third grade reading

level] and ended the spring portion of the intervention reading at a level R [fourth grade

reading level]. Jane attributed part of Stacey's success to the intervention she provided.

When Jane conducted a running record, she did not interrupt the oral reading to

scaffold, but used the running record as an assessment tool to see what the student did

without support. Jane waited until the end of the running record to scaffold the student's

oral reading. On one occasion, Damion read *Fire on the Mountain* while Jane conducted

a running record. Damion made multiple errors that did not make sense. Jane scaffolded

Damion's oral reading in this way:

> Damion: [Read aloud for the running record]
> Jane: Okay.
> Damion: I noticed that I skipped a few words.
> Jane: Why didn't you fix them?
> Damion: I went back.
> Jane: You did, some. Alright. I noticed a few things, too, this time. You
>   noticed you skipped a few words and went back. What else did
>   you notice?

Damion: That I made up some words on accident.

Jane: Were they on accident? What do you mean, like show me. What do you mean?

Damion: Mmm.

Jane: Are you saying you made it up or you didn't know what it meant?

Damion: With 'do not' I accidentally made it 'don't'.

Jane: Oh, okay. I get that. I understand what you're saying, but you caught that didn't you?

Damion: Mmm-hmm.

Jane: Yah. Well, I'm going to tell you why I asked you this because I noticed some of your things didn't make sense. And usually you read and it always makes sense, but it didn't make sense. And you didn't seem to fix it, so I was wondering about that.

Damion: Mmm.

Jane: The number one thing is it has to make sense. Can I show you a couple places?

Damion: Probably here.

Jane: Why are you saying that? Are you just guessing?

Damion: Yah.

Jane: Here, let me know show you. I'll show you just two places and it was right at the beginning. Later on it's like pretty good.

Damion: A couple.

Jane: Yah, there were like three times actually. Let me show you because it's really important if your reading doesn't make sense you have to. What do you have to do?

Damion: Go back.

Jane: You have to do something about it and you didn't and that concerns me just a little bit. You said, "I *learned* against my mule." [Emphasized 'learned']

Damion: 'Leaned'.

Jane: Yah, I know you're saying that now, but you were okay with that and it didn't seem to bother you.

Damion: I forgot.

Jane: Now it's not about forgetting, it's about thinking as you read. And then over here you said, "If well see you."

Damion: It's supposed to be 'we'll'.

Jane: 'We'll' and you didn't fix it and what you said didn't make sense. And this book was a little bit tougher and it was meant to be, but even when books are a little tougher, you have to make it make . . .

Damion: Sense.

Jane: Sense. So when you're rereading, I want you to reread this page and I want you to make it make sense and if there are any other pages that didn't make sense. . .

Damion: Read it out loud or in . . .

Jane: No, in your head, but it has to make sense whether it's out loud or in your head. (Observation, May 9, 2011)

Jane began the scaffolding by prompting Damion to reflect on his oral reading. Then she scaffolded by stating what Damion needed to do as a reader – make sure his reading made sense and fix it when it did not. After this, Jane directed Damion's attention to a couple of places where what he read did not make sense. When she read aloud, Damion immediately fixed his errors. Jane ended the conference by reminding Damion that his reading had to make sense. Jane began with a lower-level scaffold, having Damion reflect on his reading and naming what he needed to do as a reader. Then she shifted to higher-level scaffolding by directing his attention to two places in the text where he made errors.

Jane chose to scaffold the meaning of text when the students made errors that impacted their understanding of the book. She typically began with a lower-level prompt that resulted in the students correcting their errors by rereading. However, on several occasions, Jane provided lower-level scaffolds and higher-level scaffolds because the students needed more support. Her higher-level scaffolds included directing the students' attention to a word or to the way they read the text.

Make sure the reading sounded right syntactically. On occasion the words the students read did not sound right syntactically, meaning the words they read did not sound the way English sounds. When this happened, Jane used a lower-level prompt to encourage the student to take action: "Go back to where it wasn't sounding right" (Observation, April 12, 2011). This did not occur often. On one occasion, Larry made two errors in a row that impacted the way the text sounded.

> Larry: [Read] "Like all beetles, fireflies, firefly" [Text said, "Like all
>   beetles, a firefly has two pairs of wings."]
> Jane: Go back to where it wasn't sounding right . . . and looking right.

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Larry: Fireflies doesn't look right.
Jane: Uh-uh. So go back to just before that so it all makes sense.
Larry: [Reread] "Like all beetles, a firefly has two pairs of wings."
         (Observation, April 12, 2011)

When Larry first read this sentence, he omitted the word 'a' and changed the word

'firefly' to the word 'fireflies'. Then he fixed the word 'fireflies' by saying 'firefly'.

However, he did not reread and add the word 'a' which he had omitted. Thus, Jane

prompted him to take action by saying, "Go back to where it wasn't sounding right".

Larry immediately identified the word 'fireflies' as his error. Jane again prompted him to

take action. While he reread, he fixed his error. This form of scaffolding included lower-

level statements to prompt Larry to take action to make his reading sound right. On one

other occasion, Jane scaffolded Sarah when her reading of *Fireflies* did not sound right:

Sarah: [Read] "They eat grow, and eat the growth, and eat grow" [The
         text said, "They eat and grow, and eat and grow some more."]
Jane: [Interrupted Sarah's reading] Tell me about your reading.
Sarah: I'm not reading . . . I'm skipping words.
Jane: You are. You're skipping words. And how could you tell that?
Sarah: I keep on skipping and going back. . .
Jane: [Interrupted Sarah] It didn't sound smooth. . .
Sarah: It didn't sound right.
Jane: Yah, I was waiting for you to say that. It didn't sound right. Any
         time that happens, knowing yourself as a reader, you say to
         yourself, "Oh, I'm probably skipping words. That doesn't sound
         right." So go back and fix it. I'd go back and reread. That's the
         number one thing I always do. Where do you think you should go
         back to? Where did it not start sounding good to you?
Sarah: [Pointed]
Jane: Then that's where I'd go back to.
Sarah: [Reread] "They eat and grow, and eat and grow some more."
         (Observation, April 12, 2011)

When Sarah's reading did not sound right, Jane immediately stopped her and prompted

her to reflect. This constituted a lower-level scaffold. Then Jane provided a higher-level

scaffold when she specifically explained what readers do when their reading does not

sound right – they reread. After saying this, Jane prompted Sarah to identify where she

needed to reread. Sarah identified this place and reread accurately. Jane ended the conference by restating what Sarah needed to do when she read: "So you know when things don't start sounding good to you, you need to go back and reread" (Observation, April 12, 2011). Jane's interactions with Sarah showed lower scaffolding predominately. Jane did not fix Sarah's error or show her where her error occurred. She did prompt Sarah to reflect and stated explicitly what readers do when their reading does not sound right, even ending the conference with that reminder.

Although this kind of scaffolding did not occur as often as the previous two, Jane did want the students to make sure their reading sounded right. When it did not sound right, Jane prompted the students to take action or to reflect first with a lower-level scaffold. Then she provided higher-level scaffolding if the students did not correct their error by explicitly naming the student's needs as a reader.

Make sure the reading sounded fluent. Jane scaffolded fluent reading at the beginning of the intervention. As the intervention progressed, Jane noticed that the five students were fluent in her anecdotal notes and intervention updates (Artifact, May 4, 2011; May 10, 2011; May 14, 2011; May 16, 2011; May 22, 2011). Thus, few instances of this type of scaffolding occurred later in the intervention. In the beginning of the intervention, Jane scaffolded the students to read fluently. Some lower-level prompts she used:

- Read that one more time and try to put those words together (Field notes, March 29, 2011).
- Stop. Do you know why I said, "Stop" (Field notes, March 30, 2011)?
- I'm going to stop you and why am I going to stop you? (Observation, April 12, 2011)

Jane wanted the students' reading to sound fluent. For this reason, she scaffolded with lower-level prompts. Often, these prompts led to a further explanation. However, when Jane first encountered a child who did not read fluently, her first scaffold was typically higher-level.

Early in the intervention, Damion had read slowly without phrasing. Jane provided a higher scaffold by modeling how to read fluently, thus directing Damion's attention to how fluent reading sounds and explicitly naming that he needed to read this way (Field notes, March 29, 2011). The following day Damion read very fast during a running record of *Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day* and this is how Jane responded:

> Jane: Stop. Do you know why I said, "Stop"?
> Damion: I'm reading too fast.
> Jane: You're doing the complete opposite [compared to the last time he
>   read]. You're too fast. I know that's hard. You go fast and then
>   you skip words. You need to read in the middle. The author
>   writes really long sentences that stick together. Reread the page.
>   Look and slow down and look at the periods.
> Damion: [Reread a part.]
> Jane: I like what you're doing. Read with me. [Read a sentence
>   together.] What did you notice I did?
> Damion: Read at a medium speed.
> Jane: What did I do twice in the sentence?
> Damion: Stopped.
> Jane: Yes. That's called phrasing. It's not a quick run through the
>   sentence.
> Damoin: [Read]
> Jane: Could you tell the difference? You weren't too slow and you
>   weren't too fast. (Field notes, March 30, 2011)

Jane provided a lower-level scaffold by prompting Damion to reflect on why she stopped his oral reading. She began with this lower-level statement, but followed up with a higher scaffold, explicitly explaining what Damion's reading should sound like. When he reread, Jane noticed he slowed down, but he was not phrasing correctly. She then read

with him, which was a higher form of scaffolding. After this, Jane had Damion reflect on

what she did when she read with him. Jane called this phrasing. She had Damion read in

this way, concluding the conference by restating that he needed to read at a medium

speed. Thus, Jane began with a lower-level prompt and followed up with higher-level

scaffolding to foster fluent reading. Since Jane had scaffolded Damion's oral reading the

day before, she immediately provided a lower-level prompt to prompt him to reflect.

With Sarah, Jane scaffolded her fluent reading at a higher-level. Sarah read orally

and did not pause at periods. Jane scaffolded her oral reading in this way:

> Jane: I'm going to have you stop and tell you something your teacher may
> have told you already and maybe not. Let me show you
> something. [Read to her, pausing at periods] Why did I do that?
> To get the author's message. Watch for the periods and stop for a
> second.
> Sarah: [Read, pausing at periods]
> Jane: Do you think you did better? Tell your teacher you did a nice job
> with that. (Field notes, March 23, 2011)

Jane began with a higher-level scaffold by directing Sarah's attention to how fluent

reading should sound, specifically how proficient readers pause at punctuation. She

explained why and directed Sarah to pause at periods as she continued reading.

Jane scaffolded fluent reading from the first day of the intervention. By May, all

five students were reading fluently, as evidenced by Jane's anecdotal notes and

intervention updates. To foster this fluent reading, Jane began with higher-level scaffolds

by modeling and then expecting the student to read like she did. Sometimes she read

with the child and then expected the child to continue reading like that. Once Jane had

modeled fluent reading, she provided a lower level prompt in subsequent occurrences.

With Damion, she modeled fluent reading the first day he did not read fluently. When he

did not read fluently on subsequent days, she prompted him at a lower-level to reflect on

how his reading sounded. On some occasions, Jane explicitly told the child to slow down

(Field notes, March 23, 2011; Observation, April 12, 2011). Though her scaffolding did

not always begin with a lower-level prompt, Jane knew what each student needed in

regards to fluency. Her scaffolding proved successful because all five students read

fluently by May.

Summary. Jane scaffolded the students' oral reading by prompting the students

to take action or to reflect, by explicitly naming their needs and strengths as a reader, by

directing their attention to problem solving strategies or fluent reading, and by telling the

word in text. The highest level of scaffolding included telling the word or modeling how

to read fluently. Jane typically began with the lowest level of scaffolding – prompting

the students to take action or reflect first. When this did not result in accurate reading,

Jane provided higher-level scaffolding by supporting the students in using the steps

proficient readers use to read accurately. However, when Jane addressed fluent reading,

she began with higher-level scaffolds the first time she diagnosed it as the need of a

student.

Comprehension

During the text introductions, text discussions, and reading conferences, Jane

scaffolded the students' comprehension by addressing proficient reading qualities, such

as readers understand the information presented by the author, understand the author's

message, think deeply about the text, use text features and structure to assist with

understanding the author's message, and use background knowledge to understand the

text. Lower-level comprehension scaffolds included prompting the students to talk and

think about the text, prompting the students to take action, and restating in a more concise

anner what the child said. Higher-level comprehension scaffolds included directing the students' attention to the text, explicitly naming what proficient readers do to understand the text, and explaining an aspect of the text. Jane scaffolded the comprehension because she wanted the students to understand the text both at a surface level [a summary] and at a deeper level [author's message, purpose, lesson].

Understanding the information presented by the author. During reading conferences and text discussions, Jane prompted the students to discuss the book content. This entailed giving a surface level [a summary] description of the text. During reading conferences, Jane used these kinds of questions to prompt the students to talk about the book:

- What's going on? (Interview, May 12, 2011).
- What do you know? (Interview, May 12, 2011).
- What have you figured out so far? (Interview, May 12, 2011)
- What do you think so far? (Field notes, March 29, 2011)
- What have you learned so far? (Field notes, April 4, 2011)
- What have you noticed so far that's interesting? (Field notes, April 4, 2011)
- Can you tell me a little bit about what you've read so far? (Observation, May 4, 2011)

These lower-level scaffolds did not provide information about the book, but prompted the students to share their understanding of the text. As Jane listened to the students talk about the book, she scaffolded their understanding further if necessary.

Sometimes Jane began a reading conference by prompting the student to talk about the text. If the student displayed some confusions or misunderstandings about the text, Jane directed s/he to read that part of the text aloud to her. For instance, on May 10, 2011, Jane determined Sarah misunderstood a part of the text (Artifact, May 10, 2011; Interview, May 12, 2011).

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Jane: What have you found out so far in the book?

Sarah: When he found out that . . . there were these two boys and Jacob has a news job and so does the other boy. He got a job at the newsstand. He's been getting money for the family and he passed his dad selling apples.

Jane: Mmm. What did he think about that?

Sarah: He thought his dad was. . . he felt bad that he didn't give money to his dad.

Jane: Tell me about that. What makes you think that?

Sarah: Because he wanted to give the money to his dad for his family.

Jane: So did he feel bad about giving money or. . .

Sarah: He felt bad about not giving the money to his dad.

Jane: Who did he give the money to?

Sarah: A person selling apples.

Jane: Show me. Show me what makes you think that. What makes you think that in the story?

Sarah: [Found that part of text and read aloud]

Jane: So let's stop and think about what that means.

Sarah: He wanted to put it in the money jar.

Jane: Well, he knew that that dime had cost his dad a lot of work. Was he sorry that he hadn't given it to his dad for apples or that he had already spent it?

Sarah: Had already spent it.

Jane: So why were there tears in his eyes, you think?

Sarah: Because he was crying.

Jane: I know that. Why was he crying?

Sarah: Because he felt bad for spending the money.

Jane: He could have. Why else might he have thought that?

Sarah: Because his dad has no job and his family doesn't have a lot of money. (Observation, May 10, 2011)

Jane began the reading conference by prompting Sarah with, "What have you found out so far in the book?" Using Sarah's comment as a springboard, Jane probed her knowledge of the text with lower-level scaffolds, such as "What did he think about that" and "What makes you think that". This uncovered a misconception Sarah held about the book. When Jane discovered this misunderstanding, she directed Sarah to return to the text and read that part aloud. Thus, Jane shifted to a high-level scaffold when she directed Sarah to reread the part of the text where the confusion occurred. Higher-level scaffolding followed this reading as Jane probed Sarah to think about the meaning of the

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information in the text. Jane even explained a component of the text to help Sarah

understand the information presented in the book. As Jane determined that Sarah needed

more support, she scaffolded at a higher-level with prompts and explanations.

