

“IT’S ALL ABOUT THE KIDS:” SCHOOL CULTURE, IDENTITY, AND FIGURED
WORLDS

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Abstract

HEATHER ANN BOWER: “It’s All About the Kids:” School Culture, Identity, and Figured Worlds
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This study examines aspects of school culture by way of teachers’ identities. The research utilizes quantitative and qualitative inquiry in an attempt to capture both a static snapshot of the culture and a thicker description of that snapshot by examining one low-performing, urban elementary school’s implementation of academic optimism as a type of cultural reform. Utilizing the theory of figured worlds, an analysis of three worlds—the Accountability Culture, the District Culture, and the School Culture as Teacher Identity—forms the basis for exploring teachers’ individual and collective identities. Resistance, manifested in various ways, emerges as a mechanism through which teachers manage the three figured worlds. Three exemplar identities, the Believer, the Hopeful, and the Opposer, are utilized to explore the implications of school culture, especially as it relates to teacher identity, on school reform. Despite their different approaches to resisting reform, all three exemplar identities share a common justification for their actions: meeting student needs, a key element in academic optimism. This action defines the teachers’ identities and therefore shapes the culture. A key finding of the study describes the integral relationship between school culture and teacher identity; any efforts to reform the school culture must intimately involve teachers. Their values, beliefs, and voices are essential for the fidelity and optimal success of implemented reform. Although prepackaged cultural reform models may be an inviting and convenient way for

schools to approach change, they cannot be successful if the proposed aims and philosophy do not align with teachers' collective identities.

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Preface

My involvement with the Hawk Elementary began in the 2006-2007 school year. During that time, I was working as the College Access Programs Coordinator for the district, and I worked with Hawk Elementary to implement programs that increased students' and families' awareness of post-secondary opportunities. I left that position in the spring of 2008, but I continued to work with the school as a grant coordinator at a local university. During this time, I worked with the school to assess student and family needs and implement strategies to address these needs.

While working in this position, I developed an affinity for Hawk and its teachers. I had never seen a staff work so diligently to implement programs to serve its students and their families. I had never met teachers who were so open with their struggles and open to new approaches and ideas. I believed, and still believe, that this school and these teachers work collectively and individually in the best interest of students. I would feel comfortable with my own children being in any one of these classrooms, which is the highest compliment I can give a teacher. Even with these intense efforts and strategies being implemented by high quality teachers, though, I saw test scores falling and teachers becoming increasingly discouraged.

As I spoke with the administration, they identified three key strategies for improving student achievement: increasing rigor, improving parent involvement, and establishing professional learning communities. At the same time, I was reading about academic optimism, a school culture focused on academic emphasis, the relationships between families and teachers,

and collective efficacy of teachers. I considered it a natural pairing, and, following the qualitative tradition, I entered into a period of joint study with the school regarding their implementation of what emerged as academic optimism.

Over the course of two years, I conducted three separate studies, one on each aspect of academic optimism. During this time, I learned more about the school and became more a member of their community. I believe in reciprocity in research, and I spent numerous hours researching grants and strategies for them, participating in school events, and leveraging resources for the school. While working with teachers and administrators on this deep level, I developed a theory regarding the lack of academic achievement. There appeared to be a disconnect between what the school stated it believed and did and what I actually saw in classrooms. I described the disconnect as the espoused and lived cultures of the school respectively.

As I entered the school again, this time to complete my dissertation with them, I was focused on describing these two cultures and how they impacted reform efforts in the school. My work in Central Office often placed me in a position to help schools implement packaged reforms. In some schools, these reforms were a natural “fit.” They aligned with what the schools were already doing, and these schools soared with the model. For other schools, implementation was a challenge. The reforms required more substantial changes in beliefs and practices. Some schools were able to make these changes; some schools never fully implemented or saw the benefits from the reforms. I hypothesized that the inability to fully implement reforms because of the gap between beliefs and practice—the espoused and lived—was the cause of the lack of success at Hawk.

When I reentered the school, the administration had been removed because of the consistently low test scores. The new administrative team affirmed that they were continuing the work of implementing academic optimism as the targeted school culture, so I continued the work that I had planned. For this study, though, I only included teachers. I included administrators and staff in previous studies. I was concerned that the new administrative team would not be familiar enough with the school culture to describe it accurately.

As I began collecting data, what began to emerge from quantitative data and initial focus groups was a view of school culture as teacher identity. Reforms targeting school culture as a change mechanism were seen as a threat to teachers' identities individually and collectively. With this feedback from participants and emerging themes in the data, the dissertation became an exploration of school culture as teacher identity and its impact on school reform.

This work captures the key findings of this journey. Although it is an ethnographic case study of one school, the implications for leveraging school culture as reform may extend to other schools in similar situations. It is my hope that Hawk's story informs the work of others in the field of school reform.

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Chapter 1: Introduction and Problem Statement

When I became a central office administrator, I observed the power of school culture every day. Although all 47 schools I worked with were in the same community and received the same resources and programming from Central Office, they were vastly different despite intensified efforts to standardize the experiences of every student in the district. When I walked into some schools, there was a pervading optimism. Students and faculty seemed legitimately engaged in the work they were doing. I saw parents in the building participating in various capacities, and the office staff was generally smiling and pleasant. The concept of team and success was visible on the walls and in the way people interacted. These schools were full of joy and determination—despite the obstacles they faced.

However, other schools with the same demographics and resources were entirely different. When you walked into these schools, they felt uncomfortable. Students seemed to wander through the day—physically and mentally. Faculty watched the clock as diligently as students, and the office staff seemed reluctant to speak. Very few parents were in the building, and those that were there were generally complaining about the treatment their child had received at the hands of another student, teacher, or administrator. There was no camaraderie. Walls were mostly blank, and what was on the wall was defaced or badly aged. Ironically, many of these schools were in the same feeder pattern as some of the wonderfully warm schools I visited. They served the same neighborhoods and families.

What made these schools so vastly different? The simple answer is their culture. But what does that really mean? Although the evidence suggests that a positive school culture

increases student achievement, the definition and implementation of a positive school culture remains more elusive. Many reform efforts target cultural reform as the primary goal. The Modern Red SchoolHouse, Co-nect, The Accelerated Schools Project, New American Schools, Annenberg Challenge Schools, Success for All, The Coalition of Essential Schools, and Comer Schools are all comprehensive school reform programs and networks that specify this goal (Murphy and Datnow, 2003). These reform programs enter existing schools, with their cultures, and systematically begin implementing systems and structures to shift the school's culture. However, these programs are met with variable success. Where there is a match between the existing culture and the targeted culture, these reform strategies have been very successful (Murphy and Datnow). However, when there is a mismatch between the existing culture and the targeted culture, the same strategies have failed (Murphy and Datnow). Although the school may have adopted the espoused culture of the program, the lived culture remains unchanged, resulting in little if any true reform or success. Furthermore, as promising as culture may be as a reform strategy, shifting a culture requires more time than struggling schools often have and these packaged reforms are quite costly.

This study investigates the implications of school culture, especially as it relates to teacher identity, on school reform. Utilizing the theory of figured worlds, the school culture within one urban elementary school is studied and its relationship to school reform is explored.

School Culture

Simply stated, culture is the "belief systems, values, and cognitive structure" of an organization (Hoy, 1990, p. 151). While this sounds simple, it is actually much more complicated. Each of these elements is multifaceted and rarely explicit. Beliefs extend far

beyond written mission or vision statements, and many values are never specifically stated. Instead, these beliefs are apparent in the ways resources are utilized and the norms inculcated in the day-to-day operations of the building. Ultimately, culture is “the glue that holds an organization together and unites people around shared values and beliefs” (Bolman & Deal, 2003, p. 243). It is the often unstated agreement regarding these values that allows individuals to function as a unit. Implicitly or explicitly agreed upon values provide the framework of the organization that allows for seamless operations in a positive and functioning culture. In a culture that is disjointed or not functioning, culture can be the rift that causes an organization to crumble.

Although culture is often spoken of as an object, it is also an action, or process (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Culture is not static; it evolves as the organization faces new challenges and new people enter the dynamic. Each of these changes forces the culture to adapt. However, culture rarely changes quickly; it is too embedded in the organization to be shifted radically or rapidly. McKinney (2005) describes this process most succinctly: culture constructs the organization as the organization creates the culture. It is a reciprocal process that is ever-evolving. This evolution is part of what makes culture so difficult to quantify or study.

The incredibly broad meaning of the term “culture” limits its usefulness (Stolp & Smith, 1995). Because specific aspects of the culture are implicit, even people within the organization may be unable to define them. Furthermore, to list every aspect of an organization’s culture would be so time consuming that by the time the list was complete the culture would have likely evolved. For this reason, studies tend to focus on discrete aspects of the larger culture. Researchers most often utilize qualitative methods to try to unearth and explain the culture of the

organization (Hoy, 1990). These studies tend to be holistic (how does an organization function) and semiotic (what is their language and symbolism) (Hoy). The rich, descriptive detail developed by these studies can be very informative, but they also require significant investments of time to conduct. For this reason, numerous survey instruments have also been developed to more quickly elicit information about a school's culture. The need for quantitative data derives from the origins of school culture and its use in the modern educational arena.

Origins of Organizational Culture

Although "culture" is defined in terms of what is in the current moment, schools often operationalize the term "culture" in terms of what could be, largely because of its history within schools and school literature. The concept of "culture" originated in the business realm in the 1930s and 1940s, although the discrete term did not become common until the 1980s (Hoy, 1990). Schein (1988) outlines five conceptual origins for the term "culture" each of which encompasses a specific definition and measurement method: social psychology and survey research, empirical descriptive, ethnographic, historical, and clinical descriptive. Social psychology views culture as a property of groups that can be measured effectively by questionnaires. Similarly, empirical descriptive definitions view culture as something that must be deconstructed into discrete units that can be analyzed and measured independently. Ethnographic origins define culture as a set of functions that must be studied with sociological and anthropological methods, and historical origins of the term recognize culture as a longitudinal process requiring in-depth qualitative study. Finally, clinical descriptive definitions view culture as something that can only be studied by outside consultants to determine structures and patterns in an organization. The variety of these origins and their implications for study

illustrate the vastness of the concept of culture. While all five conceptual origins independently provide a wealth of information about a specific culture, if they are combined they create a very powerful and comprehensive analysis of an organization's culture and its impact on the functions of the organization.

Originally, culture was ignored by psychometrically-oriented investigators. Because they could not accurately measure culture, it was disregarded as an explanatory variable (Schein, 1988). In the 1950s and 1960s, however, the field of organizational psychology began to separate itself from industrial psychology (Schein). The impetus behind the creation of this new field was business models in Japan; researchers were anxious to explain why Japanese companies were consistently outperforming their American counterparts despite similarities in products and equipment (Schein). With the issue of national pride and economic security spurring them on, the new organizational psychologists started to study concepts that dealt with entire companies rather than individual work groups; their studies developed the concept of "systems" in order to explain patterns of norms and attitudes of entire organizations (Schein). These patterns ultimately evolved into the term "culture" as it is known today.

Once researchers were able to explain the patterns within an organization, they were able to help guide companies towards becoming more efficient and more globally competitive. This field of research became known as organization development, and these researchers strove "to guide the direction of [companies'] evolution" (Schein, 1988, pp. 24-5). These developments took the form of building aspects of the culture that were deemed beneficial, identifying and dismantling aspects of the culture that were considered detrimental, and beginning to learn new aspects of the culture that would help the company grow and thrive (Schein). This systematic

method of examining and rebuilding culture through external consultants became the norm in the business realm.

As culture became an integral aspect of business methodology and terminology, managers began to use the term “culture” to “refer to anything having to do with beliefs, values, norms, ideology, and managerial style” (Schein, 1988, p. 4). Essentially, culture became the catch-all term for everything that was not explicit and completely manageable in the organization. As the term became this broad, it began to become cumbersome and actually lost some of its meaning and power. Rather than labeling what was working and what was not working as the beginning of reform or reorganization, the study of an organization’s culture became a more static concept—it just “was” within the organization. Any aspect of the business that was not successful could be blamed on the culture. The culture of individual companies became too unwieldy to define in a useful or practical manner.

Although it is apparent how culture evolved in the business realm, the question of how it translated into schools and educational research is more complicated. The study of culture did not enter into schools independently; instead, it entered on the heels of business and industry. In the early 1900s, business elites comprised the majority of school board members across the country (Tyack, 1995). In order to collaborate with these influential members of the school communities, superintendents began to look for “scientific” business models to increase efficiency and make schools operate more like the business community (Tyack, p. 195). This translation of familiar business practices into schools allowed school board members to feel more at ease with the function of schools, largely by establishing a common language among themselves and the administrators regarding school improvement. By the 1960s and 1970s,

school reform became the realm of business-oriented professionals; these reformers created technical solutions to educational problems—often in the form of a packaged product that schools could purchase (Tyack). In an effort to maximize the reform methods and capitalize on business collaborations, the period of the 1960s and 1970s was dominated by the “cult of efficiency”—a business model that sought to maximize the results of each dollar spent and quantify student achievement as it was linked to specific interventions (Tyack). These reforms transformed school administrators into school managers most concerned with financial responsibility and business-like efficiency. Education and learning became quantifiable, and the fiscal bottom-line became the most significant measure.

As this era of efficiency took root, many leaders outside of schools believed it was time to “bypass traditional educators and turn to business and technology to rescue and transform education” (Tyack, 1995, p. 191). By the early 1990s, President George H. W. Bush formed the New American Schools Development Corporation (NASDC) as part of his “America 2000” educational strategy; this strategy was designed to make schools more efficient and competitive with their international counterparts (Tyack). The same global pressures that instigated the creation of the study of culture in business spurred the industrialization of schools. Interestingly, NASDC’s Board of Directors was comprised entirely of chief executive officers of large corporations; not a single educator sat on this Board (Tyack). The goal of NASDC was to transform education, and a business model seemed the most likely strategy for success. Although this Board was only one of many in the reform movement, it epitomizes the industrialization of schools; business leaders replaced education leaders as the navigators of school reorganization and reform.

The study of school culture was just one of these reform models. Although there were significant analyses of corporate culture, there were few explicit studies of culture in the schools (Hoy, 1990). Instead, loose connections between corporate and school cultures were made. The beginning of this study was replacing the existing concept of school morale (the ways schools generally feel) with the term school culture (Stolp & Smith, 1995).

In the education realm, the definition of culture retained that of the business realm. However, several additional criteria and measurements were added to the definition of school culture. Malloy (2005) asserts that “a school’s culture creates an environment where students can respond to the instruction afforded them” (p. 140). This definition clarifies that school culture not only impacts the ways schools feel, but that culture also has a direct impact on student achievement and learning. In addition, the definition of school culture recognizes that schools do not exist in a vacuum. Instead, all stakeholders (students, parents, teachers, administrators, office staff, etc.) bring their various cultures into the school; these individual cultures in turn impact the larger school culture (Finnan & Meza, 2003). Schools have the option of embracing or denying these distinct cultures, but either choice embodies numerous consequences—both positive and negative. With all of these influences, it becomes apparent that school culture is as complex as the people that work and learn within the building, and this complexity is even more abundant than in schools’ business counterparts. In a business, all people choose to work in or patronize the particular institution. Schools, however, are often a forced choice for students based on student assignment patterns. Students and families do not always have the luxury of choosing a school whose culture mirrors their own. This forced amalgamation of cultures intensifies the enormity of defining a school’s culture.

Culture as a Strategy

As the concept of school culture became more familiar within schools, culture began to be leveraged as a powerful tool because it told “people in the school what is truly important and how they are to act” (Stolp & Smith, 1995, p. 24). Furthermore, it allowed administrators to draw attention to some of the culture’s most important aspects: “the values, beliefs, and assumptions that shape...the vision of an excellent education” (Stolp & Smith, p. 29). If schools can develop a positive school culture, they can be more successful. The complicating factor, however, is the difficulty of defining a school’s culture—even individual aspects of it. As schools attempt to define their beliefs, consensus is difficult to reach, and the list of stated beliefs is often vague and meaningless, even though the undergirding beliefs of the individuals within the school—and even the school as a whole—are significantly powerful.

Even though school cultures are complex and complicated entities, schools continue to attempt to define their culture—often as a reform strategy. Positive school cultures are linked to “increased student motivation and achievement, increased teacher collaboration, and improved attitudes among teachers towards their jobs” (Stolp & Smith, 1995, p. 31). Stolp and Smith also discovered school culture can overcome family background (such as single parent, first generation graduate, etc.) and economic risk factors. These results certainly point to the need to improve school culture as a reform method and model.

By the mid-1990s, school culture became a significant aspect in studies of school restructuring. The Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools conducted a study in 1994 that posited school culture was more important than professional development to improve student achievement (Stolp & Smith, 1995). In an era where school reform and packaged

products for improving student achievement had become a lucrative business, this went against the norm. Suddenly, professional development as the cure for a school's ills was inefficient and a possible waste of funds. Also in 1994, as cited in Stolp & Smith, Kenneth Leithwood, Doris Jantzi, and Alicia Fernandez (1994) conducted a study that stated school culture was the most significant factor in the success of school restructuring.

Why does a reform model work in one district and not another? The answer may be as simple—or as complex—as the culture of the school or district itself. This is the reason that altering the structure of the school does not truly change the school—changing the culture does (Stolp & Smith, 1995). Finn and Meza (2003) extended this concept further when they stated: “Efforts to reform education are actually efforts to change the culture of districts, school, and classrooms” (p. 85). While this may be true, it is rarely explicitly stated. Instead, reform models express the purpose of the model or the philosophy and beliefs that undergird it. If schools’ beliefs do not already align with these explicit beliefs, the reform may not take root. For this reason, effective reform models utilize some aspects of the existing culture (McKinney, 2005).

If this is the case, one might wonder why schools do not examine their own cultures and their desired end results and design a reform model and methodology that would be specifically tailored to their building and its needs. Ironically, it is the general culture of schools, however, that drives the need for external models of school reform: the culture of schools at large is to seek experts and “best practices,” propelling schools to seek solutions outside of themselves (McKinney, 2005). Perhaps even more ironically, these experts that design the best practice models know little about the individual school and its situation, creating a model that is based on schools generically rather than individual buildings, students, or faculties. When a school

chooses this model, although well-intentioned, it may actually do more harm if the model directly flouts the existing culture.

Even reform models that are less scripted and focused on specific practices do not fully consider the unique cultures of individual schools. Purkey and Smith (1985) outlined a framework for implementing cultural reform as school reform. The model outlines 13 key areas of school culture that must be addressed to achieve reform. Although the model calls for ground up planning, one area, district support, specifically states that entities outside of the school should help facilitate the reform (Purkey and Smith). The subtle shift in ownership suggests that schools do not retain control of their culture, which may inhibit reform.

More progressive reformers argue that cultural change as a reform strategy must take a more local form in the 21st century. Darling-Hammond (1993) posits that in order for schools to produce students that are prepared for 21st century careers, schools must abandon restructuring as a reform and embrace redesign of schooling. In a redesign model, teachers must be given the freedom to implement curriculum and practices that best meet the needs of their students. Furthermore, the redesign model requires a different form of accountability, a system in which student growth in critical thinking and effective communication is the measure of success, teachers are viewed as capable of ensuring such growth, and teachers are held accountable for student growth in these areas. In Darling-Hammonds' model, reform becomes a redesign of localized practice where policy makers and administrators take a supporting, rather than mandating, role. With respect to the redesign model, each school culture is continually reformed as it responds to the needs of students and teachers.