As the intervention progressed, the students knew that Jane expected them to

understand what they read and to identify areas of confusion to discuss. This was evident

when Jane sat down with Stacey to talk about the book *Fireflies*.

> Stacey: I understand it, but back here it seemed kind of confusing [showed
>   page where confused].
> Jane: Yah. Can I hear you read just a little? Let's go on that page there
>   and we'll see.
> Stacey: [Read]
> Jane: So, are you understanding all of that?
> Stacey: Yah.
> Jane: Okay. Keep going.
> Stacey: [Read] "genis" [Text said, "genes."]
> Jane: Okay. Have you ever seen this word before? That's genes.
> Stacey: "genes"
> Jane: Now they're not the kind of jeans you have on. Have you ever
>   heard of genes in your body? Cells and genes.
> Stacey: Yah.
> Jane: Yah. Okay, you know kind of what that means. Okay, so all of
>   these things have them, so they're talking about that. Your genes
>   are so tiny that they kind of make you, you. Don't they? Alright,
>   so that's what they're talking about. (Observation, April 12, 2011)

Stacey knew she did not understand a part of the reading and brought this to Jane's

attention at the beginning of the conference. Jane's scaffolding began with directing

Stacey to reread that part of the book that was confusing. As Stacey read, Jane stopped

her intermittently and prompted her to reflect on her understanding. When Jane

discovered that Stacey did not easily recognize the word 'genes', she chose to scaffold

the meaning of the word by first asking Stacey if she knew the word and then explaining

the meaning of the word. Thus, Jane used higher-level scaffolding when she identified

Stacey's confusion by explaining a component of the text.

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During text discussions, Jane began by prompting the students to talk about the

content of the book (Observation, April 6, 2011; Observation, August 1, 2011;

Observation, August 10, 2011), to talk about any confusing parts (Field notes, March 23,

2011; Field notes, April 13, 2011; Observation, May 17, 2011), or to talk about the

purpose she gave for reading (Field notes, March 22, 2011; Field notes, March 29, 2011;

Field notes, April 4, 2011; Observation, April 18, 2011; Observation, May 17, 2011).

Typically, these prompts addressed understanding the information presented in the book.

Jane used these prompts to begin the discussion and used subsequent prompts to guide

the students' understanding of the book. For instance, on April 6, 2011, Jane scaffolded

the students' understanding of the book *Knots on a Counting Rope* by beginning with a

lower-level content prompt and then providing higher-level prompts:

> Jane: Did you find anything in the book that was really interesting?
> Cole: When they get finished with all the knots on the rope, he should be
>   able to tell it to himself. . .
> Jane: Right.
> Cole: One day he's going to die and he won't have anyone to tell him.
> Jane: And that's important. Did you get the idea that that's why it was
>   called knots on a counting rope?
> Students: Yah!
> Stacey: He's tying them every time he finishes. [Indistinct]
> Jane: Yah, he kept saying he didn't want him to leave, but that's reality
>   isn't it? I'm thinking of other times like on this page here.
> Larry: He talked about a curtain of darkness.
> Jane: Exactly. That's what I want you to talk about. What does it mean
>   by a curtain of black?
> Larry: A kind of black, like real darkness, like a really dark blue.
> Jane: But what did he really mean by that?
> Larry: Because he can't see well.
> Jane: He can't see at all.

Jane began with a lower-level statement about the content of the book to encourage the

students to talk. Then she provided higher-level prompts to develop their thinking and

understanding of the book. On another occasion, Jane began the discussion of *Behind the*

Scenes at the Zoo by prompting the students to share any confusing parts and to share any

questions that were answered when they read (Observation, May 17, 2011). Their

purpose for reading had been: "I want you to read page 2 and 3 and then read to find

answers to the questions that the author's asking you. Plus you're probably going to have

your own questions that you want answers to" (Observation, May16, 2011). The next

day Jane discussed the book with the students and scaffolded their understanding:

> Jane: Let's talk a little about this book. Did you have questions that you
> found answers for or didn't find answers for? Did anybody have
> anything that you were like wondering about, like "I just didn't
> understand that"? So open your books and we'll answer just a few
> questions that you had because remember we said we were going
> to read to find answers to our . . .
> Larry: Questions.
> Jane: Questions. So let's just see. Sarah, what were you thinking?
> Sarah: Well, I thought maybe the author made a little error cause when
> the author said, "A lion. . ."
> Jane: Can you turn to the page and show us where you're thinking the
> way you're thinking? What page? It's good to wonder about the
> author. So you're wondering if the author made a mistake. So
> why do you think that, Sweetie?
> Sarah: Because a girl lion is actually called a lioness not lion.
> Jane: So show us where you're reading from.
> Sarah: [Reads aloud from page 14] "One of the lions roars loudly every
> time she sees me."
> Jane: [Reads sentence] So you're thinking it should say, "One of the
> lionesses roars loudly every time she sees me."
> Damion: I never heard of that.
> Jane: Yah. Female lions are called lionesses. Is there another reason why
> you think the author might have said one of the lions?
> Damion: Because that's what they're all called.
> Jane: Think more.
> Larry: There might be a boy.
> Jane: There might be boys mixed in with . . .
> Students: Girls.
> Jane: Girls. It could be that there are boys mixed in with girls and he's
> just calling them all or the author. . .
> Damion: He doesn't know that.
> Jane: Adrienne [author's name] is a girl I'm assuming. She was calling
> them all lions, but if she was talking about all females, you're
> absolutely correct. It's good, Sarah, to wonder, "Does this match

what I've read other places?" That's what readers do. It's called thinking critically about what you're reading and that's a really good thing to do. Good. I'm glad you brought that up.

Jane began with a lower-level prompt to talk about confusing parts or questions that were answered. When Sarah shared a confusing part, Jane scaffolded the students' thinking by directing them to the text, prompting them with higher-level questions to think about the text, and then explaining what the author probably meant in the text. To guide the students' understanding of the text, Jane provided a lower-level scaffold then moved to higher-level scaffolds as the need arose.

Jane scaffolded the students' understanding of the content of the book during reading conferences and text discussions. Lower-level scaffolds included prompting the students to think and talk about the text content. Higher-level scaffolds included directing the students' attention to specific aspects of the text and explicitly explaining the text. When scaffolding their understanding during a reading conference, Jane began by asking lower-level questions to elicit a retell of the text. During text discussions, Jane began by prompting the students to talk about the content of the book, the purpose they had for reading, or the parts that confused them. If the students identified a confusing part, Jane would scaffold their understanding by having them reread, discussing the difficult part with the students, and/or explaining the difficult part to the students.

Understanding the author's message. The author's message is often inferential and requires synthesizing ideas and text clues to grasp the 'big idea' that the author is communicating (Artifact, May 22, 2011). Jane scaffolded students' understanding of the author's message during text introductions, reading conferences, and text discussions. Earlier in this chapter, big idea, lesson learned, and theme were identified as ways to

grasp the author's message. For example, during a text discussion of *Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day*, Jane fostered the students' understanding of author's message by prompting them to think about a good lesson for Alexander to learn (Field notes, March 30, 2011). She said, "Lots of times authors want you to learn a lesson or get a message." The students shared a variety of lessons. To probe their thinking, Jane responded to the students' lessons by saying, "Tell me more," or "What parts did you notice him being greedy?" or "Where in the text could he problem solve?" These constituted lower-level scaffolds because Jane prompted the students to explain their thinking or to locate the part of the text that supported their thinking. During a reading conference on April 6, 2011, Jane prompted Cole to identify the author's message in *Knots on a Counting Rope* by saying, "What does that mean at the end do you think? What do you think the author is telling you at the end?" This was a lower-level scaffold, intended to probe Cole to think beyond the text to the author's intent. Cole responded, "It doesn't matter if you're blind or not, you're still – you can always be strong." Jane acknowledged this answer by saying, "Okay, that's one message. You're right. There's lots of messages in here." In this instance, Jane probed Cole beyond a surface understanding of the text to grasping the author's message. She used a lower-level scaffold to accomplish this. During a text discussion about *Chocolate Wasn't Always This Sweet*, Jane probed the students to think about the author's message. The discussion follows:

> Jane: But going back to all the complicated stuff. Is it important in your
>   reading to memorize all the different steps? Is that what . . . what
>   is it you're wanting to know?
> Larry: All of the important. . .
> Jane: Some of the important stuff – the important steps, but what is the
>   important thing to remember from what you just read.

> Larry: Don't take chocolate for granted.
> Jane: Tell me more about that, Larry.
> Larry: Because some people eat too much chocolate.
> Jane: Yah, but why did you say don't take it for granted?
> Larry: Um, because it's hard to make.
> Jane: It is hard to make and somebody had to go through a lot of work. A
> lot of steps. (Observation, August 1, 2011)

Through Jane's probing, Larry identified one of the author's messages, "Don't take chocolate for granted". Jane used lower-level scaffolds to prompt Larry to think about the text in a deeper way. At the end of this excerpt, Jane provided a specific scaffold by explaining how the text supported the message Larry named.

On a few occasions, Jane provided a text introduction that prompted the students to find information in the text that supported the author's message. For instance, in her lesson notes for *Fireflies*, Jane wrote, "Read to find out. . . how they [fireflies] can be helpful to people" (Artifact, April 12, 2011). In her actual text introduction for *Fireflies*, Jane stated:

> Scientists are studying them because actually fireflies can be helpful. And
> so the author is going to talk about how the fireflies are helpful to us. And
> then at the very end like authors often do they talk a little bit about trying
> to protect them because we know too often that things in nature are
> starting to become endangered or we start hurting them through the
> environment, so the author will talk a little about that. You know the
> author cares about fireflies. That's why the author wrote this.
> (Observation, April 12, 2011)

Jane provided a specific scaffold by explicitly identifying and explaining two of the author's messages: fireflies can be helpful to people and people need to protect fireflies. The following day the students' discussion and writing prompt was "Fireflies are an important part of our world. Explain why" (Artifact, April 13, 2011). Jane prompted the students to write about the importance of fireflies – one of the author's messages. Thus, her introduction included a specific scaffold where Jane explained the author's message.

A similar occurrence happened on May 2, 2011, when Jane introduced the book *Science at the Park*. Jane stated, "So what you're going to do is you're going to read to find out what the author means when she says, 'A park is an outdoor science museum'" (Observation, May 2, 2011). One message in this book was that a park is an outdoor science museum. Jane identified this message specifically for the students before they began reading and directed them to find out why the author said this. The following day Jane prompted the students to write, "Why do you think the author wrote this book? Explain" (Artifact, May 3, 2011). When discussing the writing prompt, Jane said:

> I want you to be thinking about why the author wrote the book. What message or messages do you think the author wanted you to get? Now there's no one right answer, but you have to be able to go back to the book and support your answer. (Observation, May 3, 2011)

Jane provided higher-level support in her text introduction about the author's message to prepare the students for their writing.

Jane scaffolded the students' understanding of the author's message during text introductions, text discussions, and reading conferences. Lower-level scaffolds included prompting the students to think and talk about the author's message and prompting the student to locate information in the text that supported the author's message. Specific scaffolds included explicitly telling the students one or more of the author's messages and explaining to the students the significance of the message.

Thinking deeply about the text. Jane wanted the students to be able to think beyond a surface level [summary of text] to the deeper purpose of the text (Observation, June 22, 2011). Jane probed the students to think deeply about the text during reading conferences and text discussions. Lower-level support included general prompts, such as questions, statements, and hanging statements, meant to probe the students to think

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deeper about the text. These prompts often steered the students to make an inference about the text or to think of their opinion related to the text. Jane used these prompts to "get them to infer" because she did not "want to tell them. . . the answer" (Interview, April 18, 2011). However, she did say, "If I have to, I will, but if it's that important". Jane also restated what the students said in a more concise way. When providing specific scaffolds, Jane directed the students' attention to specific places in the text where they could make an inference or form an opinion, named specific steps proficient readers take to understand the text, and explained the deeper meaning of the text to the students.

Often Jane provided a discussion and writing prompt meant to probe the students to think about the text in a deeper way, beyond surface level understanding. For instance, Jane chose the following prompt for *A Day in the Life of a Vet*: "What kind of vet would you like to be? Why?" (Field notes, March 28, 2011). This prompt pushed the students to think deeper about the book, going beyond the text information to form their own opinion about the content of the book. When scaffolding the students' thinking about this prompt, Jane provided steps they should take:

> Jane: You need your vet book to help with writing. What kind of vet would you like to be? Why? Something from the book should give you reasons why. Think in your head. Then turn to that section in your book. You should have at least two reasons why.
> Student 1: Zoo vets because there are different kinds. Some are from Africa.
> Jane: What else? Think about it.
> Student 2: I want to be a zoo vet. There are different kinds and they're all over. They work with African cats.
> Jane: They are all over. In particular, wild cats are a passion for you.
> Student 3: I want to be a zoo vet. I like reptiles. I am tall and I'm better with tall animals. (Field notes, March 28, 2011)

Jane prompted the students to think of the vet they would like to be and then directed them to use the text to support why they wanted to be that kind of vet. Thus, she

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provided a higher-level scaffold by giving them steps to follow: 1. Think of the vet you would like to be. 2. Turn to that place in the book. 3. Find two reasons why you would want to be that vet. During this excerpt, Jane also restated a child's reason in a more concise way when she said, "In particular, wild cats are a passion for you." Jane wanted the students to think beyond the facts about the four different vets to think about reasons why they would select one vet over the other.

Sometimes Jane used the students' comments to springboard into a deeper discussion. When discussing *Fire on the Mountain*, Jane scaffolded by prompting the students to think beyond the surface level of the book, by directing their attention to the text, by restated the child's words in a more concise way, and by explaining the text.

> Jane: Was there something in the story that was confusing for you or you didn't quite understand? Something that maybe you're still wondering about that we can have a conversation about. Yes, Cole?
> Cole: I was wondering why the rich man was being so bossy to Alemayu because he was telling him that he was stronger than a lion and that he spent the night up in the mountains.
> Jane: Okay, let's turn to that page. Okay, like Cole, if I get you right, you are wondering why in the heck that conversation even started.
> Okay, let's turn to that page. This page right here. Where he comes home angry one day. Page 18. Why was the man so grouchy anyway? Why did he come home. . .
> Cole: Somebody insulted him.
> Jane: Somebody insulted him and how did they insult him?
> Sarah: They told him he wasn't brave or strong.
> Larry: That he was an old man.
> Jane: Let's go back and look. [Rereads text at bottom of page 16] Then he tells them a story and all of the servants are very quiet. Why do you think the servants are very quiet?
> Damion: Probably because they don't want to lose their job.
> Jane: Yah, because what would happen? What do they know about their master?
> Damion: That he will either never let them in the house ever again or he will. . .
> Jane: How about all the servants? Like no servant is saying anything back. The only one who is saying something is Alemayu.