Measuring School Culture

Although school culture is touted as a reform strategy, measuring and describing the culture of an individual school remains a challenge because culture itself is difficult to quantify and measure. Social scientists' difficulty in quantifying culture "may reflect the subjective nature of feelings, beliefs, values, traditions, and other symbolic expressions" (Stolp & Smith, 1995). Furthermore, the very nature of culture limits the objectivity of those within the culture when they are trying to describe and analyze it (Finnan & Meza, 2003). This may explain why the business industry relied upon outside consultants to define the culture. However, when someone outside of the culture begins to name and analyze the elements of the culture, they may inadvertently overlook key elements or mislabel group norms. Nonetheless, Schein (1988) asserts that true study of culture requires outside observers asking questions and motivated insider informants who genuinely want to understand assumptions that lead to practice and espoused values of the organization, an approach utilized in the study at hand.

Although culture is difficult to quantify, many social scientists have designed and implemented studies and assessment tools in order to study and measure school cultures. The first of these studies was conducted in 1971 by Seymour Sarson, who "described how school culture is an important vehicle for resisting and redefining educational innovations" (Hoy, 1990, p. 159). In the face of the business-minded reforms of the decade, using the terminology of the business realm to resist their innovations was a novel approach. Unfortunately, the study did not illustrate for schools how to describe their cultures in order to achieve these desired results. Furthermore, school culture was quickly becoming a reform and educational innovation in and of itself.

In 1982, the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) created a task force to design the Comprehensive Assessment of School Environments—Information System Management (CASE-ISM); the goal of this assessment tool was to assess individual school cultures and their effects on student achievement (Stolp & Smith, 1995). Significantly, it was practitioners—not researchers—that commissioned the first assessment tool for school culture. By 1982, the “cult of efficiency” was firmly entrenched in schools, and administrators needed quantifiable data to justify the expenditure of funds on the definition and improvement of school culture. The CASE-ISM provided this data.

Although the CASE-ISM provided data for individual schools, it did not provide a framework for studying school culture as a whole. In 1985, William Firestone and Bruce Wilson (1985) created the first framework of this type; it relied upon the relation and relationship of stories, icons, and rituals within schools (as cited in Hoy, 1990). Again, the study of culture had become less quantitative and more qualitative. Although this framework allowed for more input from stakeholders within the school and allowed for the exploration of the unspoken beliefs and values of schools, it did not provide a quantifiable measure principals could discuss with school board members or the business community.

As cited in Stolp & Smith (1995), Marshall Sashkin and Molly Sashkin (1990) bridged this gap between the quantifiable and the descriptive; they created the School Culture Assessment Questionnaire (SCAQ). This questionnaire assessed “adapting to change, attaining goals, working together as a team, and sharing values and beliefs;” Sashkin and Sashkin believed these variables determined cultural strength (Stolp & Smith, p. 47-8). The format of the questionnaire provided quantifiable data to administrators about the less tangible elements of

their school cultures. This merger between the quantifiable and the descriptive addressed the needs of administrators within their buildings and with the school boards charged with monitoring efficiency and effectiveness with respect to expenditures. The study at hand follows in this tradition of merging the quantifiable and descriptive through the use of quantitative survey data and qualitative observation, interview, and focus group data to provide a rich description of the culture.

Although survey instruments are readily utilized, additional methods of assessing school cultures are needed. Stories, rituals, and symbols are incredibly important aspects of cultures, but they are difficult to quantify or assess in a survey (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Inductive, qualitative procedures are often used by researchers to develop holistic descriptions of school cultures (Clegg & Hardy, 1996). However, in-depth descriptions require considerable investments of time, and the results may be inaccurate as the culture continues to evolve. All studies of culture are snapshots of the culture at a particular time with a particular group of people. Basing decisions on a static account may not reap the desired results.

Research Questions

The previously described quandaries both in my own experience and in the literature regarding school culture as a reform strategy led me to my work with Hawk Elementary, a pseudonym for an urban elementary school located in the southeast United States. I began working with Hawk Elementary in 2005 in my role as a Central Office Coordinator. I observed the school struggling to implement best practices, engage in reform work, and increase standardized test scores. In 2008, I left my role with the district but continued to work with Hawk Elementary to explore why their efforts to reform the school culture were not manifesting

in increased levels of student achievement. My interest in the reform efforts at Hawk Elementary is reflected in my dissertation.

Specifically, the following questions guided the dissertation: (1) What characterizes the figured worlds of teaching in Hawk Elementary? (2) What identities emerge from the figured worlds? and (3) How do these identities influence the implementation of reform? The findings from this study may help illuminate why cultural reform has been an inconsistent strategy for improving student achievement both within this school and in schools across the country.

The theory of figured worlds serves as the theoretical framework for this dissertation. Figured worlds consist of culturally created, socially produced constructs in which people perform and recreate personal and collective identities (Holland, Skinner, Lachicotte, & Cain, 1998). These worlds create meaning, define social relationships, and ascribe meaning and value to actions (Urrieta, 2007; Holland et. al, 1998). Within the context of Hawk Elementary, the teacher culture, the district culture, and the larger accountability culture form the three figured worlds that shape the implementation of reform as it pertains to academic optimism both in relation to and resistance from teacher identity. Academic optimism emerged as a characterization of Hawk's culture in several qualitative studies conducted prior to the dissertation work (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Bower & Powers, 2010; Bower, In press). Academic optimism is considered one effective type of school culture and consists of three dimensions: academic emphasis, collective efficacy of faculty, and faculty's trust in parents and students (Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2006a; Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2006b). Teachers, the only participants in this study, iterated the element of academic emphasis and the interactions among them exemplified collective efficacy.

In this study, the school culture and teacher identity emerged as synonymous and as the figured world closest to teachers. Because school culture is comprised of the values, beliefs, and practices of teachers, this culture became their identity. As the administration of Hawk attempted to shift the school culture to more closely align with academic optimism, teachers' identities—both individual and collectively—were threatened. Consequently, teachers resisted the reform efforts even though they recognized the need for change. These forms of resistance illuminate perspectives worthy of administrators' and policymakers' considerations as they decide the nature of school reform.

Dissertation Overview

A synthesis of the literature most pertinent to this study's foci, synopsis of the theoretical foundation of the study, descriptions of the methodology, presentation of the results, and discussions of the study's implications for schools and future research constitute the remainder of this dissertation. Specifically, chapter two provides a literature review of identity as it pertains to figured worlds and teacher identity more specifically. Chapter three provides the context of the study including a description of the site. The quantitative and qualitative methods and data sources that I employed in this study are also described. Chapter four summarizes the results of the study; chapter five discusses the study's findings with respect to academic optimism and the findings' implications for schools. Chapter five also offers suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Review of Relevant Literature and Key Definitions

As previously described, reforming school culture in order to raise student achievement is common practice in today's accountability era. Hawk Elementary has embraced this model of reform in the form of academic optimism (Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2006 a; Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2006 b). Furthermore, as academic optimism has become the paradigm at Hawk (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Bower and Powers, 2010; Bower, in press), teachers' identities have shifted to embrace this culture while simultaneously shaping the culture to align with their identities. The remainder of this chapter will describe academic optimism and teacher identity as they relate to the theoretical lens for this study, figured worlds.

Academic Optimism

One example of effective school culture is that of academic optimism, as defined by Hoy, Tarter, and Woolfolk Hoy (2006 a & b). Academic optimism is comprised of three separate constructs: academic emphasis, faculty's trust in parents and students, and collective efficacy of the faculty (Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy). Academic emphasis is a cognitive and behavioral construct consisting of high academic goals for students, an orderly learning environment, motivated students, and a respect by all stakeholders for academic achievement. Faculty trust is the reciprocal relationship between parents and teachers in which both parties believe the other will act in the best interest of students (Hoy, Tarter, and Woolfolk Hoy). While these two elements focus on the dynamics between teachers, students, and parents, collective efficacy

focuses only on teachers, empowering them to believe that they can truly impact student achievement.

Academic Emphasis

Although academic optimism is a relatively new construct, academic emphasis first emerged in the literature in the early 1980s (Phillips, 1997). The definition of academic emphasis, also known as academic press or rigor, varies greatly in both the literature and practice. Shouse (1996) defines academic emphasis as academic climate (including high status courses, the assignment of meaningful homework, and student earned grades) in connection with a disciplinary climate (defined by high attendance rates and increased positive behavior) and teachers' instructional practices (including high standards and meaningful assessment and feedback for students). Phillips articulates academic emphasis as high expectations, clear goals, maximization of time spent on instruction, and the assignment and completion of quality homework. No matter what the definition, however, academic emphasis "stands as a statistically significant predictor of school achievement" (Shouse, p. 61).

In addition to being a powerful predictor of academic achievement, academic emphasis is a key strategy in narrowing the achievement gap between students from divergent socio-economic backgrounds (Shouse, 1996). The greatest impact of academic emphasis is observed in high poverty schools, and the results are magnified when coupled with a strong sense of support and community within the school. Therefore, academic emphasis is a strategy for increasing access to influential social networks by increasing opportunities for all students to engage in learning contexts that are challenging and connected to real-world applications, ultimately

increasing background knowledge needed for the highest levels of academic achievement (Shouse).

Faculty Trust

Faculty trust is most analogous with the literature on family involvement. In its purest forms, family involvement is a proxy for a reciprocal relationship between teachers and families. Two frameworks for family involvement have emerged that provide opportunities for families to become involved in their children's educations and schools to serve as effective partners in those efforts. Graue and Benson (2001) outline types of roles in their framework of "answerability." In this model, teachers are responsible for instruction, families are responsible for supporting students and teachers in educational risks and endeavors, and students are responsible for completing assignments to the best of their abilities. In this model, each party is not only responsible for fulfilling his or her responsibilities but also holding the other two parties accountable. This model emphasizes relationships rather than actions.