Damion: They're afraid they're going to lose their job because they'll get
    fired right away if they say something about the master.
Jane: Because what do we know about the master. What kind of a person
    is he, Stacey, besides that? Being a rich man would have nothing
    to do with them losing their job. Cole, what do we know about
    him as a person?
Cole: He's a – might be rich, but he's rude to his servants even though
    they won't talk. Cause by the end, Alemayu stayed with the cows
    but the servants say what's wrong about seeing a fire and that
    warms you.
Jane: Okay, so you've got a couple of thoughts going there. This is what
    we know about the guy. We know he's filthy rich. We know that
    he's not so nice to his servants. He threatens them by, "I'm going
    to fire you. I'm going to take your job away. You won't have any
    food." He also has a temper. We know that he has a temper. And
    then Cole just said he doesn't always keep his promise, does he?
    At the very end, he wasn't going to give Alemayu his cows . . .
Cole: Or the money.
Jane: Or the money. So let's talk about that. So you think other people in
    the village know that about this man, too?
Students: Yah.
Jane: Do you think he's a very nice man?
Larry: No. Low self-esteem. Angry, old man.
Jane: Do you think he has low self-esteem? He might, I don't know. I'm
    not sure he has low. Maybe he does. Maybe he's wondering.
    Maybe he brags a lot and expects people to build up his self-
    esteem by saying nice things. Sarah, what do you want to say?
Sarah: He's kind of selfish. He really only thinks about himself.
Larry: Yah, he doesn't really care what other people think. He knows
    what other people should think about him.
Jane: He does care about what other people think about him. We know
    that, don't we? It does matter to him. But you know what, Larry,
    maybe he does have low self-esteem. Maybe it bothers him when
    people don't say nice things about him. But his servants know
    they better not say anything because they could get in biiiiigggg
    trouble. So let's go to the other part Cole was talking about. You
    remember when he went back on his word and he didn't want to
    give Alemayu the things he had promised him. Why didn't he want
    to do that? Larry, what do you want to say about that?
Larry: Because he doesn't want to give any of his money and the cows
    away because the cows are some of his food and his money was
    keeping the servants. (Observation, May 9, 2011)

Jane began this discussion with a lower-level prompt for the students to share their

confusions or wonderings about the book. This led to a deeper conversation. Jane

moved to a higher-level scaffold by directing the students to a page in the text and

rereading this page to them. Then she probed the students to think about this page, using

inferential questions about why the servants were quiet and what the rich man was like.

After the discussion developed about the rich man, Jane restated in a concise way all the

comments the students made. At different points throughout the discussion, Jane also

added her own thoughts about the book. Hence, her scaffolding moved from lower-level

prompts to think deeply to higher-level prompts about the text. She also provided higher-

level scaffolds by explaining the text to the students. When I asked Jane about this

scaffolding, she said:

> There was a lot of inferencing they had to do there and I think a little bit
> harder text as well. So I wanted to make sure that they had gotten some of
> that. I was happy that I had gone ahead and used that text. I think every
> now and then they need that kind of a challenge, but I thought the
> conversation went okay. (Interview, May 12, 2011)

Jane wanted the students to understand this book in a deeper way, beyond naming the

events and characters. She scaffolded the students to make inferences about the book.

During a reading conference about *The Babe and I*, Jane scaffolded Larry's

understanding by prompting him to make inferences about the book. An excerpt from

this conversation follows:

> Larry: [Read aloud – read about boy getting arrested so he could go to jail
> and get something to eat] They make it real salty [the food in jail].
> Jane: They do?
> Larry: I think so.
> Jane: What do you think about that idea of getting arrested on purpose so
> you could have food?
> Larry: He isn't going to stay in there long.
> Jane: But I'm going to ask you what does that tell you about the times
> they were living in?
> Larry: It was really hard.
> Jane: Really hard. He must've been really hungry to want to go to jail to
> eat, right?

Larry: Oh, yah. (May 10, 2011)

Jane prompted Larry to think beyond the information in the text, that a boy purposely got arrested to go to jail and get something to eat. She fostered this deeper thinking by providing a lower-level prompt first: "What do you think about that idea of getting arrested on purpose so you could have food?" When this did not result in deeper thinking, Jane prompted Larry with a higher-level prompt: "But I'm going to ask you what does that tell you about the times they were living in?" This specific prompt resulted in Larry making an inference about the time period of the book. Thus, Jane shifted from a lower-level prompt to a higher-level prompt when she realized Larry needed a higher-level prompt to make an inference about the text.

Jane used lower-level prompts to engage the students in thinking about the text. She used specific prompts about the text to probe the students' thinking to a deeper level. She restated the students' thinking in concise words. She also directed the students' attention to the text both at a lower level, by referring them to the book, and at a higher level, by showing them where to look in the book and rereading that portion to them. She provided more support when she explained the text to the students. Fostering this deeper thinking occurred during reading conferences and text discussions.

Using text features and structure to assist with understanding the author's message. Jane scaffolded the students' use of text features and structure during text introductions and reading conferences. Jane scaffolded by prompting the students to use the features and structure, by directing their attention to the features and structure, and by explaining the features and structure. For instance, when Jane introduced the book *Knots on a Counting Rope*, she read the first page to the students, asking them to notice what

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made the book different from other books. Basically, she directed their attention to noticing the structure of the text. After this, she explained the structure to the students, providing another specific scaffold. Without this support, the students may not have understood the structure of the book, which would have impacted their understanding of the story (Observation, April 6, 2011).

Another similar instance occurred during Jane's nonfiction text introduction on April 12, 2011. Jane explained the text structure to students because the book *Fireflies* lacked headings. Her introduction to the students is provided:

> Jane: This is a little bit more challenging, not too much more challenging, but a little bit more challenging and I'm going to explain why. Do you remember the last time we read *Gross Out* and the author gave us chapters? Okay. And one of the chapters was about birds and one was about reptiles and amphibians and one was about creepy crawlers. Well, look at the book. Look at the book in front of you.
>
> Damion: There's no chapters.
>
> Jane: There's no chapters. And there's no headings. And I'm going to – today to get you going, I'm going to do what you'll have to do for yourself lots of times. You'll have to kind of look at the book and get yourself – okay, this is way the author organized the book because if you know the way the author organized the book it will help you understand it better. So follow along with me, you just look on mine, okay. [Students look at Jane's copy of the book while she flips through it.] The author at the beginning is going to tell you the different beliefs people used to have about fireflies. For many years they had lots of different beliefs about fireflies. Then the author is going to talk to you about how the firefly looks and the different kinds there are. Then the author is going to talk to you about what makes a firefly . . .
>
> Students: Light up.
>
> Jane: Yes. And he's going to talk about some special glow chemicals and he's going to call those special glow chemicals ATP. He's going to explain that to you and he's going to give you some interesting facts about that. This is all about glowing still. They're going to talk about why they glow. Then they're going to talk about . . .
>
> Damion: How they're born.
>
> Jane: How they reproduce – how the life cycle of them and what they look like. Alright? So you're going to see some parts about that.

What can help you with that? What helps you to know what the
author is telling you?

Stacey: That they hide . . .

Jane: What is helping you? What is helping me to tell you what this is
about?

Damion: The pictures. (Observation, April 12, 2011)

During this introduction, Jane told the students that readers peruse a book before they

read it to familiarize themselves with how it is organized. Then Jane scaffolded the

students' understanding of text structure by modeling how to identify the structure of

Fireflies. She also scaffolded the students' understanding of the structure of *Fireflies* by

explaining the content of each part. Toward the end of this excerpt, Jane prompted the

students to identify the structure as she flipped further into the book. Finally, she

prompted them to state how to determine the structure of a text that lacked headings.

Jane provided specific scaffolding through her explanation and her modeling. In an

interview, I asked Jane about her scaffolding during this text introduction. She replied:

> I see that talking about structure and layout as part of the scaffolding thing
> because everything I've read recently, in Dorn, she talks about the three
> things that help kids with their reading comprehension are strategies,
> structure of the text, and vocabulary. (Interview, April 14, 2011)

Thus, Jane felt it imperative to explain the text structure. She determined that the

students in her intervention needed the structure explained in order to understand the text.

Later in the intervention, Jane introduced the book *Science at the Park* by

explaining the structure and features that made the book a bit different from other

nonfiction books.

Jane: One of the things that I want to show you in this book, but you've
probably already noticed it. But the author helps you a lot in this
book. For one thing, the author gives you a nice introduction and
I'm going to read that introduction real quickly. Then the author
also gives you on each chapter a title or a heading, and then it
gives you a little question or sentence to help you get focused. Let
me just show you one. [Read aloud the introduction.] "In fact, if

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you lean back just a little, you can. . .” So this is what he [the author] puts in there for you, watch. He leads you into the next thing [page] by this little part down here, so don't skip it. Notice there's another one. He leads you into the next page. Don't skip it. Okay. Watch up here. "Nature's Tallest Plants." Notice how he gets you ready. Then he says, "Take a timeout under a tree." And then he gives you a question. "It just stays in one place growing tall, what good is a kite eating tree anyway?" What am I going to learn on this page, Stacey?

Stacey: What kite eating trees are good for.

Jane: Yah, what trees are good for. I'm going to read about that all on this page. Then the author's going to get me ready, "If you drop yourself down on the grass you can. . ." What do you think I'm going to read about next?

Cole: Something in the grass.

Jane: Something in the grass. Let's see. Uh-oh. It's going to talk about insect's communication. "Picnics with the ants." And then he's going to ask another question and then I'm going to know what to look for. Then he's going to get me ready for the next one. If you do a little digging in the dirt, you can. . . What am I going to read about next?

Students: Something in the dirt.

Jane: Something in the dirt, aren't I? Then it's going to talk about important decomposers. Alright? One of the things that I want you to know that the way the author sets the book up for you is important for you to think about as you're reading. It's going to help you understand. It's not the time to skip all of that stuff. The author put it there for a reason. He organized this book that way for a reason. To help you get going and to help with understanding. Most of the time the author has also used some words that you might not know, but he gives you the meaning of the word. Like right after it, so be on a lookout for that, too. Don't think, "Oh I don't know what that means." The author's going to give you the meaning most of the time. (Observation, May 2, 2011)

Jane began by directing the students' attention to the features and structure of the book.

She modeled and explained how to use the features and structure, even stating that these

were organized to get the reader ready for the information on each page. She prompted

the students to let these features and structure help them determine the content of each

page, using lower-level questions like "What am I going to read about next?" Jane began

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with specific scaffolds – modeling and explaining. Then she shifted to a lower-level scaffold – prompting the students with lower-level questions. At the end of this excerpt, she explained the importance of understanding the structure and features and using them to assist with understanding the text.

Finally, during a reading conference, Jane drew Larry's attention to reading the text features. When Larry read *A Day in the Life of a Vet* to Jane, he skipped a heading (Field notes, March 23, 2011). Jane scaffolded with: "What do you read first?" Larry immediately said, "The heading." Jane scaffolded further by asking, "Why?" Larry knew the purpose of a heading. In this example, Jane prompted Larry to read the heading and to reflect on why headings are important. These lower-level scaffolds accomplished Jane's goal that students not skip the text features (Interview, May 12, 2011).

Jane scaffolded the students to use the text features and structure by prompting them to read the features or to determine the structure, by directing their attention to the features or structure, by explaining the features or structure, and by modeling how to determine the structure. During reading conferences, Jane typically prompted students to read the features or directed their attention to the features or structure (Field notes, March 23, 2011; Observation, August 11, 2011). When introducing a book, Jane often provided higher-level scaffolding by explaining the features or structure (Field notes, April 4, 2011; Observation, April 6, 2011; Observation, April 12, 2011; Observation, May 2, 2011).

Using background knowledge to understand the text. Jane scaffolded the students' to use their background knowledge to understand the text during her text introductions, text discussions, and reading conferences. Jane used prompts to probe the

students to think about their background knowledge and explain it. She used prompts to direct their attention to aspects of the text that would activate their background knowledge. She also provided explanations of her own background knowledge to support the students' understanding of the book. Jane prompted the students to use personal experiences, book knowledge, and world knowledge to assist with understanding the text.

During the discussion of *The Wall*, Jane scaffolded the students' understanding by using her background knowledge and that of the students.

> Jane: So like when people were visiting the Wall and when the boy and his dad were visiting the Wall we said that we were going to talk about how it affected them. What did you notice about the way they were thinking and feeling as different people came and went? Came and went? Was there something that you like noticed about that? Sarah?
>
> Sarah: When he saw the grandpa and the little kid. It made him feel like he was left out.
>
> Jane: Okay, talk about that Sarah.
>
> Sarah: My mom and dad had got divorced. When I see a mom and dad together, I feel left out cause I had to live without my dad.
>
> Jane: Cole, did you hear what Sarah said? Okay, was that surprising to you? The very first time I read this book that was very surprising to me. And then I stopped to think, Yah, if you've ever lost something then you notice it. I have a friend who lost a husband. He passed away. And so ever since that, it makes me stop and think, "I wonder if when she sees other husbands and wives together, does that make her miss her husband?"
>
> Sarah: I bet it does.
>
> Jane: I bet it does, too. And I never really thought about it much before I read this book. But it made me really stop and think, "Gosh, I bet that is hurtful and painful sometimes." It makes us stop and think about it. That made you understand this book even that much better, didn't it, Sarah? Good for you. Anybody else have a part in here that really said something to them. Damion?
>
> Damion: I wonder how the boy feels about, feels about losing his grandpa in that war.
>
> Jane: How do you think he feels about it?
>
> Damion: Because if I had never seen my grandpa I'd be sad because I like have fun with my grandpa and he seen that boy with his grandpa

and that was happy with his grandpa.

Jane: Yah and I've never thought of this before but my younger son who is studying right now in Wales. My dad passed away before he was even born, so he never had a grandpa around. But now that he is in Wales, my husband's dad is alive so he gets to be with that grandpa and I'd never thought about it until you just said that. I bet when he was growing up he probably missed not having a grandpa. I thought about it, but I never thought about him thinking about that. (Observation, April 18, 2011)

Jane fostered discussion of personal experiences by first prompting Sarah to explain her thinking, "Okay, talk about that Sarah." Sarah provided a personal connection to the story. This led to Jane sharing her personal connection and thoughts. Then Damion shared a statement, which caused Jane to prompt him: "How do you think he feels?" Damion responded with a personal connection. Jane added another personal connection. Thus, Jane provided a lower-level prompt first, then told a personal connection, provided a lower-level prompt, and told another personal connection. Her scaffolding decisions enabled two students to share their personal connections related to the story.

On another occasion, Jane introduced the book *The Babe and I* by activating the students' background knowledge using the cover and title. Then she provided a more explicit explanation of the background knowledge necessary to understand the book. An excerpt from this introduction is provided:

Jane: So let's look at the cover – the title and the cover. Damion, you've got some background knowledge. Tell us about that.

Damion: Uh, Babe Ruth, oh his name is Babe Ruth. And he is one of the best baseball players ever.

Jane: He was, wasn't he? Is he alive anymore?

Damion: No.

Jane: He's been dead for a long time. It's called *The Babe and I*. So how many of you know a little bit about baseball? Just show me with your hands. Good. Hands down. We need to know that. The background knowledge is going to help you with this. So we know it's called *The Babe and I*. What else are you noticing about this cover?

Larry: It says, "Ruth Pitch-hits."

Jane: Okay, and that's a newspaper. So that newspaper was made from when?

Larry: When Babe Ruth struck his pitch-hit.

Jane: When Babe Ruth was playing and we know Babe Ruth is no longer with us. What else can you tell? What else are you noticing, Cole?

Cole: They're in a city and these are probably newspapermen who write the paper.

Jane: Could be. So you're kind of predicting that. Inferring that. What else are you noticing? Look at the gentleman in the front.

Sarah: It may be about his life when Babe was young.

Jane: So you're thinking it's going to talk about Babe's life when he was younger. Look at what the guy's wearing. What's the guy wearing?

Damion: A detective suit.

Stacey: A baseball suit.

Jane: The one guy's wearing a baseball suit. You think that might me whom? That might be Babe Ruth. How about the guy in the detective suit? It's not really a detective suit.

Damion: Oh, a work suit.

Jane: It's a work suit. Do people wear those now days? Do they look like that? Not really. If you were going to predict or guess what time this happened, would it be now? A few years ago? A long time ago? When would this story have taken place?

Larry: A couple years ago.

Jane: A couple years ago? What do you think, Damion?

Damion: A long time ago.

Jane: Like how long?

Damion: Like in '33.

Jane: You do know background knowledge. [Laughs] Okay, so my whole point here is if you have a little background knowledge, you can get a lot from just the cover. And it appears to me that Damion has a lot of background knowledge because he was just about right when it came to the year. It was almost the exact year that it happened. I want to tell you a couple of things that you need to know. Okay? This is a story that takes place in New York City. You were right, Cole. It's a city. And it happened around 1932, Damion.

Damion: Oh. One off.

Jane: You were. What was happening in the United States at this time? You have to understand this to understand the story. Listen. Things were not good. You guys have learned about the economy in Social Studies about buying and selling and people didn't have money and do have money. Well, back in the early 30's, there was something called the Great Depression. That's a big term for

it was really hard for people to find jobs and it was really hard to
make a living and so some people who normally worked in offices
had to go find any old job they could. And they were happy if they
could find a job. Also, at this time Babe Ruth was alive. The story
is going to kind of intersect or mesh with Babe Ruth's as well.
(Observation, May 10, 2011)

Jane directed the students' attention to the cover and title and prompted them to explain

what they were noticing about the content of the book. She also directed their attention

to certain parts of the cover, such as the gentleman and the clothes the gentleman was

wearing. Throughout the introduction, Jane prompted the students specifically to shape

their understanding of the era in which the story occurred. She explicitly told the

students that using their background knowledge when looking at the cover could help

them determine a lot about the book. Toward the end of this excerpt, Jane explained her

background knowledge about the era in which the story occurred, even saying that the

students had to "understand this [knowledge] in order to understand the story." Thus,

Jane prompted the students at a lower level to think and explain their background

knowledge about the book, by saying, "What else are you noticing?" She prompted them

at a higher level to identify key components of the era in which the story occurred.

Directing their attention to the cover and to particular parts of the cover was a higher-

level scaffold. She provided the most support when she explained to the students the

background knowledge they would need to know in order to understand the story.

Summary for Finding Three

This finding answers this study's second supporting question: How do the kinds

and levels of scaffolding change? Jane's levels of scaffolding typically began with

lower-level scaffolding and then shifted to higher-level scaffolding if the student needed

more support. Her lower-level scaffolding included prompting the student to think,

reflect, take action, talk, or explain. For instance, Jane might say, "What are you noticing?" or "Look again." Lower-level prompts did not tell the students what to think, what to say, what to explain, or what to fix. Her scaffolding became higher level when she prompted the student more specifically. For instance, Jane might say, "I need you to watch your final s's" or "You're skipping words." Jane also used higher-level scaffolding when she directed the students' attention to aspects of words, to how reading should sound, or to aspects of the text. Her most specific scaffolding included telling the student a word, providing the steps a proficient reader uses to complete a reading task, modeling how to perform a proficient reading quality, or explaining a component of the text to the students.

Summary

The primary question guiding this study was: Using sociocultural and cognitive lenses, what is the nature of reading scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach to students in a small, Midwestern city during a small group intervention? The supporting questions were: (a) How does the experienced district literacy coach determine the kind and level of scaffolding to provide? and (b) How does the kind and level of scaffolding change?

Jane determined the kind of scaffolding to provide by attending to her knowledge of proficient reading and her diagnosis of the students' needs and strengths. Jane determined her level of scaffolding by beginning with a lower-level prompt and then watching to see how the child would respond. If necessary, Jane would provide a higher-level scaffold or scaffolds, always striving for the student to problem solve while reading

and to develop proficient reading qualities. Her scaffolding also changed as the students began to read proficiently.

To foster the development of proficient reading qualities, Jane scaffolded the students' oral reading and their comprehension. Her knowledge of the students' needs and strengths developed throughout the intervention, as the students changed and developed as readers. Therefore, her scaffolding looked different from student to student and from moment to moment. Jane asserted the purpose of reading was to understand the text, therefore, her first area to scaffold was meaning if this was a need of the student. Also, Jane did not choose to scaffold every area of need. She stated, "You've got to pick your battles. Like what do you want to work on that's going to get the bang for the buck" (Interview, May 12, 2011). Furthermore, Jane said, "I'm afraid if I go in there with too much he's gonna like shut off" (Interview, April 14, 2011). Jane referred to Larry who seemed to be a very fragile learner. She knew if she tried to scaffold too many qualities of proficient reading, he would give up. She stated:

> I'm also trying to get them to have success. It's because only one child in here said they liked reading out of the five. The other four said they didn't like reading. If you don't like reading, how are you going to want to get good at it? You don't want to practice anything you're not good at. Do you? People don't like doing that. Kids don't like doing that. So part of my very first goal was to get them to want to read. And then I thought building up that success and I think that breeds a sense of agency. (Interview, April 14, 2011)

Jane's first goal impacted how she scaffolded these students, causing her to scaffold what was most pertinent at that moment for that learner. Jane wanted the students to feel success with reading, and she knew this could breed agency. Agency is "when somebody knows if they do something it will have an effect on their life" (Interview, June 24, 2011). Agency is the belief that if I act, and act strategically, I can accomplish my goals

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(Johnston, 2004). Furthermore, Jane stated, "And kids need to know that, too. That if they tried this in reading then they'll get better. They're the ones in control" (Interview, June 24, 2011). Also, Jane shared, "And that's all that agency stuff - believing in yourself and knowing that you can do it and working hard to get there" (Interview, August 11, 2011). Jane knew if students developed this sense of agency about reading it would lead to future success with reading. When the intervention was over, Jane wanted these students to continue to grow and develop as readers. Hence, developing a sense of agency was a goal she had for each student. Jane described how she fostered agency:

> Through conferencing and prompting, sometimes through waiting and letting them take it. Sometimes it's through setting them up so they're successful because success breeds success. Then helping them, scaffolding them so they see that they were the reason they were successful, not me. Because they're not going to be agentic if they think, "Oh, Mrs. Smith helped me." "I helped me. I helped myself. I did it." You know, speaking of the kid. "I'm the one that did that." (Interview, June 24, 2011)

Jane wanted the students to feel success with reading and to know they were the reason for that success. Therefore, her scaffolding fostered this success. Furthermore, Jane used a variety of statements or questions to encourage the students to take ownership of their success, such as: "How were you able to do that?" or "What was it that you did?" or "How did you problem solve that?" (Interview, June 24, 2011). She knew she needed to foster agency in reading by "fostering them to be reflective and to make decisions and problem solve" (Interview, June 24, 2011).

> I want them to be reflective because you really learn through reflection and basically that's the truest form of learning. You learn from reflecting on what you did instead of just doing it. So I want them to be reflective readers and think, "Okay, I'm doing this now. Maybe I need to do this." I'm hoping it carries over to all parts of their learning and actually their life, but I want them to be a little bit more reflective and not think I'm going to fix things for them and I'm going to tell them all the time. They

have to be kind of thinking of their actions and what they're doing in their reading. That's part of that reflective, agency thing. I want them to know when they're growing and when they're not growing. They have to take on whether they know whether they sounded good or whether they understood it or not. So I want them to be able to trust themselves because sometimes strugglers say, "Well, I don't know. I don't know if I got it. I don't know if I sounded good. I don't know if this was just right." Well, they need to know. I read recently, I think it was *Mosaic of Thought* that kids have to know what they know how to do and build on it. And so that's one of the reasons I've been doing that [prompting students to reflect] as well. (Interview, April 14, 2011)

Jane expressed that the students needed to reflect on their strengths, needs, and actions. Thus, Jane scaffolded students' oral reading and comprehension in a way that fostered decision-making, problem solving, and reflection. She believed that if the students could make decisions about their reading, problem solve when they encountered difficulty, and reflect on their strengths, needs, and actions, they would develop a sense of agency about their reading and this would carry them forward as readers when she was no longer working with them. Thus, Jane used her scaffolding to support the development of: 1) proficient readers who could read grade level material, 2) problem-solvers who could strategically read text, 3) reflective readers who could think about their reading strengths, needs, and actions, and 4) agentic readers who knew their actions and effort impacted their reading success.

Jane's ultimate goal was to develop proficient and reflective readers. To accomplish this, Jane scaffolded students in such a way that they developed an understanding of how to problem solve when reading, while gaining an understanding of the qualities of proficient reading so that in the future they would implement these qualities when they read.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This study focused on the nature of reading scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach as she worked with fourth grade, struggling readers in a small group reading intervention. The purpose of this study was to identify and describe what she scaffolded, how she determined the kind and level of scaffolding to provide, and how this scaffolding changed as students developed qualities of proficient reading. Jane, the key participant, possessed a depth of knowledge of qualities of proficient reading and used this knowledge to diagnose the students' reading strengths and needs. Then she scaffolded the students' oral reading and comprehension beginning with lower-level prompts typically and providing higher-level scaffolds if needed. Therefore, the three overarching findings that emerged were:

1. possessing in-depth knowledge of qualities of proficient reading,

2. diagnosing students' strengths and needs, and

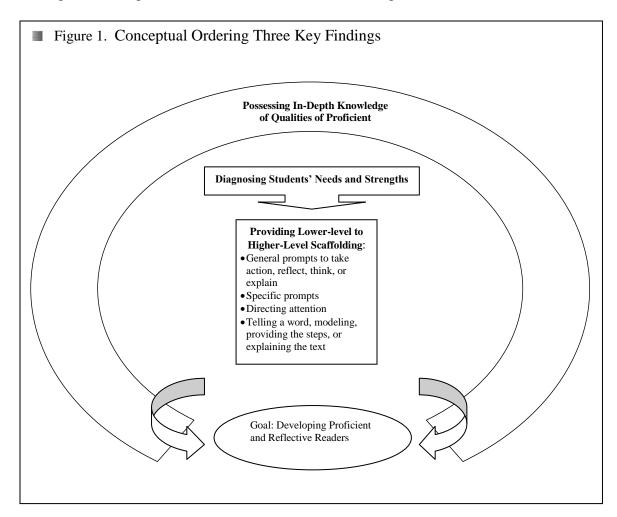3. providing lower-level to higher-level scaffolds.

This chapter begins by describing a conceptual ordering (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) for the findings presented in chapter four. Then it describes how these findings matched and extended the conceptual framework (e.g. sociocultural and cognitive perspectives, literacy coaching, reading intervention, and scaffolding). Finally, it describes pedagogical, pragmatic, and theoretical implications of the findings along with recommendations for future research.

Implications for Future Analysis

Corbin and Strauss (2008) described different aims of qualitative research: description, conceptual ordering, and theorizing. Chapter four described the three findings that emerged from the data about the nature of scaffolding provided by an experienced district literacy coach. This section tentatively describes how these three findings might be conceptually ordered. Corbin and Strauss explained, "Researchers attempt to make sense out of their data by organizing them according to a classificatory scheme" (p. 55). A tentative diagram demonstrates how these findings might be conceptually ordered (see Figure 1). Corbin and Strauss (2008) explained that diagrams force a researcher to reduce the data "to their essence" (p. 125). Diagrams evolve during the analytical process, becoming "more complex" (Corbin & Strauss, p. 140). Thus, this diagram is a work-in-progress because it is an evolving "visual representation of the relationship" (Corbin & Strauss, p. 140) between the findings. As I conduct further analysis of the three findings, this diagram will change.

This model demonstrates how the findings relate to one another. First of all, the experienced district literacy coach possessed in-depth knowledge of qualities of proficient reading. Data analysis revealed eight qualities of proficient reading that Jane attended to when determining the scaffolding she would provide. These were always in the "forefront" of her mind as she listened to students' orally read and talk about the books. While students would orally read or talk about books, Jane would listen to them carefully, noticing students' needs and strengths as readers. For instance, when listening to students read, Jane may notice that they were omitting words when reading. Thus, the students were not self-monitoring their reading; Jane attended to this proficient reading

quality. Therefore, this in-depth knowledge of proficient reading encompassed the other

findings, in that it provided the basis for Jane's scaffolding decisions.

Figure 1. Conceptual Ordering Three Key Findings

**Possessing In-Depth Knowledge
of Qualities of Proficient**

Diagnosing Students' Needs and Strengths

**Providing Lower-level to
Higher-Level Scaffolding:**
- General prompts to take
  action, reflect, think, or
  explain
- Specific prompts
- Directing attention
- Telling a word, modeling,
  providing the steps, or
  explaining the text

Goal: Developing Proficient
and Reflective Readers

Secondly, Jane diagnosed the students' needs and strengths. Jane's knowledge of

proficient reading informed how she diagnosed the students' needs and strengths. As

Jane listened to students read or talk about books, she diagnosed qualities of proficient

Reading that they displayed and qualities they did not display. Returning to the example

above, when Jane noticed students were omitting words, she diagnosed that the students

were not self-monitoring. Jane provided scaffolding based on this diagnosis.

Thirdly, Jane typically began with lower-level scaffolds and then provided more

higher-level scaffolding, based on students' responses. Her knowledge of proficient

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reading helped her carefully observe the students' oral reading and comprehension, noticing their reading needs and strengths. This led to her diagnosing the students' needs and strengths and determining which proficient reading quality needed to be scaffolded during an interaction. Once Jane had made this diagnosis and determination, she typically provided a lower-level scaffold to prompt the students to take action, to reflect, to explain, to talk, or to think. Based on the students' response to the lower-level scaffold, Jane would make another instructional decision, either to acknowledge students' success with reading or to provide a higher-level scaffold to move the students toward proficient reading. Jane purposely scaffolded in this way because she wanted the students to take responsibility for their reading actions. When explaining how she developed a sense of agency in the students, Jane said:

> Through conferencing and prompting, sometimes through waiting and letting them take it. Sometimes it's through setting them up so they're successful because success breeds success. Then helping them, scaffolding them so they see that they were the reason they were successful, not me. Because they're not going to be agentic if they think, "Oh, Jane helped me." "I helped me. I helped myself. I did it." You know, speaking of the kid. "I'm the one that did that." (Interview, June 24, 2011)

Jane wanted the students to feel success with reading and to know they were the reason for that success. Therefore, her scaffolding fostered this success by beginning with lower-level prompts and moving to higher-level scaffolds as needed. Thus, Jane scaffolded students' oral reading and comprehension in a way that fostered decision-making, problem-solving, and reflection. Jane used her scaffolding to encourage the students to make decisions about their reading, to problem-solve when they encountered difficulty, and to reflect on their strengths, needs, and actions. Jane's ultimate goal was for the students to become proficient, reflective readers.

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In conclusion, this model demonstrates a hierarchy with in-depth knowledge of proficient reading being the basis for the other scaffolding decisions. The coach observed the students during reading and diagnosed their proficient reading needs and strengths. She used her diagnoses to determine what proficient reading quality to scaffold. She typically began with a lower-level scaffold and then moved to higher-level scaffolding if necessary, based on how the student responded to the lower-level scaffold. Her goal was to develop students who were proficient and reflective readers.

Significance of Findings

The following section explains how the findings of this study have been confirmed across research constructs. The significance of these findings is that they show the interrelatedness of the conceptual framework. Each finding is explained with the constructs that it supported.

Possessing In-Depth Knowledge of Qualities of Proficient Reading

The key participant, Jane, explained that in order to scaffold struggling readers, a teacher must understand what proficient readers do (Interview, August 11, 2011). Jane possessed an in-depth of knowledge of proficient reading and this was at the forefront of her mind as she scaffolded students (Interview, August 11, 2011). The following eight characteristics of proficient reading emerged as qualities that Jane diagnosed as strengths or needs and then scaffolded:

1. Reading to understand the information presented by the author.
2. Reading to understand the author's message.
3. Self-monitoring to make sure the reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right, and using fix-up strategies when it doesn't.