In contrast to the vague responsibilities defined in answerability, the Epstein Framework, the most widely referenced framework for parent involvement, outlines five concrete types of family involvement behaviors: positive home conditions, communication, involvement at school, home learning activities, and shared decision making within the school (Epstein and Dauber, 1991; Epstein, 2009). Epstein's Framework not only encompasses the traditional definitions of family involvement, but it also recognizes the role of the family in the home, including supporting educational efforts and providing an environment where educational activities are supported and encouraged. Furthermore, Epstein shifts some of the onus from the family to the

school by acknowledging communication as a bidirectional endeavor and encouraging schools to create a place for parent ownership within the school through shared decision making.

No matter which framework is utilized, the importance of family involvement is largely recognized. The overarching benefit of family involvement is increased academic performance, but the literature emphasizes various reasons for this benefit. Hill and Craft (2003) found that increased family involvement was correlated with early social competence, which ultimately correlated with academic success. Similarly, family involvement also increases access to influential social networks (Hill and Taylor, 2004; Lee and Bowen, 2006). As these social networks are broadened, students are able to access additional support or resources in order to achieve academic success. Furthermore, because of the increased academic success as families become involved, family involvement has been identified as a strategy to decrease the Achievement Gap (Zellman and Waterman, 1998). In the era of accountability, the promise of increased academic achievement, especially in regards to the Achievement Gap, increasing and improving family involvement in the education of children warrants additional attention.

Collective Efficacy

Collective efficacy is both a key component of academic optimism and a critical variable in the student achievement equation. Teachers with high levels of collective efficacy are more likely to set high goals for students and believe that students can achieve those goals (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2007). Collective efficacy has also been correlated with how a group will initiate purposeful plans, how much effort will be exerted to reach goals, and how long the group will persist (Stajkovic, Lee, and Nyberg, 2009). These characteristics of faculties with high levels of collective efficacy likely lead to increased achievement for both individual students and the

schools as a whole because of higher expectations and a dedication to ensuring all students meet those expectations (Skaalvik and Skaalvik).

Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) is one strategy that schools often use to increase collective efficacy and student achievement. DuFour (2004) defines PLCs as groups of teachers who function under a framework of three key concepts: a commitment to students' learning, a collaborative culture, and an orientation towards results. Using these guiding principles, teachers focus on what and how students are learning through conversations based on data. Teachers then collaborate to research specific strategies and create solutions to the challenges they face.

While all three aspects of academic optimism play a significant role in Hawk Elementary, academic emphasis and collective efficacy were more salient in this study. Because Hawk is a low-performing school, raising the level of academic achievement is at the forefront of all conversations and the school culture. Furthermore, the designation of a low-performing school places an onus on teachers to collaborate and provide interventions and instruction that will meet those goals; this collaboration leads to an increased awareness of and reliance upon collective efficacy.

Teacher Identity

Studies of teacher identity and its impact on instruction consist of three broad types of inquiry: identity formation, characteristics of teacher identity, and identity narratives (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004). While these three strands of research yield slightly different perspectives on the impact of teacher identity, they share a common foundation in the social definition of identity, which emerges from the work of Erikson (1968) and Mead (1934). Erikson

defines identity as a process rather than a state of being; individuals gradually develop a sense of identity that changes through maturation and experience. Mead emphasizes the social nature of identity; individuals define their identities in relation to and in communication with others. Studies of teacher identity have found that the social formation of identity greatly affects how teachers teach and respond to educational reform within individual schools (Knowles, 1992; Nias, 1989). Researchers who examine identity formation have found the integration of personal and professional identities particularly significant and problematic for teachers (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop). For instance, Goodson and Cole (1994) found that teachers' identities and experiences outside of the classroom greatly impacted their methods within the classroom. Researchers who focus on characteristics of teacher identity find that a shared sense of teacher identity is difficult to define; teacher identity is a highly contextualized, socially defined phenomena (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop). Finally, narratives of teacher identity reveal that even individual teachers have a difficult time defining their identities because of the potential conflicts between social definitions of teachers and personal beliefs within their own classrooms (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop). This complexity requires researchers to pay careful attention to context and the role of teacher agency within any study of identity (Gee, 2001).

In this study, teacher identity was viewed through the lens of communities of practice, which is closely linked to school culture. Identity is "the social, the cultural, the historical with a human face" (Wenger, 1998, p.145). In accordance with this definition, teachers' identities are reflections of the work they do individually and collectively. Furthermore, collective identities and individual identities are reciprocal processes that shape each other (Wenger). The collective identity becomes a community of practice. Communities of practice are defined by mutual

engagement in common work, reciprocal accountability, and shared practices (Wenger). Furthermore, communities of practice embody a meaning and purpose, create methods to communicate history and create engagement, identify hierarchies and define participation within them, and author personal and collective identities; they are a way of being in relation with others (Wenger). For teachers, the school culture is a reflection of the community of practice (Wenger).

Accountability Culture

One major societal force that helps define communities of practice and shapes both teacher identity and school culture is the larger accountability culture that has arisen from the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 (P.L. 107-110). Pennington (2007) best summarized the far reaching and sometimes contradictory effects of NCLB: “NCLB is a living and breathing entity in schools. It is cursed, applauded, revered, and damned. NCLB can be seen as an idea, a group of people, a tool for change, a weapon of control, a magic spell, or even a prayer” (p. 465). The impact NCLB has on an individual teacher or school depends largely on which perception and what implementations of the policies are embraced (Sloan, 2006).

Although NCLB has become synonymous with the accountability movement, it is the result of an accountability and standards movement that began long before the passage of NCLB (Ravitch, 2010). In the 1990s, the cult of efficiency and the business mindset guided many educational decisions, especially those regarding reform strategies (Ravitch; Tyack, 1995). The same forces described in the section entitled “Origins of Organizational Culture” that helped shape the utilization of culture within schools shaped the accountability movement. Furthermore, politicians began rallying behind cries to hold schools accountable and examining schools from a

distance and shifting the focus away from the individual and towards more global initiatives such as standards and accountability systems (Ravitch; Scott, 1998). The business-minded reformers and politicians created the system of assessment, incentives, and sanctions that have become synonymous with NCLB (Ravitch).

Ironically, what has become the accountability movement began as a standards movement. The original goal was to create a national set of curriculum standards; however, that movement was derailed when the initial set of social studies standards was attacked for being too liberal (Ravitch, 2010). Instead of forging ahead through the revision process, the Goals 2000 Program (H.R. 1804) allotted federal funds to states if they developed their own standards, assessments, and accountability measures. The accountability focus intensified when the goal of 100 percent proficiency by 2014 was outlined with the passage of NCLB; assessment and passing rates, rather than standards, became the national educational focus, tempting states to lower passing scores rather than face sanctions for failure (Hess & Finn, 2007; Ravitch, 2010).

One positive goal of NCLB is to decrease the achievement gap among racial/ethnic groups and increase student achievement for all students. Although the national progress towards this goal is disputed and varies from school to school, NCLB has served to focus attention on the widespread failure of the educational system's lack of success in the academic achievement of students from low socioeconomic backgrounds and students of color (Scheurich, Skrla, & Johnson, 2000).

A tool that has arisen from NCLB standards and the realization that not all students have had equal access to curriculum in the past is the widespread use of scripted curricula to ensure all students receive access to a basic level of instruction in order to meet standards of learning

(Pennington, 2007). On one hand, increased standardization of the curriculum has often resulted in teaching to meet the NCLB requirements instead of teaching to meet the needs of students (Calfree, 2005; Pennington; Thomas, 2005). On the other hand, the use of standardized curricula has also resulted in increased professional collaboration and family involvement in schools (Scheurich, Skrla, & Johnson, 2000).

Figured Worlds

Because of my interest in both school culture and teacher identity, Holland, Skinner, Lachiotte, and Cain's (1998) theory of figured worlds served as appropriate lens for this study because the theory captures both the individual construction of identity and a collective construction of identity as well as examines the relationships between these two constructions—phenomena at the heart of school culture and teacher identity. Holland et al., define figured worlds as “socially produced, culturally constructed activities” (p. 40-41) in which individuals co-construct meaning and identity. Figured worlds are defined by four key features. First, figured worlds are historically bounded contexts which are constructed by participants while simultaneously shaping participants. Second, figured worlds are spaces in which people's positions matter and hierarchies are apparent. Third, figured worlds are reproduced via the roles participants assume and practice. Fourth, figured worlds distribute people into the day-to-day realities of lived experiences through participation, creating societies and cultures. Through these four characteristics of figured worlds, people become actors, recognizing their own roles as well as those of others and the social scene in which they play. Furthermore, people often act in or react to more than one figured world, and it is these interactions between worlds that tensions regarding identity occur.

Figured worlds can be identified through performances and artifacts. Performances are comprised of the actions in which people engage, aligned with the expectations and norms of the environment. Artifacts are employed in these performances and are given significance and meaning by the actors. In addition to objects that may traditionally be defined as artifacts, Holland et. al (1998) include discourses, events, and people in the definition of artifacts in figured worlds.

In this study, three distinct figured worlds emerged: the school culture, which aligned closely with teachers' identities and two elements of Academic Optimism, the district culture, and the larger accountability culture.

Chapter 3: Methods

In the 2006-2007 school year, I began my work with Hawk Elementary. I served as the College Access Programs Coordinator for the district, and I worked with Hawk Elementary to implement programs that increased students' and families' awareness of and planning for post-secondary opportunities. In the spring of 2008, I left the district to serve as a research project coordinator for a study conducted by a local university and continued to work with Hawk in that capacity. As I spent more time at Hawk, administrators, teachers, and I began to explore aspects of their culture together in order to understand the culture and develop strategies to improve student achievement.