4. Reading at a sufficient rate with fluency.

5. Thinking deeply about the text.

6. Using text features and structure to assist with understanding the author's message.

7. Using background knowledge to understand the text.

This finding reasserts cognitive tenets as well as research studies of expert teaching, scientifically research-based instruction and intervention, scaffolding, and literacy coaching.

Cognitive perspective toward reading. These eight characteristics supported how cognitive psychologists view the reading process. For example, engaged readers use their previous experiences to construct new understandings and use cognitive strategies to regulate comprehension while reading (Baker, Dreher, & Guthrie, 2003). A quality Jane scaffolded regularly was using background knowledge in the form of personal experiences, book connections, and world knowledge to understand the text. The reading components that Jane scaffolded supported comprehension strategies presented by Block and Duffy (2008). Block and Duffy generated a list of comprehension strategies to teach children. Other researchers (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Pressley & Wharton-McDonald, 1997) explained traits of good readers. However, I selected Block and Duffy's list to compare to Jane's proficient reading qualities because they synthesized research to identify nine comprehension strategies, which "have the scientific-basis to be considered essential comprehension strategies" (p. 24). Table 7 aligns the eight qualities from this study with Block and Duffy's list of comprehension strategies. Block and Duffy's strategies were presented with brief explanations. Therefore, the third column in

Table 7 quotes Block and Duffy's strategies. The second column contains the aspects of these strategies that aligned with Jane's qualities of proficient reading. Jane's qualities were both for oral reading and comprehension proficiency. Therefore, not every quality exactly aligned with Block and Duffy's list because they focused on comprehension strategies. Furthermore, some strategies fit with more than one of Jane's qualities.

Table 7

Comparison of Study Findings to Research Findings

Qualities of Proficient Reading from This Study	Aligning Block and Duffy's Strategies	Strategies of Block and Duffy
1. Reading to understand the information presented by the author.	Finding main ideas and summarizing	"Find main ideas, summarize, and draw conclusions – Make sure to include information gained from story grammar or textual features." (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22)
2. Reading to understand the author's message.	Drawing conclusions	"Find main ideas, summarize, and draw conclusions– Make sure to include information gained from story grammar or textual features." (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22)
3. Using decoding strategies to figure out unrecognizable words.	▪ Using strategies to decode ▪ Fix-it strategies	▪ "Monitor – Activate many comprehension strategies to decode and derive meaning from words, phrases, sentences, and texts." ▪ "Look-backs, rereads, and fix-it strategies – Continue to reflect on the text before, during, and after reading, continuously deciding how to shape the knowledge base for personal use." (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22)
4. Self-monitoring to make sure the reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right, and using fix-up strategies	▪ Monitoring comprehension ▪ Looking back, rereading, and using "fix-it strategies"	▪ "Monitor – Activate many comprehension strategies to decode and derive meaning from words, phrases, sentences, and texts."

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when it doesn't.	▪ "Stop to reread and initiate comprehension processes when the meaning is unclear." (Block & Duffy, p. 22)	▪ "Look-backs, rereads, and fix-it strategies – Continue to reflect on the text before, during, and after reading, continuously deciding how to shape the knowledge base for personal use." ▪ "Question – Stop to reread and initiate comprehension processes when the meaning is unclear." (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22)
5. Reading at a sufficient rate with fluency.		
6. Thinking deeply about the text.	▪ Making inferences. ▪ Evaluating the content of fiction text. ▪ Synthesizing informational text.	▪ "Infer – Connect ideas in text based on personal experiences, knowledge of other texts, and general world knowledge, making certain that inferences are made quickly so as not to divert attention from the actual text but to help the reader better understand it." ▪ "Synthesize – Approach an informational text watching for text features, accessing features, unique types of information, sequence of details and conclusions, and combining all of these to make meaning." (Block & Duffy, p. 22)
7. Using text features and structure to assist with understanding the author's message.	Making predictions using titles, text features, sections, pictures, and captions.	"Predict - Size up a text in advance by looking at titles, text features, sections, pictures, and captions, continuously updating and repredicting what will occur next in a text." (Block & Duffy, p. 22)
8. Using background knowledge to understand the text.	▪ Making inferences by connecting ideas in the text. ▪ Constructing meanings expressed	▪ "Infer-Connect ideas in text based on personal experiences, knowledge of other texts, and general world knowledge, making certain

	in text by wondering, noticing, and generating mental pictures.	that inferences are made quickly so as not to divert attention from the actual text but to help the reader better understand it." (Block & Duffy, p. 22) ▪ "Image – Construct meanings expressed in text by wondering, noticing, and generating mental pictures." (Block & Duffy, p. 22)
		"Evaluate – Approach a fictional text expecting to (and making certain that students do) note the setting, characters, and story grammar early on, with problems, solutions, and resolutions to occur thereafter." (Block & Duffy, p. 22)

The first proficient reading quality I had listed was "Reading to understand the information presented by the author." Block and Duffy's comprehension strategy that aligned was "find main ideas, summarize, and draw conclusions – Make sure to include information gained from story grammar or textual features" (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22). Jane wanted the students in her intervention to read and understand the information in the text. One way to show understanding of the text is to summarize it or identify the main ideas. A portion of Block and Duffy's strategy, "find main ideas, summarize," aligned with Jane's quality – reading to understand the information presented by the author.

Drawing conclusions did not align with this study's first quality. It did align with the second quality: reading to understand the author's message. Block and Duffy did not define 'draw conclusions.' When reading Harvey and Goudvis (2007) who have written a book about teaching reading strategies, drawing conclusions was listed with making

inferences. Drawing conclusions involves assimilating the information in the text and

one's personal experiences and background knowledge to determine what the author is

communicating. Possible questions to prompt students to draw conclusions include:

a. What lesson does this teach?

b. What lesson did the characters learn?

c. How does the author feel about . . . (Harvey & Goudvis, p. 249)

Furthermore, Harvey and Goudvis provide this teaching suggestion: "Teach kids to

merge their thinking with clues in the text to determine the author's message or purpose

in writing the piece" (p. 249). This shows that the strategy 'drawing conclusions' is

linked with 'reading to understand the author's message.'   One other strategy aligned

with this quality:

> ▪ Synthesize – Approach an informational text watching for text
> features, accessing features, unique types of information, sequence
> of details and conclusions, and combining all of these to make
> meaning. (Block & Duffy, p. 22)

Jane identified author's message as determining the lessons learned and the big idea.

Lessons learned were typically linked to fiction in the data. The big idea was linked to

nonfiction. Synthesizing informational text means the reader combines all the

information to make meaning (Block & Duffy). According to Harvey and Goudvis

(2007), synthesizing means merging the information with one's thinking and shaping it

into a new thought. Also, it involves seeing the bigger picture. In relation to Jane's

quality 'read to understand the author's message,' she wanted the students to grasp the

big idea or theme. She shared how books should change them.

The third and fourth qualities in this study were 'using decoding strategies to

figure out unrecognizable words' and 'self-monitoring to make sure the reading makes

sense, looks right and sounds right, and using fix-up strategies when it doesn't.' I

compared these with three comprehension strategies:

- Monitor – Activate many comprehension strategies to decode and derive meaning from words, phrases, sentences, and texts.
- Look-backs, rereads, and fix-it strategies – Continue to reflect on the text before, during, and after reading, continuously deciding how to shape the knowledge base for personal use.
- Question – Stop to reread and initiate comprehension processes when the meaning is unclear. (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22)

The phrases 'monitor', 'strategies to decode', 'look-back, rereads, and fix-it strategies',

'stop to reread', and 'initiate comprehension processes when meaning is unclear' align

with Jane's third and fourth qualities. Jane supported students in decoding

unrecognizable words and monitoring their reading. Jane's strategies to help with

decoding included looking at word parts or chunks, noticing prefixes and suffixes, and

using knowledge of similar words. Jane expected her students to self-monitor when they

read in three ways, making sure their reading made sense, that what they read matched

what they saw on the page, and that their reading sounded right syntactically (the placing

of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences). Jane's strategy to help when the

reading did not make sense, sound right, or match what was on the page was to reread

(Interview, May 2, 2011). Jane attended to these qualities of reading because it impacted

comprehending the text (Interview, May 19, 2011). Using decoding strategies to figure

out unrecognizable words aligns with Block and Duffy's phrases 'strategies to decode'

and 'look-back, rereads, and fix-it strategies' because it addresses the strategic action

needed to decode words and therefore comprehend the text. Block and Duffy's phrases

'monitor', 'look-back, rereads, and fix-it strategies', 'stop to reread', and 'initiate

comprehension processes when meaning is unclear' align with Jane's self-monitoring

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quality because they deal with monitoring understanding of the text and using strategies to fix-up confusions.

Jane's decoding strategies (e.g. looking at word parts or chunks, noticing prefixes and suffixes, and using knowledge of similar words) supported Block and Duffy's strategies in the following way. Comprehending text means being able to read the text and understand it. Reading the text involves automaticity, recognizing the words with little effort (Allington, 2006). According to Share and Stanovich (1995), when one reads with automaticity, "words are decoded quickly using larger word patterns instead of a process of letter-by-letter analysis" (as cited in Allington, p. 92). Jane attended to the students' abilities to decode the words in text by scaffolding their use of three decoding strategies. This adds to Block and Duffy's strategies because it provides decoding strategies to teach students. Possessing strategies for decoding words allows the reader to focus most of their energy on comprehending the text.

The fifth proficient reading quality Jane attended to was 'reading at a sufficient rate with fluency.' This was not included in Block and Duffy's list of comprehension strategies. Although it did not make their list, fluency emerged as a component of scientifically research-based reading instruction and intervention (Mathes et al., 2005; NICHD, 2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Torgesen, 2002). Jane's qualities were for oral reading and comprehension, whereas, Block and Duffy's strategies were about comprehension. This explains the exclusion.

The sixth proficient reading quality Jane attended to was 'thinking deeply about the text.' Thinking deeply is a broad phrase. Data analysis revealed it meant inferring,

forming an opinion, and changing one's mind. I aligned this with one comprehension

strategy:

> Infer – Connect ideas in text based on personal experiences, knowledge of other texts, and general world knowledge, making certain that inferences are made quickly so as not to divert attention from the actual text but to help the reader better understand it (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22).

Jane explained why she probed students to think deeply about the text when she said,

"I'm trying to get them to infer. I never want to tell them that this is the answer."

(Interview, April 18, 2011). Furthermore, she stated, "It should make you think and go

beyond where you were. Have an opinion about something" (Interview, August 11,

2011). Jane prompted students to make inferences about the text, based on the text clues

the author presented and the reader's background knowledge.

The seventh proficient reading quality Jane attended to was 'using text features

and structure to assist with understanding the author's message.' This was matched to:

"Predict - Size up a text in advance by looking at titles, text features, sections, pictures,

and captions, continuously updating and repredicting what will occur next in a text"

(Block & Duffy, p. 22). Jane prompted students to use the title, illustrations, pictures,

and text features to determine the content of the text. Particularly, she had them use the

table of contents and headings to establish a mental outline for the book's content. Jane

also drew the students' attention to these features when she conferenced with them. She

expressed that text features provide additional information and support for the text

(Interview, May 12, 2011). The difference in Jane's proficient reading quality was that

she scaffolded students' use of text features and structure as a support for understanding

the author's message. Block and Duffy referred to text features as a way to make

predictions. They also did not include text structure in their list. Jane's quality of

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proficient reading extends Block and Duffy's strategy because it supports using text features and structure in another way - to understand the author's message.

The eighth proficient reading quality Jane attended to was 'using background knowledge to understand the text.' This aligns with:

- Infer-Connect ideas in text based on personal experiences, knowledge of other texts, and general world knowledge, making certain that inferences are made quickly so as not to divert attention from the actual text but to help the reader better understand it.
- Image – Construct meanings expressed in text by wondering, noticing, and generating mental pictures. (Block & Duffy, p. 22)

Jane scaffolded students in activating their background knowledge and making connections between their background knowledge and the text being read. Background knowledge could be personal experiences, book knowledge, or world knowledge. As students activated their background knowledge, they conjured up images of their personal experiences, other books they had read, or world knowledge they possessed.

Many strategies aligned with the qualities Jane scaffolded. However, two of Block and Duffy's strategies did not emerge in this study's data:

- Image - Construct meanings expressed in the text by wondering, noticing, and generating mental pictures.
- Evaluate – Approach a fictional text expecting to (and making certain that students do) note the setting, characters, and story grammar early on, with problems, solutions, and resolutions to occur thereafter (Block & Duffy, 2008, p. 22).

Although the strategy 'Image' did not emerge across the data per se, Jane did encourage the students to wonder (Observation, May 9, 2011) and notice components of the books (Observation, April 18, 2011). However, Jane did not specifically draw students' attention to making mental pictures of their reading. All the texts Jane selected contained pictures or photographs. Perhaps, if the books had not contained pictures or photographs,

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Jane might have encouraged this strategy. The strategy 'Evaluate' seemed to fit with thinking deeply about fiction books, but the explanation provided by Block and Duffy did not. To think deeply about fiction, Jane prompted students to evaluate character motivation, actions, and traits, often prompting them to form an opining. Block and Duffy described evaluate, as expecting to find the components of story (e.g. characters, setting, problem, etc.) when reading fiction. For these two to align, Block and Duffy would have explained 'evaluate' as: Read a fictional text, evaluating the actions of the characters, the elements that motivate the characters, and the traits of the characters (e.g. greedy, hard-working, naïve, etc.).

Expert teaching literature. Jane's proficient reading qualities support what others have determined about expert teachers. Anderson, Armbruster, and Roe (1989, 1990) concluded "experts in any domain have not only good problem-solving strategies but also a rich store of knowledge about the domain" (p. 188). Jane possessed a depth of knowledge about proficient reading and attended to qualities of proficient reading when she diagnosed and scaffolded the students. According to the IRA (2000), an excellent reading teacher understands how literacy develops in children and assesses student progress. Jane used her understanding of proficient reading to diagnose students' needs and strengths and then provide scaffolded instruction.

Scientifically research-based instruction and intervention. Components of scientifically research-based reading instruction and intervention are phonemic decoding skills, fluency in recognizing words and processing text, comprehension strategies and techniques, and mental processing and reasoning when reading (Mathes et al.; NICHD; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Torgesen, 2002). These emerged in this study as

components that Jane scaffolded. Furthermore, in the literature, research-based best practices in reading included being able to give students direct instruction in decoding and comprehension strategies that promote independent reading (Gambrell & Mazzoni, 1999). Jane scaffolded proficient reading qualities that resembled these research-based practices, including using decoding strategies to figure out unrecognizable words and self-monitoring to make sure the reading made sense, looked right and sounded right.

Scaffolding literature. Puntambekar and Hubscher (2005) asserted that a teacher must have a thorough knowledge of the task and its components in order to appropriately scaffold. Wood et al. (1976) described it as possessing a theory of the task and how it may be completed. Sadler (1989) explained it as the teacher possessing a concept of quality related to the task. For Jane to appropriately scaffold struggling readers, she had to possess a thorough understanding of proficient reading and its components. Jane not only attended to qualities of proficient reading, she possessed a depth of knowledge about proficient reading. This is similar to what other scaffolding studies have found, in that, Jane possessed this knowledge of proficient reading and used it throughout the intervention when selecting the kind and level of scaffolding to provide. Jane not only knew the task, qualities of proficient reading, she also knew the steps and strategies involved in each proficient reading quality.