Site and Research Participants

Hawk is a low-performing school in a low-performing district, and the pressure to reform has been mounting since it lost its magnet status in 2006. The 347 student population is 60.5% African American, 33.1% Hispanic, and 6.4% Multi-Racial and Caucasian. Hawk Elementary is a Title I school, with 92.5% of its students receiving free or reduced price lunches. On the 2009 state end-of-year tests, 37.6% of the third through fifth graders were at or above grade level in reading, and 61.8% were at or above grade level in math. During the time of the study, faculty consisted of 16 regular classroom teachers. One hundred percent of teachers were female, and 81% were African American, 6% Latina, and 13% Caucasian. Eight teachers volunteered to participate in the study of interest. Sixty-three percent of the sample was African American, the

remaining 37% was Caucasian. Teachers' years of experience ranged from three to 27, with a mean of 9.6. Years of experience at Hawk ranged from three to 10, with a mean of 5.5.

In many ways, Hawk Elementary is a typical urban elementary school. Newman, King, and Young (2000) characterize urban elementary schools as having high percentages of students from minority backgrounds and poverty. Urban schools also struggle with high student mobility rates (Newman, King, & Young). The one characteristic that Hawk does not exemplify is a high teacher turnover rate (Newman, King, & Young); participants' years of experience in the school ranged from three to ten.

When I began my work there, the principal identified reshaping the school culture as the primary reform strategy, and the school has been working towards this end since 2007. Although the school did not specifically identify academic optimism as its targeted culture, their description aligns with Hoy et. al's (1998) definition. The school targeted instilling an academic focus in students, teachers, and families; creating dynamic, working relationship with parents; and empowering teachers to adapt instruction and the learning environment to increase academic achievement for all students (Bower, in press; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Bower & Powers, 2010). Professional development, faculty meetings, and Professional Learning Community (PLC) times were devoted to reaching these goals, and the school's administration rewrote the school's vision and mission to reflect the previously mentioned aims.

In the 2010-2011 school year, the year of interest in this study, numerous additional changes transpired at Hawk Elementary. The superintendent of the district removed the entire administrative staff, including the principal, assistant principal, and curriculum coaches, in the early fall due to consistently low End-of-Grade test scores. The superintendent then appointed an

interim principal, and he continued the reform efforts until a permanent principal was named in January of 2011. The permanent principal also continued the reform work, citing academic optimism as the targeted school culture (principal, personal communication, March 2011).

In addition to the new administration, Hawk experienced closer supervision and monitoring from the district office. Math and literacy coaches met weekly with teachers, and scripted curriculum were put in place for math, literacy, and science. Furthermore, weekly and quarterly benchmark assessments were mandated in all three disciplines. In addition to curriculum, the district also mandated a schedule, designating blocks of time for each discipline and double dose instruction in both literacy and math. In the third and fourth grade, the district also mandated students be reassigned to classes based upon proficiency level to target interventions for test preparation in the month before the End-of-Grade tests.

Context of the Study

I conducted independent, qualitative microethnographies (Creswell, 1998) of each aspect of academic optimism in Hawk Elementary in the spring of 2008 and the 2008-2009 school year. Microethnographies allow researchers to study individual aspects of the culture in order to develop a deep understanding (Creswell). For these studies, administrators and teachers participated in semi-structured interviews. I also conducted extensive observations in classrooms, PLCs, faculty meetings, and parent meetings. Furthermore, handbooks, school improvement plans, and pacing guides were examined for evidence of the explicit culture of the school. These studies identified the school's identified target of a culture of academic optimism; this dissertation builds upon these analyses to examine the influence of teacher identity upon school reform and vice versa.

Data Collection and Data Analyses

My dissertation, an ethnographic case study, built upon previous studies of the culture at Hawk Elementary (Bower, In press; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Bower & Powers, 2010). The ethnographic framework allowed me to enter the school as a participant observer in order to develop a rich, thick description of the school culture (Creswell, 1998). This study utilized a quantitative and subsequent qualitative analysis of data collected on the school culture that existed in spring 2011 in order to explore the essential research question: How is cultural reform influenced and shaped through the figured world of teacher identity as it interacts with the figured worlds of district culture and accountability culture? Using the surveys designed by Hoy et. al (2006a) to measure academic optimism, a theme that emerged in earlier studies of Hawk Elementary (Bower, In press; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Bower & Powers, 2010) (see Appendices A, B, and C), I gathered quantitative data from eight previously described classroom teachers about the school culture. I also collected qualitative data in the form of focus groups, classroom and PLC observations, and individual interviews of teachers.

Quantitative Data

Quantitative data, in the form of survey responses, were collected over the course of four weeks. To ensure anonymity, teacher boxes were assigned a random number which was noted on a grid seen only by the researcher and on the hard copy of the survey. Blank surveys, including a form for collecting demographic data, and consent forms were placed in all 16 regular classroom teachers' boxes at the beginning of the first week. Teachers were asked to complete the survey and return it anonymously to a designated bag near the mailboxes. Any responses not returned by the end of week two received a second copy of the survey. At the end of week three, I attended a

faculty meeting to answer questions about the surveys. The surveys required roughly 30 to 45 minutes of teachers' time. Although it may be informative to gather data from parents and students, at the request of the school only school staff completed surveys. All teachers who provided consent were surveyed; if the entire faculty participated, the resulting sample size would have been 16 participants. Two teachers were on long-term medical leave during the consent period. Four teachers declined to participate because they were untenured and were uncomfortable providing information about the administration and school. Two teachers provided no response. The resulting sample size was eight, or 50% of the regular classroom teachers in the school.

Teachers completed three surveys related to academic optimism, a construct of interest in this study. As noted in Chapter 2, academic optimism consists of three components: academic emphasis, faculty trust, and collective efficacy. The Organizational Health Inventory (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991; Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Hoy & Miskel, 2005) was used to gauge academic emphasis, one aspect of academic optimism. The Organization Health Inventory (see Appendix A) was based upon the work of Parsons, Bales, and Shils (1953) and is comprised of five subscales: Institutional Integrity, Collegial Leadership, Resource Influence, Teacher Affiliation, and Academic Emphasis. The original instrument was field tested with a reliability of the subscales ranging from .93 (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp).

Faculty Trust, a second component of Academic Optimism, was measured using the Omnibus Trust Scale (see Appendix B) (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). This scale was created based on elementary and secondary scales of the same name and is comprised of three subscales: Trust in Principal, Trust in Colleagues, and Trust in Clients (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran). The

resulting scale was field tested with a reliability of .95 (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran).

Collective Efficacy, the third component of Academic Optimism, was measured with the Collective Efficacy Scale (see Appendix C) (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2000). The Collective Efficacy Scale was based upon the work of Bandura's social cognitive theory, which posits people have control over their own lives and the extent to which they hold this belief determines not only their satisfaction but also their effectiveness in difficult situations (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1993; Bandura, 1995; Bandura, 1997). The scale was first reviewed by a panel of researchers who study teacher efficacy, then field tested with six teachers, and finally piloted with 70 teachers in 70 schools in five states (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy). A final field test was conducted on a slightly modified scale in all 47 elementary schools in a large, urban district (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy). The final reliability was measured with an alpha of 0.96 (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy).

Chronbach's Alpha was utilized to measure the reliability of the instruments for this study's sample. The OHI-E, the Omnibus Trust Scale, and the Collective Efficacy scale reported reliability scores of .89, .88, and .82 respectively, indicating good reliability. Descriptive statistics were utilized to obtain means and standard deviations for each component of Academic Optimism (See Appendix D, E, and F). Higher means indicated a stronger presence of that aspect of the school culture. The results from these surveys were utilized to develop focus group questions and provide context for the study.

Focus Groups

After the quantitative data from the Academic Optimism instruments were initially analyzed, I shared the results with focus groups within the school (See Appendix G and H).

Participants were organized by grade levels: three focus groups consisting of two kindergarten teachers and one first grade teacher, one second grade and one third grade teacher, and one fourth grade and two fifth grade teachers. Focus groups were held with each group during their regular planning time for 45 minutes. Three sessions were conducted with each focus group for a sum of 9 focus group sessions totaling 405 minutes of data. The focus group sessions were audio-taped.

During the first focus group session, the teacher participants and I discussed the quantitative data. I developed open-ended questions based upon the quantitative results, and these formed the basis of a semi-structured interview for each focus group. For instance, a low score of 17.05 in Resource Influence prompted the question: “The survey results suggest that teachers don’t feel as though they receive the necessary resources or support. Do you think that is true? What resources are lacking? Why?” The semi-structured interview guide allowed each focus group to respond to some common questions while allowing the focus group session to follow the natural flow of conversation and topics raised by participants. Questions asked teachers to respond to not only the overall score but also individual items that elicited either high or low scores or scores that seemed to contradict each other (see Appendix G). Additionally, the focus group session probed teachers about the thought processes they employed when answering the survey items: were they considering the ideals of the schools or their daily lived experiences? The groups migrated towards scores that they found surprisingly low, such as the statistic that their academic emphasis score was 99% lower than other schools. Teachers were surprised by this score given their focus on rigor in the classrooms, and exploring the reasoning behind their

answers was the first introduction to the way teachers characterized the accountability culture and district culture in relation to their own identities as teachers at Hawk.

The second session followed classroom observations and allowed for probing questions regarding general themes and general observations from the classrooms, especially those that countered the quantitative data or data from the first focus group sessions; specific details about the individual classrooms I observed were not shared (see Appendix H). The final session was reserved for member checking (Glesne, 2006), verifying if what I purport as the researcher accurately captures the participants' views of themes and analysis. In the final session, I shared the findings that emerged from the initial data analyses.

The audio-taped focus group sessions were transcribed within 24 hours of the event and the transcripts subjected to inductive and deductive coding. Inductive coding enabled the exploration of themes and patterns in the data (Epstein & Martin, 2005). Focus group transcripts were read multiple times, searching for commonalities within and across groups. These commonalities were identified, and then counter evidence was sought to interrogate emerging trends. Deductive coding examines data from an existing framework (Epstein & Martin); in this case, the results from the quantitative data on the three elements of academic optimism were used as guides in the analysis of the focus group data. Transcripts were read to find elements of academic optimism as well as teacher reactions to or against these definitions.