Summary. Jane's in-depth knowledge of proficient reading qualities impacted the kind of scaffolding she provided the struggling readers in her intervention. This finding confirmed IRA's (2004) assertion that literacy coaches must be excellent teachers of reading and have in-depth knowledge of reading processes and acquisition. Expert reading teacher, cognitive perspective, scaffolding, and scientifically research-based

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reading instruction and intervention literature supported possessing in-depth knowledge of proficient reading qualities.

This finding did hold nuances about reading strategies. Block and Duffy (2008) presented comprehension strategies that were validated by research. Students need to decode words quickly so they can focus their cognitive energy on understanding the text. Possessing strategies for decoding words allows the reader to focus most of their energy on comprehending the text. Three strategies that emerged from this study were: looking at word parts or chunks, noticing prefixes and suffixes, and using knowledge of similar words. Another nuance could be added to Block and Duffy's strategy called 'Evaluate.' The explanation they provided for this strategy did not mention evaluating. An alternative explanation would be: Read a fictional text, evaluating the actions of the characters, the elements that motivate the characters, and the traits of the characters (e.g. greedy, hard-working, naïve, etc.). A third nuance had to do with Block and Duffy's strategy called 'Predict.' This strategy involved using text features to make predictions about a book and to confirm or disconfirm those predictions, always forming new predictions. Jane's quality, 'using text features and structure to assist with understanding the author's message,' matched this strategy somewhat. Jane included text structure as a component for understanding the author's message. This nuance could be added to Block and Duffy's strategy list.

Diagnosing Students' Needs and Strengths

Jane determined how to scaffold based on her diagnosis of the students' needs and strengths. As stated earlier, her in-depth knowledge of proficient reading informed her diagnosis. Jane's goal was for the five students in the intervention to become proficient

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readers. Therefore, in the forefront of her mind were proficient reading qualities. As she

observed the students and listened to them read, she determined which qualities of

proficient reading they possessed and which they needed to develop. She kept anecdotal

notes and intervention updates to document each student's needs and strengths. Once she

made this diagnosis, she determined which quality was the most important to address.

Jane stated, "I go for the thing that's going to get them the biggest bang for the buck in

their reading" (Interview, August 4, 2011). Also, she said, "I choose my scaffolding

depending on what I'm seeing. It really is a split second decision I make" (Interview,

April 14, 2011). Hence, Jane used her knowledge of proficient reading to diagnose the

students' needs and strengths and then to make quick decisions about what to scaffold.

During or at the end of reading conferences, she explicitly discussed with the students

their needs and strengths. This finding reasserts sociocultural and cognitive tenets as well

as research studies of expert teaching, individualized intervention, and scaffolding.

     Sociocultural perspective. Vygotsky's sociocultural perspective recognizes that

human activities occur in cultural contexts, are mediated by language and other symbol

systems, and are understood when they are examined in their historical development

(John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). An assumption of this approach is that "action is mediated

and that it cannot be separated from the milieu in which it is carried out" (Wertsch, 1991,

p. 18). Thus, to understand how Jane diagnosed a student's needs and strengths, this

study had to understand the interactions between Jane and the student. Her diagnosis

could not be separated from the cultural context. Furthermore, Vygotsky (1978)

developed the term Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) to describe the distance

between a child's "*actual developmental level as determined by independent problem*

solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving

under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86; emphasis in

original). Jane's diagnosis of students' needs and strengths showed her ability to

determine their actual development and their potential development.

Cognitive perspective toward teacher decision-making. This perspective

views teachers as reflective practitioners who develop and adjust their instruction based

on student needs (Moore, 1992; as cited in Vacca, Vacca, and Bruneau, 2005). Jane

developed and adjusted her instruction based on her diagnosis of students' needs and

strengths. She determined the students' needs and strengths using her knowledge of

proficient reading. Thus, these qualities informed her diagnosis of the students' needs,

which in turn informed her scaffolding.

Expert teaching literature. Expert teachers plan and adjust their instruction to

meet the diverse needs of their students (Duffy & Hoffman, 1999; Snow, Burns, &

Griffin, 1998; IRA, 2000). NRP explained that successful reading teachers provide

skillful instruction that is flexible and meets individual student's needs (NICHD, 2000).

When these teachers provide praise, they do so by specifically naming what the student

did well, attributing the student's success to ability and effort, and implying that this

success is attainable in the future (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, p. 16). Jane

specifically named proficient reading qualities that students used (Interview, May 19,

2011), along with attributing their success to their ability and effort (Interview, June 24,

2011), implying that this success was attainable in all reading settings (Interview, August

11, 2011). Furthermore, Dozier and Rutten (2006) found that expert teachers are

responsive to their students' individual needs. Jane referred to her instruction as

responsive teaching (Interview, June 24, 2011). To be a responsive teacher, one must be a keen observer of the learners' constructions of knowledge and use that information to build on the learners' strengths (Dozier, Garnett, & Tabatabai, 2011). Being a keen observer has been called kidwatching, in that it refers to watching children in order to make decisions about instruction (O'Keefe, 1996). Kidwatching involves noticing ways to capitalize on individual strengths and meet individual needs (Owocki, 2005). Kidwatchers function within a child's ZPD. They evaluate what a child can do with assistance and use this information to "plan immediate or future experiences that capitalize on the child's current intellectual functioning" (Owocki & Goodman, 2002, p. 6). Jane first observed students as they read aloud and talked about their books. She then made scaffolding decisions based on her observations, her knowledge of proficient reading, and her diagnosis of the students' needs and strengths at that moment. Her scaffolding was responsive and flexible, in that it did not look the same from moment to moment or day to day. Jane also specifically discussed with the students what they did well and explained what they needed to do in the future when reading. She even shared steps they needed to take.

Reading intervention literature. Jane's intervention was known as an individualized intervention (Vaughn et al., 2008) because it responded to the differentiated needs of the struggling learners. Research on reading interventions supports interventions that are tailored to students' instructional needs (Alexander, Anderson, Heilman, Voeller, & Torgesen, 1991; Edmonds et al., 2009; Kamil et al., 2008; Rashotte et al., 2001; Vaughn et al., 2009; Vellutino, Scanlon, Zhang, & Schatschneider, 2008; Williams, 1980). Jane's diagnoses of students' needs and

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strengths during the reading conferences allowed her to tailor her instruction to each student.

Scaffolding literature. According to Palincsar and Brown, diagnosis involved "continuous evaluation and revision in the teacher's theory of the student's competence, a theory that must be responsive to the level of participation of which the student is currently capable" (p. 169). Jane diagnosed the students' needs and strengths by looking at their actions and responses every time she conferenced with them. Then she finely tuned her scaffolding to meet the students' needs. This is known as contingency and represents one of three scaffolding terms characterized as diagnostic strategies (van de Pol, Volman, & Beishuizen, 2010). Diagnosing a student's current competency level has been referred to as dynamic assessment (Fuchs et al., 2007; Lajoie, 2005; Pea, 2004; Swanson & Lussier, 2001), ongoing diagnosis (Puntambekar & Hubscher, 2005), and formative assessment (Pellegrino, Chudowsky, & Glaser, 2001; Sadler, 1989; Shepard, 2005). These forms of assessment are accomplished moment-by-moment as students are in the process of problem solving so that feedback can be provided during the activity. Jane referred to her scaffolding decisions as "split second decisions" (Interview, April 14, 2011) based on what she observed the students doing (Interview, August 11, 2011). Additionally, when describing formative assessment, Sadler (1989) added that there are two key components: feedback and self-monitoring. Sadler described feedback as information given about how successfully something has been done or is being done; it is external to the learner. Gallimore and Tharp stated, "Feedback alone can guide a student to substantial improvement in performance on the next try" (p. 180). Furthermore, they asserted, "In educational programs, feedback on performance is vital to every participant"

(p. 180). However, Gallimore and Tharp clarified that feedback must be compared to a standard to be effective. Feedback involves a teacher who knows the skills to be learned, recognizes and describes a fine performance, and indicates how a poor performance can be improved. Jane provided feedback about how well the students did when they read by noticing and naming their strengths. She used her knowledge of proficient reading qualities, which could be called reading standards, to diagnose the students' strengths and needs and in turn, name specifically their fine performance while also indicating how their reading needs could be improved. The term self-monitoring can be described as the action a student or learner takes when s/he identifies the relevant information during a learning task independent of the teacher. For the child to improve, the child must hold a concept of quality similar to the teacher's concept of quality (or standard), be able to monitor continuously the quality of what is being produced, and have a repertoire of strategies or moves to use during the process. One of the qualities of proficient reading that Jane scaffolded was self-monitoring. She diagnosed the students' needs and strengths, named and explained these to the students, and then expected the students to develop the strategies necessary for proficient reading. When they did not display the traits of self-monitoring that she had scaffolded previously, she tried "to figure out some angle to attack that again or to talk about that in a different way (Interview, May 19, 2011). Another component of scaffolding literature fit this finding: marking critical features or drawing the learner's attention to the relevant components of the task (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Jane drew a student's attention to the steps or strategies needed for a particular proficient reading quality after first diagnosing a student's reading need, then scaffolding the student's reading to develop that quality, and finally naming and

explaining for the student the steps or strategies needed to read proficiently. Jane was explicit about these steps or strategies. Palincsar (1986) asserted that teachers who interacted effectively with students also made the purpose of instruction explicit to students.

Summary. Jane diagnosed students' needs and strengths based on her knowledge of proficient reading qualities. She then determined how to scaffold. This finding reasserted what previous literature confirmed about qualities of expert teachers, qualities of effective reading interventions, and components of scaffolding. However, this finding differed in that it occurred in a setting unlike previous research settings.

Providing Lower-Level to Higher-Level Scaffolding

Jane felt she scaffolded the students by guiding them, starting with the least amount of support and moving to more support based on the students' responses to the scaffolding and on her knowledge of the students (Interview, May 19, 2011). She also referred to this as moving from general to more specific scaffolding (Interview, May 12, 2011). Lower-level scaffolds that Jane used were prompting the student to think, reflect, take action, talk, or explain. These supports did not tell the students what to think, say, explain, or fix in their reading. Jane's scaffolding became higher level when she prompted students more specifically and directed their attention to aspects of words, components of fluent reading, or components of the text. Her highest-level of scaffolding included telling the student a word, providing the steps a proficient reader uses to accomplish a reading task, modeling how to perform a proficient reading quality, or explaining a component of the text. Jane viewed her role as supporting students to

problem solve when they encountered difficulty in reading. Thus, she began with lower-

level supports first. Jane explained:

> So you just get more specific but you really want them [the students] to do
> the pecking and the hunting for it. Because then otherwise I'm always
> coming to their rescue. And I don't want to come in and rescue them right
> away. Sometimes it's just sitting there, watching them, ready to jump in if
> I have to, but trying to see them problem solve (Interview, April 14,
> 2011).

Jane scaffolded the students to complete the reading task using lower-level supports and

moving to higher-level scaffolds as needed. Her scaffolding decisions depended on her

knowledge of the child's needs and strengths and her knowledge of proficient reading.

This finding reasserts cognitive tenets as well as research studies of expert teaching,

scientifically research-based instruction and intervention, scaffolding, and literacy

coaching.

     Sociocultural perspective. Vygotsky's ZPD established that a child's potential

development is what a child can accomplish with the support of a more knowledgeable

other. Jane acted as a more knowledgeable other and supported the students' reading by

scaffolding. She determined when a component of reading was beyond the child's ability

through her diagnosis. Then she provided lower-level support at first, waiting and

watching to see how the student responded to this support. Again, she diagnosed the

student's actions and responses. If the student read or thought correctly about the text

with a lower-level support, Jane did not provide more scaffolding. However, if the

student did not read or think correctly about the text, Jane provided higher-level

scaffolding based on the student's response, her knowledge of the student, and the

qualities of proficient reading. Thus, Jane scaffolded in the child's ZPD by supporting

the child when s/he could not read or think about the text accurately on his/her own.

Rogoff (1990) who drew heavily on Vygotsky's sociocultural perspective acknowledged that learners depend on others with more experience to assist with completing a new task, but eventually they take on more responsibility for participating in the activity, until they are able to complete the activity on their own. In regards to this study, Jane supported the students by identifying their specific needs and providing lower-level prompts to determine what they could accomplish on their own and where they needed more support. Furthermore, Jane expected the students to take on more responsibility for the reading task. Thus, she specifically named and explained qualities of proficient reading that the students had control of and those that they were still developing. Jane's scaffolding changed as the students developed qualities of proficient reading (Interview, August 11, 2011), meaning they were taking responsibility for their reading.

Cognitive perspective toward reading. Reading becomes a self-extending system when the reader is able to engage in reading tasks alone, without teacher scaffolds, and still improves his or her cognitive abilities (Clay, 1991). Jane's ultimate goal was to develop proficient readers. To accomplish this, Jane scaffolded students in such a way that they developed an understanding of how to problem solve when reading, while gaining an understanding of the qualities of proficient reading so that in the future they would implement these qualities when they read. Hence, she used lower-level supports first to encourage the students to problem solve the reading task with as a little support as possible. When necessary, she provided higher-level support.

Cognitive perspective toward teacher decision-making. When looking at teacher decision-making, a cognitive perspective established that teachers are reflective practitioners. Reflective problem-solving involved identifying the problem, framing the

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problem, generating possible solutions, gathering further evidence, reframing the problem

in response to new evidence, implementing a solution, and evaluating the effectiveness of

the solution (as cited in Vacca, Vacca, and Bruneau, 2005). Jane observed a student and

diagnosed a quality of proficient reading that the student was not displaying. Then she

scaffolded with a lower-level support. Observing the student's actions and response to

the support allowed Jane to gather further evidence about the student's needs. If

necessary, Jane would provide higher-level supports until the student had accomplished

the task. Throughout this process, Jane evaluated the effectiveness of her scaffolding by

changing the kind and level of scaffolding she provided.

Expert teaching literature. Mercer (2002) found that expert teachers used

questions to discover students' initial understandings and adjusted instruction

accordingly, to guide students' understanding, and to foster student reflection and

reasoning. In this study, the questions or statements Jane used were referred to as

prompts. Jane used her prompts to discover the students' initial understandings about the

text and adjusted her scaffolding to the students' comprehension needs. Therefore, she

was guiding the students' understanding of the text – both at a surface level (e.g.

summary, main ideas) and a deeper level (e.g. inferring). Furthermore, Jane used

prompts to foster problem solving while reading and to foster student reflection about

reading strengths and needs. Another characteristic of expert teachers included modeling

the use of problem-solving strategies. Modeling was a higher-level scaffold that Jane

used, especially when she wanted students to understand what fluent reading sounded

like or when she wanted students to understand the processes proficient readers use to

understand text. Expert teachers are kidwatchers who notice ways to capitalize on

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students' strengths while meeting their needs (Owocki, 2005). Similar to studies that examine kidwatching (Owocki; Owocki & Goodman, 2002), this study found that Jane listened to students orally read and make comments about their books. She then identified their strengths and needs, prompted them with questions to discover their reasoning and thinking processes, and encouraged them to reflect on their reading. The IRA (2000) identified an excellent reading teacher as one who tailored instruction to individual students and who helped students who were having difficulty. Jane exemplified both of these traits. Her scaffolding was tailored to individual students, and her focus was on helping struggling readers become proficient.