Classroom and PLC Observations

Classroom observations began after the first focus group session. Seven of the eight participants were observed for one two-hour block, resulting in 14 hours of observation. The eighth participant resigned from the school between the survey data collection and first focus

group. The two-hour block of time allowed for observation of both core subject teaching and less formal transition, enrichment, or intervention times. The core areas of language arts and math are subjected to high-stakes testing, frequent benchmark tests to monitor student and teacher progress, and a scripted curriculum. Contrasting these observations with less pressured activities such as project-based learning units, recess, curriculum enrichment activities, or one-on-one extension and reinforcement sessions provided a wide spectrum of teacher/student interactions and presentation styles, which allowed for a thicker description of the school culture and the interplay among the three figured worlds. Furthermore, each grade level's PLC was observed for one hour. In addition to the scheduled observations, each visit to the school was extended by one to three hours at the request of the participants. During these times, I assisted with student scheduling, student data analysis, curriculum mapping, and classroom coverage. These informal observation windows provided me with nuanced knowledge of the school's culture as embodied in day-to-day activity as well as the opportunity to conduct document analyses of pacing guides and scripted curriculums. Extensive field notes were taken during these observations, totaling approximately seven hours. These notes focused on emerging themes from the quantitative data and results from the first focus group in order to gather additional refuting and supporting evidence. Videotaping did not occur due to teacher requests and concerns regarding classroom distractions in previous studies (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Bower & Powers, 2010; Bower, In press). Also, photographs of classroom artifacts including word walls, bulletin boards, schedules, and white boards were taken for analysis; these photographs were utilized to triangulate teacher statements regarding schedules and standardization across classrooms.

As in the case of the focus group data, observations were transcribed within 24 hours of their occurrence. Like the focus group data the observational data were subjected to inductive and deductive coding.

Teacher Interviews

To supplement the previously described data and to member check emerging themes, each teacher involved in the study participated in a one-one-one, open interview after all focus groups were completed. In the individual interviews, teachers were asked about specific statements or curricular decisions observed in focus groups, classroom observations, or informal observations throughout my time at Hawk Elementary. For example, one teacher repeatedly stated during focus groups that she understood the children better than most teachers because she had grown up in similar circumstances; her interview focused on how her personal history impacted her identity as a teacher. Interviews ranged from 20 to 45 minutes in length, and resulted in a total of 180 minutes of interview data. The interview data were transcribed verbatim within 24 hours of the completion of an interview. Inductive and deductive coding was also performed on these data.

Credibility

Several measures were taken to ensure credibility, the accuracy of the data and my interpretations and analyses of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). First, supporting and refuting evidence was gleaned from the interview transcripts and observations through deductive coding based on the three elements of academic optimism from the quantitative results. Inductive coding allowed large portions of text to be compressed into condensed themes, such as descriptions of the figured worlds and the interaction among them, and for these segments to be tied directly to

the research questions (Epstein & Martin, 2005). These themes emerged through line by line analysis in which transcripts were read for repeating phrases or words that identified each figured world. When analyzing the qualitative responses, phrases that began with “but I” or “however” were of particular interest. These phrases captured any contradicting views of the culture that spoke to the figured worlds and teachers’ identity. Furthermore, photographs were examined for correspondences and contradictions with respect to the emerging themes.

In order to improve credibility of the qualitative research, every effort was made to reveal and analyze negative cases in the form of counter examples (such as “but” or “however” statements or observations that go against emerging patterns in quantitative and qualitative data), and the transcripts, observations, and quantitative data were utilized to achieve triangulation (Creswell, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In addition, I used member checking, described above, throughout data analysis.

Study Limitations

Because of the qualitative nature of this research, generalizability is limited. Although specific findings about the culture of Hawk Elementary cannot be generalized to other schools, findings regarding the potential alignment of teacher identity and school culture may be instrumental to other similar schools who may consider cultural change as a reform strategy.

The survey data pose two significant limitations: a small and limited sample and the threat of socially desirable responses (SDR) (Paulhaus, 2002). Because the school requested that parents and students not be included in the sample, only teacher perceptions of the culture were captured and the use of findings is limited by this view. The teachers’ views may also be influenced by SDR. Any differences between the teacher culture and the district or

accountability culture may have been magnified by SDR. SDR is the result of respondents answering questions in a way that is seen as the most culturally or socially acceptable (Paulhaus). Participants may have answered survey items to cast themselves in a more favorable light than administrators or policies, magnifying any gap between the figured worlds. Steps to enhance credibility, via the emergence of possible contradictions, were used to identify instances in which SDR emerged.

Measuring school culture is often difficult (Finnan & Meza, 2003; Schein, 1988; Stolp & Smith, 1995). The use of multiple qualitative and quantitative measures was utilized to address this difficulty by providing varied data sources with which to describe and analyze the school culture.

Chapter 4: Findings

Three figured worlds arose in the data. Although all three worlds derived from the lived experiences of the classroom teachers, each world afforded teachers distinct roles and varying levels of voice. Although each world comprised different performances and artifacts, one performance remained consistent across all three worlds: resistance to reform. The resistance serves to not only crystallize teachers' identities but also to rectify the three worlds into one landscape of action for teachers.

The first section of this chapter will answer the first research question: What characterized the figured worlds of teaching in Hawk Elementary? The first world, the accountability culture, shapes the other two worlds because it captures a national ethos and is driven both by legislative mandates and public opinion. The accountability culture is characterized by testing, curriculum narrowing, and pressure. The second world, the district culture, contradicts teachers' sense of identity by threatening the culture of the school. This world is characterized by standardization and assessment. The third world, which was most central to teachers' experiences and identities, is the school culture as teacher identity. This world is characterized by teacher definitions of effective teaching, especially in the aspects of planning and nurturing students in a challenging environment.

After each of the figured worlds is identified, three exemplar identities, the Believer, the Hopeful, and the Opposer, present three responses and modes of resistance to the first two figured worlds as well as school reform efforts in general. In this resistance, teachers are able to

reconcile the three worlds to define and maintain their sense of identity. These exemplars illustrate the answers to the final two research questions: what identities emerge from the figured worlds and how do they influence the reform strategies?

The Figured World of Accountability Culture

As described previously, education and accountability have become largely synonymous in American culture. High stakes test scores and Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) have become markers for “good” versus “bad” schools. As a result, schools have become increasingly focused on aligning curriculum and instruction with standardized tests, often at the expense of broader educational aims and enrichment opportunities (Ravitch, 2010).

Because of Hawk Elementary’s designation as a low-performing school, the accountability culture has become an ever-present phenomenon in the daily lives of students and teachers. Three key performances characterize the figured world of accountability culture for Hawk: testing, curriculum narrowing, and pressure. Testing drove curriculum narrowing, but the two performances together resulted in the teachers’ performance of pressure.

Testing

From the teachers’ perspective, “education” has been replaced by “testing.” “We’re just trying to get by and get these kids to pass the EOG. All we do is test them! Welcome to school—test!” (Betty, Focus Group 3, May 2011). The key artifacts of this performance were the tests themselves: small goal assessments, benchmarks, and End of Grade Tests (EOGs). While the EOGs were state driven, the other two forms of assessment were district driven; teachers no longer create their own assessments. Although the teachers do not necessarily believe in the

assessments, they also do not want their students to fail. The result is an emphasis on testing strategies and remediation plans—the final two artifacts of this performance.

Instead of teaching students to read broadly, teachers utilize specific reading test strategies in their literacy blocks (Helen, Shannon, & Julia, Classroom Observations, April 2011). For instance, all teachers explicitly teach the UNRAAVEL 123 strategy for passages: (a) Underline the title (b) Now predict the passage in 30 seconds (c) Run through and number the paragraphs (d) Are you noticing important words—the bold and underlines? (e) Are you reading the questions before the story? (f) Venture through the passage three times (g) Eliminate incorrect answers (h) Let the questions be answered (Helen, Classroom Observation, April 2011). Although students become very proficient at the strategy, teachers lament that students do not know how to read or comprehend longer passages or passages that are not followed by multiple choice questions (Shannon & Julia, PLC Observation, April 2011). Similarly, math lessons often focus on assessment-driven terms rather than math concepts: “Reduce is simplify. You’ll see the word ‘reduce’ on the test” (Helen, Classroom Observation, April 2011). The tests subsume instruction.

Similarly, assessments and remediation plans became the focus of teachers’ planning. One teacher completely sacrificed her planning time in order to provide a “triple dose” of instruction to students who were furthest below grade level (Helen, Interview, May 2011). Similarly, teachers often spent large portions of their planning time putting together individualized packets for students so they could complete extra EOG practice (Shannon & Julia, Interviews, May 2011).

Curriculum Narrowing

An unintended consequence of the assessment performance was the curriculum narrowing performance: “They don’t come to school anymore and just learn and have fun or learn through having fun and being creative. It’s all geared to the EOG test” (Ann, Interview, May 2011). If it was not tested, it was not taught; science was only consistently taught in the fifth grade where it was tested, and social studies was not taught at all, as demonstrated by the posted and closely monitored daily objectives and schedules (see Appendix I, Figures 1-5). Furthermore, the school schedule was manipulated to maximize instructional time in tested areas, eliminating areas which students may find engaging, such as specials:

“I know they want the kids in the classroom more. They really cut our specials times down. The kids used to go to specials for 90 minutes, now their special time is only 40 minutes. It used to be the kids got to go to two, and now they only get one. So, I’m thinking that they are trying to find more ways to get our literacy scores up higher” (Alice, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

Even many of the traditional specials have been replaced with EOG focused specials. For instance, music was replaced with math double dose for all students (see schedules in Appendix I, Figures 2-5).