Reading intervention literature. Jane was deliberate and explicit with her scaffolding, especially when she described the steps or strategies proficient readers use. This supported assertions by Allington (2002), Edmonds et al. (2009), Mathes et al., 2005; Swanson (1999), and Torgesen (2002) that reading instruction must be explicit, meaning students are taught skills and strategies directly. Furthermore, at-risk readers need carefully scaffolded instruction (Torgesen). Jane provided carefully scaffolded instruction, using her knowledge of proficient reading and her diagnoses of the students' needs and strengths. Jane's intervention was classified as an individualized intervention (Vaughn et al., 2008). Components of this type of intervention are: increased instructional decision making based on student assessment results, flexibility in the use of time to address specific student needs, and responsive to students' needs. Jane used her observations of students, her running records, and her anecdotal notes to make instructional decisions. She was flexible in the time she spent with each child and with text introductions and discussions in order to meet the specific needs of the students.

Swanson conducted a meta-analysis of intervention research for adolescent students and found instructional components that increased the treatment effectiveness in the area of reading comprehension: providing a directed response or question, controlling the difficulty of the task, elaborating on concepts, procedures, and/or steps, modeling the steps, instructing in a small group setting, and providing strategy cues. Furthermore, components of word recognition instruction that led to treatment effectiveness were: sequencing the steps in the task, fading the prompts or cues, matching the difficulty level of the task to the student, using step-by-step prompts, breaking down the skill into smaller parts, directing students to look over the material prior to instruction, focusing students' attention on particular information, providing information prior to a task, and/or stating objectives of the task prior to commencing. Most of these instructional components were evident in the way Jane scaffolded the students. Jane, however, began typically with the most lower-level scaffold and then moved to higher-level scaffolds as needed. Swanson's findings showed that the teacher faded the prompts or cues, meaning as the child showed proficiency with the reading task, the teacher faded the support. Edmonds et al. (2009) also conducted a meta-analysis of intervention research on older readers and found that these readers benefited from instruction that included modeling, thinking aloud how to self-question and reflect during and after reading, and engaging students in actively monitoring their understanding of text. These were also components of Jane's scaffolding. Modeling and thinking aloud were higher-level forms of scaffolding that Jane provided. Allington (2002) talked about reading interventions including personalized teaching, in that a teacher assessed students' needs and then

matched instruction to those needs. This was the essence of how Jane worked with the students in this intervention.

Scaffolding literature. Pea (2004) explained that dynamic assessment and the scaffolding process are cyclical in that the adult considers the learner's assessed level of performance and provides appropriate scaffolding in response to that level, always working toward the learner's autonomous performance. Jane was diagnositic and used her ongoing diagnosis to scaffold students. Her ultimate goal was for students to be reflective, proficient readers who problem solved when they encountered difficulty. Therefore, her scaffolding typically began with lower-level supports first. She wanted the students to problem solve their reading. She knew if she always rescued the students by providing an answer or showing them what to do, they would attribute their success to her (Interview, June 24, 2011). She wanted their success to be attributed to their effort (Interview, June 24, 2011).

Jane's scaffolding differed slightly from what much of scaffolding literature has asserted. For example, the term fading or gradual withdrawal of scaffolding referred to the decrease in the amount and/or level of support provided, based on the child's current competency level (van de Pol et al., 2010). Fading began with the teacher assuming all the responsibility for performing a task in the initial stage (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Then the task became shared between teacher and students. Finally, the student assumed all responsibility of the task or independent strategy use. Jane followed this model when scaffolding fluent reading. She began by modeling how fluent reading should sound and then shifted to reading with the child, if necessary. Finally, she expected the child to read fluently and typically provided lower-level prompts if the child did not read fluently on

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later occasions. When it came to other proficient reading qualities, Jane typically scaffolded first with a lower-level prompt because she wanted the students to problem solve. She did not assume the responsibility for performing the task because she did not want to rescue the students, but wanted the students to problem solve their reading. This was similar to how Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) described scaffolding. The tutors in their study were to allow the children to do as much as possible on their own. When necessary, the tutors would instruct verbally before providing more direct scaffolds.

Scaffolding terms. A teacher provided feedback by giving information about a performance, both the strengths and the needs of the learner (Sadler, 1989). This type of scaffolding allowed the learner to improve his/her performance the next time (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). Jane provided feedback during her scaffolding by explicitly explaining the strengths and needs of the students. Many times Jane prompted the students to reflect on their performance first and then affirmed their comments and/or added to their comments by providing more feedback about the performance. Another scaffolding term was reducing the degrees of freedom, or simplifying the task by reducing the number of acts or steps to reach a solution (Wood et al., 1976). Jane accomplished this by providing higher-level scaffolds when necessary. Jane provided lower-level support typically first, then observed the students' responses, and provided higher-level scaffolding to support task accomplishment, if needed. Direction maintenance was another scaffolding intervention strategy. This term referred to the role the teacher played in directing the learner's attention to the next step in the task. Jane directed the students' attention to next steps in a task, by drawing their attention to steps proficient readers use, such as thinking of words they know to figure out words they do not recognize. The last

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scaffolding intervention strategy was marking critical features. This referred to the teacher's role in drawing the learner's attention to the relevant or critical components of the task. Jane directed the students' attention to important components of the proficient reading qualities. For instance, when she determined that Cole had trouble identifying multisyllabic words, she directed his attention to the meaning of the text, using the context to figure out the word. When this did not result in correct identification of the word, Jane directed Cole's attention to look at the word in chunks. Again, Cole did not correctly identify the word, so Jane had him write the word in chunks. Cole then identified the word correctly. Thus, Jane drew Cole's attention to the relevant components of the task. First, use the context to figure out the word. Second, look at the word in chunks to figure it out. Third, write the word in chunks to figure it out. Jane continued to scaffold with different supports until Cole was able to identify the word.

Scaffolding research. Palincsar and Brown (1984) conducted a mixed methods study about the effectiveness of reciprocal teaching. They found that the teacher continuously adjusted instruction based on the students' current competencies. Jane's scaffolding was a continuous adjustment based on the students' strengths and needs. Jane typically began with a lower-level scaffold, shifting to a higher-level scaffold when a student did not succeed with accurate reading after the lower-level scaffold. Palincsar and Brown also discovered that the students and teacher were mutually responsible for accomplishing the task and that the teacher acted less as a model and more as a coach as the students adopted more of the skills essential to the task. Jane acted more as a coach than a model because she typically began with the least amount of support first. A qualitative study conducted by Gillies and Boyle (2005) explained the types of scaffolded

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interactions that occurred between teachers and students. These included "probing and clarifying to extend children's thinking, acknowledging and validating children's understandings, focusing on key issues, confronting discrepancies in their thinking, challenging children to identify problem issues, validating children's ideas, and tentatively offering suggestions" (Gillies & Boyle, p. 254). When Jane scaffolded the students' comprehension, she probed the students to think and talk about the text, clarified their thinking by restating it in a concise manner, directed their attention to aspects of the text that were important, and explained an aspect of the text when necessary.

Two studies most like this study revealed similar findings about scaffolding. Many (2002) conducted a naturalistic study to describe the nature of scaffolding during conversations in different instructional contexts. Findings from this study showed that scaffolding with the greatest amount of support involved the teacher or more knowledgeable peer providing direct assistance to the learner, supplying additional information to the learner, clarifying information that the learner had already encountered, or modeling a strategy or an understanding to the learner. Furthermore, more interactive scaffolding included using "questions or prompting statements to elicit additional information from students and to guide students' efforts" and using "verbal or nonverbal methods to focus students' attention on particular areas" (Many, p. 384). Finally, scaffolding with the greatest amount of student participation included students in "monitoring their own understanding or strategy use" (Many, p. 384). Additionally, this kind of scaffolding involved the teacher naming effective processes the students used or in-depth understandings the students had. All of these findings were confirmed in my

study. However, I did not explain the scaffolding with the same terms. For example, instead of saying the scaffolding elicited the students to monitor their own understanding or strategy use, I said Jane used lower-level prompts to encourage the students to take action and to reflect. Rodgers (2004) conducted a naturalistic study in order to describe the nature of effective scaffolding provided by Reading Recovery teachers who were tutoring first grade struggling readers. One aspect of Rodgers' study was describing the level of help provided. Rodgers broke this down into four categories, from most to least helpful: telling, demonstrating, directing, and questioning. My classifications were similar. Demonstrating or modeling constituted the most support. Directing attention was a middle-level scaffold. Questioning or prompting represented the least amount of support.

Instructional scaffolding literature supported this finding. Wood (2003) established five levels of scaffolding support:

Level One: General Verbal Intervention

Level Two: Specific Verbal Intervention

Level Three: Specific Intervention and Nonverbal Information

Level Four: Prepares for the next action

Level Five: Demonstrates action (p. 12).

Wood did state that each move or scaffold was a hypothesis about how much help the learner needed to do what it was they were trying to do. Jane provided lower-level to specific scaffolding typically. Her first level was a lower-level verbal prompt to take action, reflect, think, talk, or explain, like Wood's first level. Jane's scaffolds could be viewed as hypotheses. The student's response and action informed Jane's next move.

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Wood described the general verbal intervention as signaling to the student that you are monitoring his/her activity without providing a distinct goal or objective. Jane used her lower-level scaffolds to show the student she was monitoring his/her activity and to prompt the child to do something. Jane's second level was providing a higher-level verbal prompt, like Wood's level two. Wood described this as providing some action or aspect of the task for the student to pay attention to. Jane's level three was directing the student's attention to a particular aspect of a word, the way reading should sound, or a particular aspect of the text. Wood's differed slightly from Jane's; he described level three as providing a specific verbal intervention with a nonverbal cue or providing clues that help the student solve the problem. Hence, his level is different in that Jane did not typically use nonverbal cues, but it is similar to Jane's, in that Jane was providing clues to help the student with his/her reading by directing his/her attention to components of the text, a word, or how reading should sound. Level four consisted of telling the student a word, modeling how to read the text fluently, providing the steps proficient readers use to complete a reading task, or explaining a component of the text to the student. Wood's fifth level was most similar to Jane's fourth level. Wood's fifth level consisted of modeling or demonstrating an action or taking complete control of the action. Wood's fourth level consisted of giving the learner two options, thus narrowing the actions s/he could take. With Jane, I only noticed her do this once with Cole when she said, "Is it 'temperature and light' or 'temperatures and light'?" (Observation, May 16, 2011). This was marked as a specific scaffold. Wood's levels were developed for tutors, showing them how to scaffold tutees. Thus, they were meant for a variety of learning contexts, not just reading. Torgesen (2002) shared this key component of instructional scaffolding

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in literacy contexts: a child is guided by the teacher to discover crucial information or strategies needed to accomplish the task, rather than being told what to do. This was the essence of how Jane scaffolded.

Summary. Though most of these findings reasserted what research has said about diagnosing students' needs and strengths, there were a few differences. Jane's scaffolding typically began with a lower-level prompt and then moved to higher-level as needed. Those who developed the terms fading and gradual withdraw of scaffolding shared that scaffolding begins with the most support and then fades, as the child becomes competent with the task. This nuance adds to the current research because teachers of reading may want to begin with the least amount of support to foster strategic action on the part of the student. Also, it fosters a sense of agency, that one can accomplish goals if s/he puts forth effort.

Contributions to Existing Literature

To extend Block and Duffy's (2008) comprehension strategy list, three decoding strategies that emerged from this study can be added, including: looking at word parts or chunks, noticing prefixes and suffixes, and using knowledge of similar words. Furthermore, when explaining their strategy called 'Evaluate,' they could say something like: Read a fictional text, evaluating the actions of the characters, the elements that motivate the characters, and the traits of the characters (e.g. greedy, hard-working, naïve, etc.). A third nuance had to do with Block and Duffy's strategy called 'Predict.' They could add text structure as a component, instead of just text features. They could also create a strategy about using text features and structure to understand the text, therefore, going beyond just using text features to predict about the content of the text.

Most of this study's findings about scaffolding were reasserted by previous research and literature. However, some scaffolding literature did not assert this study's finding that scaffolding begin with lower-level supports and move to higher-level supports when necessary. Some said to begin with the most specific scaffolding and then gradually withdraw the support as the child takes on responsibility for comprehending his/her reading (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983; as cited in Duke & Pearson, 2002). Another (Wood, 2003) presented the option of using the least amount of support first when scaffolding in any setting. Jane typically scaffolded oral reading and reading comprehension with the least amount of support first, moving to higher-level support as needed.

The idea of providing lower-level scaffolds first also extends the scaffolding literature because it presents the teacher as a guide who assists a child in discovering crucial information or strategies needed to accomplish the task, rather than telling the child what to do. This supports and extends Torgesen's (2002) explanation of instructional literacy scaffolding. Jane wanted all of the students to become reflective and proficient readers who developed a sense of agency about reading. Jane felt struggling readers lacked a sense of agency, often feeling hopeless about their reading. Jane wanted to shift this mindset to one of hopefulness. By hopefulness, she wanted the students to believe that their effort and their actions impacted their success in reading. To develop this quality, Jane scaffolded the students at a lower-level at first because she wanted them to discover strategies and steps proficient readers use.

Implications of Findings

The findings from this study have pedagogical and theoretical implications (see Table 6). The following section is organized around the three findings with the pedagogical and theoretical implications explained. Pedagogical implications are divided into implications for college literacy preparation courses, school districts, and teachers. Theoretical implications are divided into a sociocultural perspective, a cognitive perspective toward reading, and a cognitive perspective toward teacher-decision making.

Table 6

Implications of Findings

Major Findings	Pedagogical	Theoretical
Possessing In-Depth Knowledge of Qualities of Proficient Reading	• University literacy preparation courses – instruct in proficient reading • School districts – teachers possess knowledge of proficient reading • Teachers – scaffold proficient reading qualities	• Cognitive perspective toward reading – develop proficiency with reading • Cognitive perspective toward teacher-decision making – knowledge of qualities of proficient reading
Diagnosing Students' Strengths and Needs	• University literacy preparation courses - diagnose strengths and needs of children • School districts - differentiate instruction • Teachers –determine students' strengths and needs	• Sociocultural perspective – instruct in students' ZPD and consider learning history
Providing Lower-Level to Higher-Level Scaffolding	• University literacy preparation courses –scaffolding opportunities • School districts –use knowledge of proficient reading • Teachers –develop ability to change scaffolding	• Sociocultural perspective –begin with lower-level scaffolds and then shift to higher-level scaffolding

Depth of knowledge of proficient reading. This finding has pedagogical implications for university literacy preparation courses, school districts, and teachers. First of all, those who teach literacy preparation courses can provide instruction in proficient reading qualities. Based on the findings from this study, it is recommended that universities offer opportunities for their students to identify proficient reading qualities when observing children and peers read aloud, talk about books, and discuss books. It is recommended that course discussions center on understanding proficient reading qualities and how to identify these qualities. Secondly, it is recommended that school districts hire teachers who possess knowledge of proficient reading qualities. Another recommendation is to expect their teachers to possess this knowledge and to be able to identify proficient reading qualities in children. Furthermore, school districts can encourage professional development opportunities, professional learning communities, and mentoring that focus on proficient reading qualities and supporting students who struggle with proficient reading. When selecting literacy coaches and reading interventionists, school districts can make sure they possess an in-depth knowledge of proficient reading qualities. Finally, teachers can strive to understand proficient reading and should be able to identify these qualities in their students, using this information to scaffold their students to become proficient readers.

A cognitive tenet is reading becomes automatic when it is practiced proficiently. For students to become proficient readers, it is recommended that teachers scaffold the steps and strategies of proficient reading. The child must practice these steps and strategies to become automatic. A cognitive tenet toward teacher-decision making is

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reflective problem solving. For teachers to scaffold students' reading, it is recommended that they possess a depth of knowledge of proficient reading. This can inform their reflective problem solving, as they consider what the child is doing proficiently and what is not yet proficient.