A common discourse in the curriculum narrowing performance is that of standards, primarily in the form of pacing guides and stated objectives for scripted daily lessons. “Unpacking standards” became synonymous with eliminating teacher freedom through scripts (4/5 PLC, April 2011). Consequently, teachers found it tedious and a waste of time: “Unpacking standards is not beneficial. Whether I do it in August or now in third quarter. To me I’m wasting time sitting here just figuring out what verb can I use with my kids” (Shannon, Focus Group 2, April 2011). Furthermore, standards in content areas that were tested were to be posted in classrooms (see Appendix I, Figure 1); all teachers were expected to have the same information

posted on their boards each day: date, math objective, language arts objective, and vocabulary (Classroom Observations, March-May 2011).

Pressure

The narrowing of curriculum and focus on testing created a tremendous pressure on teachers for students to perform well on assessments, a significant performance in the accountability culture. This performance was evidenced by the discourse regarding pressure.

This discourse was especially poignant in the grades that experience EOG testing:

“I think it’s really the 3-5, the testing grades. I think that the testing grades are asked more. They’re monitored more; because there are more stats, they’re monitored more. In K-2 they come in and they make sure you have everything. They’re not even looking at stats. And I think that’s where it comes in. It kind of bothers me. Oh gosh, K-2 is just so much easier than 3-5 when it come to the stress, the mental stress. It’s interesting” (Alice, Focus Group 1, March 2011).

It was this pressure, not the students or accountability, that forced some teachers to consider another profession:

“You’re going to see a lot of teacher turnover, not because of the budget but because of the pressure. Why should I stay in a profession where I haven’t seen a pay raise in four years and you keep putting this much pressure on me? Even though I may love the children, I can’t survive like that” (Julia, Focus Group 3, May 2011).

Although this was part of the discourse, no participants planned to resign this year.

As described, the larger accountability culture became a key aspect of the school culture within Hawk Elementary. Testing, curriculum narrowing, and enduring pressure were frequently discussed and performed among teachers, and these performances were also evident within the district culture, although their performance took on a slightly different form.

The Figured World of the District Culture

Hawk Elementary is located in a large, urban district. Although there are 47 schools in the district, standardization of curriculum and the schooling experience for all students is a priority for the district as seen in pacing guides, scripted curriculums, and centralized coaching and decision making. This district culture had a significant impact on teachers' daily lives.

Two key performances characterize the district culture as it is perceived by teachers: standardization and assessment. Standardization by the district applied more to schools and students' daily experiences and was seen in the form of traditional artifacts; however, assessment was perceived as a threat to teachers as seen in their discourse.

Standardization

The district culture revolved around standardization of the curriculum, teaching strategies, and scheduling. The performance of standardization can be seen through the physical artifacts of pacing guides and district mandates.

Pacing guides (see Appendix J, Figures 1-3) were developed and implemented for literacy, math, and science. In literacy and math, the pacing guides were scripts for each day's lessons. The guides were posted online, and teachers were expected to print them, write them in to their school supplied planners, and then follow them explicitly (PLC Observation, May, 2011). The lessons were scripted in the teachers' guides, and the pacing guides included specific page numbers and questions to direct teachers to these scripts. Administrators expected teachers to be on schedule any time they entered the classroom. The only block that was not scripted was the center block. For centers, specific goals and strategies were outlined in the guide; teachers were expected to create grade level centers to address those standards (PLC Observation, May

2011). At the beginning of the year, the centers were also scripted, but those had to be abandoned because of a lack of resources (PLC Observation, May, 2011).

Teachers' reactions to the guides vary. All teachers believe the pacing guides move too quickly. For example, "The pacing is you do one topic, such as multiplication, test on it, and then move on to decimals. The kids don't really get the opportunity to catch up. There's the pacing guide that you all have to follow, even if the kids don't have it yet" (Helen, Focus Group 1, March 2011).

Pacing aside, some teachers find the structure helpful:

"I mean, what's crazy about the whole thing is I've always like it. I like that it's all laid out for you telling you the strategy and how to teach it. It's just right there, laid out, and everybody's on the same accord. I like it. I like order. I don't like chaos. I don't take it personally. It's not about any one teacher; it's about the students. It's whatever they want us to do that is going to help them I'll do" (Alice, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

In addition to highlighting the strategies and skills the district feels are important, the guides have also encouraged collaboration among teachers:

"So the children can get help with homework and it caused a lot collaboration among the teachers because if you issued this to your children and that's not even a part of your curriculum. Are you sure you want to? It got a little sticky when it came to teachers until one teacher said I'm glad you brought that to my attention. I shouldn't be doing that at this time" (Alice, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

The guides provided structure and a common foundation for collaborative planning and across-grade articulation. As discussed previously, however, teachers believed the pacing guides did not adequately differentiate for all students or provide opportunities for more creative learning.

In addition to the curriculum pacing guides, the district has mandated schedules, instructional tools, and additional assessments. All word walls and calendar boards are uniform; each grade level must post the same words (Observations, March and April 2011; see Appendix

I, Figure 6). As the following vignette illustrates, schedule changes to narrow the curriculum and ensure all teachers were teaching the same standards at the same time were a common occurrence, often with little warning (Helen, Observation, March 2011; PLC Observation, April 2011).

After spring break, teachers were told on a Wednesday that there would be a new schedule beginning Monday. Teachers were asked, and asked me to assist, to divide students into three groups for the new rotation. The mandated schedule allowed for three 70 minute blocks, two math blocks and one literacy block. Helen had made a card for each student with his or her math and literacy scores, behavior notes, IEP modifications, and other services received. The math curriculum was a new script provided by the district; it was delivered during our meeting as three loose reams of paper, divided by part of the lesson not by lesson. Because all students must do the same scripted math curriculum, we divided students by literacy scores. This was the third mandated schedule change of the semester; each new schedule was designed to improve standardized test scores.

The week after the new schedule was implemented, I was able to attend a PLC that included teachers as well as district officials. The district math coaches began the meeting: “I need to see everybody’s eyes. I need to know you are going to hear what I’m about to say. We are not here to put on but to take off.” At this point, the district distributed the latest assessment scores: “If the students have scored about a 60 on an objective it’s a strength and you shouldn’t do anything else with it. If it is below 35, you should give up. Just teach what is in the middle.” The teachers are silent until one explains the new mandated schedule, redistribution of students, and scripted curriculum. The scores are divided by base teacher, but the students are no longer

in those classes. The math coaches were unaware of the new mandate and tell teachers to disregard what they just explained and to follow the script.

This vignette illustrates the conflicting demands placed upon teachers by district officials. The district utilized standardized curriculum and schedules as a method to raise test scores, and teachers implemented these changes as directed, seeking clarification when conflicting demands were made. Even though the district math coaches devised a plan that would allow teachers more freedom to assess and then meet student needs, they abandoned the plan when faced with a competing mandate for standardization.

Assessment

In the midst of the standardization, a second performance, assessment, comprised the figured world of the district culture. While testing is a more formal component of assessment, more informal, daily formative tasks also comprise assessment. High stakes testing, the most formal type of assessment, drove instruction, making assessment a key component of the district culture; furthermore, the district mandated most of the instruction and assessment in the classroom. Assessment results created an additional layer of pressure for teachers, who were afraid of making a mistake in instruction that may result in lower test scores:

“I feel like this year, with admins, they are waiting to catch you doing the wrong thing. I’ve seen how they act with people who are not, so I’m feeling like I can’t make a mistake. I’m constantly overworking and over-planning. I think the rest of us are kind of on edge wondering if we’re going to be next” (Helen, Focus Group 1, March 2011).

Participants were also keenly aware that their school, because of its low-performing status, was particularly susceptible to consequences:

“Since we’re under the microscope, and we think we could be doing more for our kids, providing more help, but let you walk in and us not be doing what you said we should be doing and you’re going to blame us for the kids failing. There are all these other schools

who don't use this stuff and no one says anything. I actually got in trouble for being off schedule when I was trying to help them get it. That's not right. That's why there are so many kids that don't know stuff. We just have to keep pushing through" (Ann, Focus Group 1, March 2011).

"Pushing through" was a common theme when it came to assessment and instruction: "You have to make [the schedules and curriculums] fit. You have no choice. You stop what you're doing. You explain to the kids what's going on, and you make it fit" (Helen, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

The school's low-performing classification also introduced the discourse of school status into the assessment performance:

"Because of our status, we pretty much have to go exactly by, there's no leeway about what we do. We have to go by the pacing guide. It used to be as long as you were teaching the skill and the strategy you were fine. Now you have to use the books they say, the texts they say, everything that's in the pacing guide or the curriculum guide. If you're not using it, you'll know about it and they'll tell the principal about it" (Alice, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

Because of Hawk Elementary's classification as a low-performing school, teachers felt more susceptible to being questioned or sanctioned. Assessment became about more than measuring students' progress; as evidenced by Ann's belief, it also served as a measure of teacher success and alignment with the district culture.

Through both standardization and the assessment culture, the district shaped classroom performances and the school culture. However, the school retained much of its culture in the form of teacher identity.

The Figured World of the School Culture As Teachers' Identities

In addition to the physical aspects previously described, Hawk classrooms shared a similar climate. When observing faculty and PLC meetings, the similarities were striking.

Teachers came to meeting with stacks of resources and textbooks. Students and parents were discussed by only first name, and every adult knew who was being discussed. Although “Failure is not an option!” emblazoned the front foyer and classroom walls, it had moved beyond a mantra and into practice. As demonstrated later, teachers discussed when students succeeded and laid plans for struggling children to thrive. Other teachers volunteered to assist with difficult students, and lesson plans were willingly shared, critiqued, and revised—one demonstration of collective efficacy. The culture of Hawk was marked with perseverance and nurturing.

Two key performances characterize the school culture: planning and being an effective teacher. Although planning could be considered an aspect of being an effective teacher, participants characterized planning via activities whereas being an effective teacher was characterized as discourses regarding student demographics, perseverance, and nurturing.