Diagnosing students' needs and strengths. This finding has pedagogical implications for college literacy preparation courses, school districts, and teachers. First of all, it is recommended that those who teach literacy preparation courses provide opportunities for students to diagnose the strengths and needs of children. They can support these students in identifying possible scaffolds based on the children's strengths and needs. Providing opportunities for students to diagnose children's strengths and needs and then scaffold children would be ideal. Secondly, it is recommended that school districts expect their teachers to diagnose students' needs and strengths in relation to proficiency with a learning task. It is recommended that teachers to differentiate their instruction to meet the needs of the children. Furthermore, it is recommended that professional development opportunities, professional learning communities, and mentoring or coaching center on diagnosing children's needs and strengths and generating possible scaffolds geared toward particular needs of children. It is recommended that a one-size-fits-all not be the motto, but rather providing a custom fit. When selecting literacy coaches and reading interventionists, it is recommended that school districts make sure they are able to diagnose students' needs and strengths and scaffold accordingly. Plus, they may need to be able to assist teachers with diagnosing and scaffolding. Finally, it is recommended that teachers are diagnostic of their children's strengths and needs and use that knowledge to differentiate their instruction.

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A sociocultural tenet identifies Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as the distance between a child's actual and potential development. It also establishes the importance of a child's learning history. To understand a child's ZPD, it is recommended that a teacher understand the strengths and needs of the child in relation to proficiency with a task. It is also recommended that the teacher consider the child's learning history and how the needs and strengths of students change as they develop proficiency with the steps or strategies of a task.

Providing lower-level to higher-level scaffolding. This finding has pedagogical implications for university literacy preparation courses, school districts, and teachers. First of all, it is recommended that those who teach literacy preparation courses should teach about levels of scaffolding and provide scaffolding opportunities. Placing the students in one-to-one settings where they have to determine the needs of a child and then provide scaffolding would be valuable. These students could use lower-level prompts at first, wait and observe how the child responds, and then provide additional scaffolds if needed. Time to discuss these opportunities would allow the students to explore and understand scaffolding. Secondly, it is recommended that school districts expect their teachers to scaffold their students based on the their needs and strengths, beginning with lower-level prompts first and moving toward higher-level scaffolds as needed. Finally, it is recommended that teachers diagnose students' needs and strengths, provide a lower-level scaffold to support those needs, observe how the students respond to the scaffold, and provide additional specific scaffolding if needed. It is also recommended that teachers expect the students to take responsibility for problem solving and should act as a guide with their scaffolding.

A sociocultural tenet confirms that learning cannot be separated from the context in which it occurred. To scaffold, it is recommended that a teacher diagnoses the students' needs and strengths while interacting with the students, and then chooses lower-level prompts to encourage the students to take action or fix an error. Observing the students' responses to the prompts may lead the teacher to determine an additional, higher-level scaffold to be provide. This continues until the child has been guided to accomplish the task.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study looked at how an experienced district literacy teacher scaffolded struggling fourth grade readers during a small group reading intervention. Future qualitative studies should explore how experienced classroom teachers scaffold struggling readers both in one-to-one settings and small group settings. Furthermore, qualitative studies should explore how experienced teachers scaffold students of varying reading abilities in a classroom. This study did not focus on the writing component of the intervention, but that would be another area for future research to explore. Finally, exploring how experienced teachers develop a sense of agency and reflection in their students would be a topic for future research.

With this study, I can conduct additional analysis of the data by uncovering how the findings are interrelated. Initially, I find them to be hierarchical with depth of knowledge of proficient reading to be the first component Jane considers when determining what to scaffold. She uses this knowledge to diagnose the student's needs and strengths. Then she provides a lower-level scaffold typically first and then moves to higher-level.

DISTRICT COACH RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

I, Jenni Haner, am a PhD student at the University of Missouri. I am beginning my dissertation under the direction of Elizabeth A. Baker, my advisor. I want to research a district, literacy coach and how she scaffolds the learning of students in a small group, reading intervention. I would like to research you and the scaffolding you provide students in your small group, reading intervention after school. The findings from this study will be published as a dissertation.

When you are invited to participate in research, you have the right to be informed about the study procedures so that you can decide whether you want to consent to participate. Your participation is <u>voluntary</u>. You will be informed of any changes in the study.

This study will occur throughout your Spring 2011, small group, reading intervention that is held immediately after school on Mondays, Tuesdays, and Wednesdays. When research begins, every time you meet with your small group intervention, data will be collected. This is expected to occur until the completion of your intervention group, which should occur toward the end of the 2011school year. The intervention sessions will be recorded using an audio recorder. The audio recorder will record the conversations between you and the students. Immediately following the intervention sessions, I will interview you about the scaffolding you provided. These interviews will occur spontaneously. I will conduct interviews with you weekly; the weekly interviews will be semi-structured and may involve reviewing transcripts or recordings to discuss the scaffolding you provided. All interviews will be audio-recorded. The children's written responses, pre- and post- assessments, and ongoing assessments from the intervention will be copied. Your name and the children's names will be removed from any documents collected and will not be used in the transcripts, but will be replaced with a participant pseudonym. Your identity and participation will remain confidential. All data explained above will be stored in a locked, file box. Data uploaded on the computer will be only accessible with a password. The data collected will be stored for seven years following the completion of the study.

Your participation will benefit those who want to understand purposeful, teacher scaffolding. Your participation in this study is not expected to cause you any risks. Since this study occurs during your after-school intervention, it should not cause any risks beyond what occurs during a normal, after-school activity. You may choose to withdraw from the study at any time with no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you choose to withdraw from the study, all data collected will be shredded and will not be used in my dissertation. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Throughout the study, you will receive three gift certificates to Amazon for twenty-five dollars each, as a thank you for your participation. You will receive these gift certificates on March 30, 2011, April 30, 2011, and May 25, 2011. Receiving these gift certificates are not contingent upon you finishing the study.

You can contact me with questions or concerns. You can reach me at jehrt5@mail.missouri.edu. You can contact my advisor, Elizabeth Baker, with questions or concerns at (573) 882-4831 (work). You can also reach her at BakerE@missouri.edu or 303 Townsend Hall, Columbia, MO 65211. You may also contact the Campus Institutional Review Board if you have questions about your rights, concerns, complaints or comments as a research participant.

Project #1188077: Reading Scaffolding in an Upper Elementary Small Group Intervention

Campus Institutional Review Board
483 McReynolds Hall
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573-882-9585
E-Mail: umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu
Website: http://www.research.missouri.edu/cirb/index.htm

SIGNATURE

I have read this consent form and any questions have been answered. I know that if I check 'Participate', I am agreeing to participate in the study. I know that if I check 'Not Participate', I am declining my invitation to participate. I know that I can remove myself from the study at any time without any problems if I choose to participate.

____ **Participate**   ____ **Not Participate**

_____   _____
Participant Signature   **Date**

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APPENDIX B

YOUTH ASSENT FORM

I am a student at the University of Missouri. I am beginning a project to learn how your reading teacher helps you with your reading.

You are invited to be a part of this project. I will tell you what is going to happen so that you can decide if you want to be a part of this project or not. This project will happen while you are in your reading group. Every time you meet with your reading teacher, I will come to take notes. I will also have a voice recorder. The voice recorder will move with me. I will use it to record the things your reading teacher and you say. I will sit near your reading teacher to do this. I may copy the things the reading teacher does with you, like the notes she takes, the tests she gives you, the things you write, and the lessons she uses. Your name will be taken off of these copies. This way it will stay secret.

You may choose to be a part of this project or not. If you do choose to be a part of the project, you can choose later to not be a part of the project, if you want. You will not get into trouble for doing this. You will get a drink box and a snack for bringing this paper and your parent or guardian's paper back within seven days. It does not matter if you or your parent says yes or no. You will still get a drink box and a snack.

You can talk to your reading teacher about this project at any time.

SIGNATURE

I know what this project is. I have asked the questions I have. I know that I can check 'Yes' if I want to be a part of this project. I know that I can check 'No' if I do not want to be a part of this project. I know I can choose later to not be a part of this project, if I want.

_____ Yes   _____ No

_____   _____
Child's Signature   **Date**

PARENTAL RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

I, Jenni Haner, am a reading interventionist. I am also a PhD student at the University of Missouri. I am beginning my dissertation under the direction of Elizabeth A. Baker, my advisor. I want to research a district, literacy coach and how she assists students in a small group, reading intervention. Your child is one of the students in the small group, reading intervention. The purpose of this research is to understand and describe the level of reading assistance provided by a district, literacy coach to students in the intermediate grades.

When your child is invited to participate in research, you have the right to be informed about the study procedures so that you can decide whether you want to consent to your child's participation. Your child's participation is voluntary. Your child can be removed from the study at any time. You will be informed of any changes in the study.

This study will occur throughout your child's involvement in the small group, reading intervention after school on Mondays, Tuesdays, and Wednesdays. When research begins, every time your child meets with the district coach in his/her small group intervention, data will be collected. This will continue throughout the remainder of the intervention, which should come to completion toward the end of the 2011 school year. The intervention sessions will be recorded using an audio recorder. The audio recorder will record the conversations between the literacy coach and the students. Your child's written responses, pre- and post- assessments, and ongoing assessments from the intervention will be copied. Your child's name will be removed from any documents collected and will be replaced with a pseudonym. Your child's identity and participation will remain confidential. All data explained above will be stored in a locked, file box. Data uploaded on the computer will be protected by a password. The data collected will be stored for seven years following the completion of the study.

Your child's participation will benefit those who want to understand purposeful, teacher assistance. Whether or not you choose to have your child participate, your child will receive a treat for returning their consent forms in a timely manner. Your child's participation in this study is not expected to cause your child any risks. Since this study occurs during your child's after-school intervention, it should not cause any risks beyond what occurs during a normal, after-school activity. Participating in this study will not negatively impact your child's grades. If you decide to allow your child to participate in the study, your child may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which your child is otherwise entitled. If you choose to withdraw your child after data collection has begun, all data collected from your child will be shredded and will not be used in the written analysis. If you decide not to have your child participate, there will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which your child is otherwise entitled.

You can contact me with questions or concerns. You can reach me at jehrt5@mail.missouri.edu. You can contact my advisor, Elizabeth Baker, with questions

or concerns at (573) 882-4831 (work). You can also reach her at BakerE@missouri.edu or 303 Townsend Hall, Columbia, MO 65211. You may also contact the Campus Institutional Review Board if you have questions about your rights, concerns, complaints or comments as a research participant.

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SIGNATURE

I have read this consent form and any questions have been answered. I know that if I check 'Participate', I am agreeing to allow my child to participate in this study. I know that if I check 'Not Participate', I am declining my child's invitation to participate. I know that I can remove my child from the study at any time without any problems if I choose to have my child participate.

____ **Participate**   ____ **Not Participate**

_____   _____
Parent/Legal Guardian Signature   **Date**

APPENDIX D

EXAMPLES OF INFORMAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Questions might have been:
- Why did you say _____ to (the child's name)?
- Tell me about why you _____.
- Why did you introduce the text in that way?
- Why did you introduce those phrases or words before the students read the book?
- Why did you read the first page to the students?
- With (the child's name), you said _____. Why did you do that?
- What is your goal for each student?
- How do you choose your discussion prompts? Why do you choose those prompts?
- Why did you give that focus for reading?
- (Often I would restate an interaction between the experienced district literacy coach and a child and the coach would begin talking without me providing a question.)

APPENDIX E

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Purpose: Understand the way the district literacy coach scaffolded struggling readers
- How do you scaffold students during the intervention?
- How do you decide the kind of scaffolding to provide?
- How do you decide the level of scaffolding to provide?
- How do you decide how to introduce a text?
- Where do you want the students to be by the end of the intervention?
- Talk about the way you introduced that book. What were you wanting students to know?
- Why did you choose that book?
- You directed the child's attention to _____. Why did you do that?
- What do you think (the child's name) still needs?
- After conducting a running record with (the child's name), what did you think were his/her strengths and weaknesses?
- When you discussed with the students, you restated what they said in a concise way. Why did you do that?
- Talk about your message to children about the author's intent regarding nonfiction text. How does it compare to your message of author's intent for fictional text?

Purpose of In-depth Questions: Understand the district coach's beliefs and views of student learning and scaffolding
- What is scaffolding?
- What knowledge does a reading teacher need in order to scaffold a struggling reader? Do you see some aspects more pertinent than others?
- You have talked about knowing your readers and not knowing your readers. What does that mean to 'know a reader'? When do you know a reader?
- What information about the reader do you use for the intervention? Do you notice any change in the reader over the course of an intervention?
- When you think of self-monitoring, what do you think a reader is doing?

RAW DATA FOR REFERENTIAL ADEQUACY

4-19-11
Making Special Effects
Phase 2
Reading Conference with Cole

Jane: Today I want to introduce you to a new book. Just to see what you do on something new. Okay. I'm to tell you a little bit about this book. This book is called *Making Special Effects*. Do you know what special effects are in movies?

Cole: Yah. They like have strings on you, but they don't . . .

Jane: Yah. So this book is full of all that kind of stuff. But one of the things that they consider special effects is stunts. Have you ever heard of stunt men?

Cole: Yah.

Jane: Yah. So this little page here, this section, is all I want you to read is about stunts and that's part of special effects. Okay. I want you to read the best you can.

Cole: [Reads aloud. Read 'assistants' for 'artists'. Read 'portrain' for 'portray'.] This one looks like he has strings on because usually that's how they do those.

Jane: Talk about what you understand about stunts now.

Cole: Well, all kinds of stunts are dangerous, but they have to be really good at it. They have to practice, practice, and practice. Like the horse stunt, some people need to know how to fall off the horse safely. So that's what the girl's doing. And the person with the motorbike is doing something really dangerous, that he shouldn't be doing, but he's really good at it, so they have him in a movie doing that.

Jane: Okay. I want you to go back. I think for the most you started off really well. Do you think you understood this as you kept reading?

Cole: Kind of.

Jane: Kind of. I kind of got that idea too. What part did you not understand?

Cole: Probably the stunt assistants.

Jane: Uh-huh. I saw you looking a little bit and then you quit. . . and that word came up quite a bit, didn't it?

Cole: Uh-huh.

Jane: So what might have been helpful that you'd done?

Cole: Use my finger and go back and say the words that I would know.

Jane: Okay, did that help you any?

Cole: Yah, but that's 'art' and if you say that, it's 'twisted'.

Jane: Is it?

Cole: Twist.

Jane: If it was twist, what would be in there?

Cole: An 'e'.

Jane: What would be in there if it was 'tw ist' [Enunciated the 'w']?

Cole: 'u'

Jane: T Wuh IST

Cole: 'w'

Jane: W in there. So you got the 'art' part. What's that part? [Motions to 'ist' in artist]

Cole: Assistant. Art assistant.

Jane: Art assistant is a pretty long word. Assistant. Isn't it? You're on the right track, but you can't quit looking. You kind of got the first part. This is the second part and then there's an 's' on it.

Cole: Uh-huh.

Jane: What's this part?

Cole: There's an apostrophe.

Jane: No, it's not an apostrophe. What's this part? [Wrote 'ist']

Cole: That's 'is'. 'Ist.'

Jane: 'Ist.' Put it together.

Cole: Artist.

Jane: Sometimes it pays to slow down and you were working really hard at slowing down. But what happened to that here?

Cole: It started going faster.

Jane: Yah. I noticed that, did you?

Cole: Mmm-hmm.

Jane: Okay, so on something new like that, maybe you forgot or didn't think it about because it's still a habit for you. So I need you to still slow down because I was checking to see if this was a just right text for next time. So I have to think about that. So I think you kind of understood it, but if you would have slowed down and thought a little more about it. You made it make sense. Assistant sounds right, doesn't it?

Cole: Mmm-hmm.

Jane: Alright, remember that.

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VITA

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