Planning

Although the curriculum is largely scripted, teachers defined a key aspect of the school culture and their identities as going beyond that script to provide students with additional learning opportunities, especially in the face of obstacles. For instance, when I arrived to interview one teacher the students were scheduled to be in a Math Double Dose as their special, but the double dose teacher recently resigned. In order for students to still receive the double dose of math, the regular classroom teacher spent the night before creating individual plans in a web-based curriculum extension program for each student (Alice, Focus Group 2, March 2011). Although this was a more extreme example of going beyond the script, it was not an unusual occurrence within the school.

Furthermore, the school culture dictated that teachers work long hours planning. Teachers identify as “quality people at this school. You can’t expect to go home and not do any work” (Ann, Focus Group 2, April 2011). Meeting the needs of every student was a clear priority for the teacher participants.

Most of the intensive planning occurred as teachers worked to enliven the scripted curriculum by incorporating all learning styles and engaging activities into the daily lessons. Teachers were keenly aware that it was an expectation of the school culture that teachers go beyond the script to ensure all students learned the material:

“You have to tweak [the guides]. The plans that they have up there don’t address all types of learners. I’ve got, a lot of children are visual and kinesthetic learners, particularly on vocabulary, a lot of our vocabulary words we have actually had them act them out instead of using them in context. Because our reading scores are so low, I usually present them however they want me to present them, usually with the big book and we’ll talk about how the word is used in a sentence, but then I usually try to throw in, I’ll put the word up there and say let’s come act this out or illustrate it because a lot of them are visual and kinesthetic learners. You have to meet the needs of the students and meet them where they are at, use their learning styles. They’re pretty much telling you this is what you do on this day. I like the planning because it’s a great guide, but you have to accommodate all of the types of learners” (Alice, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

Although teachers openly stated that they follow the curriculum guides, further prompting and observation revealed that they also extend the curriculum to meet the needs of their students:

“You have to think about what is going to reach a child. Teaching from that book is not going to reach a child. Not these kids that I have. Even high kids. You have to put some spice in it. If you are reading about a car put a car on the table and let that car zoom. Once they see that car and hear that car they got that word. When they hear it and see they get it. And we mistake reading every day with learning. If you don’t give them hands on stuff they don’t learn. They have to be mobile. They have to be agile and active and hands on” (Betty, Interview, May 2011).

Extension activities and addressing multiple learning styles is an explicit expectation of teachers for themselves.

Effective Teachers

Closely related to the performance of planning was the discourse of being an effective teacher. Teachers were careful to describe Hawk's vision of effective teachers versus a more general view of effective teachers; Betty explained Hawk's belief that the "research is not done in schools like this. Let them come here and see where we are and what we do and then tell us what they think" (Interview, May 2011). Hawk teachers created their own definition of effective teacher, and this performance was characterized by teachers' discussions regarding student demographics, personal perseverance, and nurturing.

Student Demographics

Because the school had been identified as high poverty and low-performing, teachers were aware of the challenges their students faced, including assumptions about academic achievement and parent involvement. However, they also believed their students were capable of learning:

"Even though our school is a low-performing school, our kids are bright kids. They are smart. They just don't have the resources that some other kids have. If you would go home with them, you would understand why they act the way they do. So, I can't hold that against them. I have to teach around that" (Betty, Interview, May 2011).

Teachers believed that a key characteristic of an effective teacher was recognizing the unique challenges their students faced and creating a space where students felt safe and could learn.

Teachers talked about Hawk as students' safe haven: "They come to us, and we are their outlet. They don't feel the same way they do when they are at home" (Clarissa, Interview, May 2011).

The awareness of both the risks at home and the possibilities of the school was a significant piece of Hawk teacher identity as an effective teacher:

“Not to down anybody, but I just don’t think anybody can truly understand personally what they might be getting into when they accept a job here. Some people don’t stay. They can’t handle it. It’s not the kids’ fault. It’s the stuff that they go through. I prefer to work with these children. I know. I completely understand all of it. I would never go and work at a school where I feel like people are privileged and well off and they don’t need anything. In fact, I look back and see everything I’ve got with my own money and it feels good to know I’m giving something back. I’m really making a difference for these kids. Even if it’s just a book. I don’t mind doing it. I don’t mind at all” (Clarissa, Interview, May 2011).

Teachers routinely referred to teaching at Hawk as a “calling” or “where they were meant to be,” identifying their abilities to work in a high poverty, low-performing school as making them more effective teachers. For many teachers, their identity outside of school uniquely qualified them to teach at Hawk:

“I feel like, who else is going to teach these African American children that will actually care about them, and my little Hispanic children, better than me. Seriously. I’m a successful black woman. You see another successful black person hopefully, that will make you, that will motivate you to want to be successful, too, because we are successful. I don’t know about everybody else, but I just stay” (Shannon, Interview, May 2011).

Participants saw the demographics of Hawk Elementary as challenges that they were uniquely suited to address.

Perseverance

Although teachers utilized the discourse of overcoming obstacles through education as a method to retain their identity, they also utilized the discourse of teacher frustration and burn out to bond as a culture. In many ways, teachers framed themselves as martyrs, embracing the challenges and persevering at Hawk when others may have left for less challenging schools:

“Even though I get frustrated. I get upset. Sometimes I’m at my wit’s end. I get tired. I go home and just prop my feet up. But, the next day I come back and do it all over again.

You just do what you have to do. This is my job. I chose to work at a low-performing school. I don't have to stay. I could have transferred. I stay, though. I like the school" (Betty, Interview, May 2011).

A critical aspect of the school culture involved both the choice to stay and the ability of the school to purge teachers who did not share the same values and work ethic: "As a staff, we pull together and persevere. We do what we have to do. Those people who are truly not here for the children, they'll be weeded out...they don't choose to stay here long" (Shannon, Focus Group 1, March 2011). Teachers believed that other teachers who were not willing to conform to the school culture and work ethic felt isolated and would soon leave.

Teachers held a clear vision of the characteristics of effective Hawk teachers. Hawk teachers require:

"Patience, endurance, strength, the ability to manage a classroom, the ability to multi-task, patience, confidence, patience, heart. If you can work here you can work anywhere, but the same qualities we are looking for are the same qualities everyone needs. You have to be a go getter. You have to see that you may not have the resources but where can you get them from. You have to be willing to go out and get what you need. It's not going to be handed to you" (Julia, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

Hawk teachers considered themselves model teachers, exhibiting key characteristics that made them more effective in the classroom than other teachers across the district. In addition to a strong sense of Hawk teacher identity, teachers had a clear, less favorable vision of teachers elsewhere in the district:

"At the beginning of the year, we had to meet with teachers from all over the district. We were doing things that other schools said were impossible. We've been doing guided reading and sight words. They kept saying they didn't have time to do them. Well, we do. They kept asking how do you read with every kid every day. I kept asking how do you not. We still have the literacy block in the district. It should be possible for everyone. There is a lot of schools that don't do centers. How do you not do them?" (Betty, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

Hawk's culture juxtaposes their perseverance and effectiveness with other schools' perceived incompetence.

Nurturing

In addition to discourses regarding student demographics and perseverance, teachers use the discourse of nurturing to define the performance of effective teacher at Hawk Elementary.

Teachers define nurturing in terms of mothering:

“What’s funny is, we were playing, singing our songs, and we were doing American Idol. One of the kids said I was Simon, and I asked what he meant. He said I was strict, not mean. I think it’s more, they think that I’m a mother type. I will coddle them, but then I will set them straight. They all just want to be here because they know I will be there. And I want it to be warm. I want it to be fun” (Helen, Interview, May 2011).

Mothering, in the form of enduring guidance, was a theme in teachers' conversations:

“Those students who are headed down that same path, making the wrong choices I made, I hopefully, I can stop, or intervene, or say to them something that I wish someone would have said to me. So when I was at the time of making that choice I could have remembered. I have had two success stories on that already. I’m praying that someday they’ll remember I said, they don’t even have to remember my name, just remember that somebody told me, or reflect back on that time when I encouraged them or they felt good, and that will help them make the right choices down the road” (Julia, Interview, May 2011).

In addition to the more figurative mothering, teachers also serve as surrogate parents for their students:

“You would have to give a lot or yourself. If you know you have a big family and you know you wouldn’t be able to participate in certain things, you wouldn’t want to come here because you’re required to be here for these children because a lot of them don’t have parents who come and be here for them. So, you have to give a whole lot of yourself. If you know you’re not like that you shouldn’t be here. Because you are here for the kids. If you stay here more than a year, that means you are here because you want to make a difference in these children’s lives. Not because I like talking to so and so and I like hanging out with her outside of work. Your main focus is that you know, without you, they may or may not have a chance. At least you have giving them a bright spot. You are their safe haven. We were all placed here for a reason, and we just do what we do for these children” (Alice, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

The school culture required teachers to move beyond academics and nurture the whole child.

Teachers found a sense of identity and purpose in the nurturing role:

“The majority of us love what we do. You have to really love what you do in your heart of hearts to stay here. I love to teach. Some days I go bananas, but I truly love what I do. Your scores are horrible but I still love what I do and I want to be here for the kids to help them become successful” (Shannon, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

At Hawk, the school culture hinged on student development and teachers’ roles in that development rather than test scores or adhering to mandates.

Resistance Across Figured Worlds

Because so much of the school culture was characterized by teachers’ identities as effective teachers, resistance towards reforms became a common theme in interviews and observations. The reforms threatened their identity by calling into question their effectiveness as teacher. Although all teachers expressed some opposition to reform, the resistance appeared in three different forms as three different types of teacher identities, largely characterized by the teacher’s beliefs about the effectiveness of the reform strategies and accountability. Three composite identities characterize these views: the Believer, the Hopeful, and the Opposer.

The Believer

The Believer understands the need for reform and generally agrees with the changes being implemented: “On one hand you have to do what you have to do because it’s being mandated. On the other hand you have to do what you have to do it because it’s what the kids need” (Betty, Focus Group 3, May 2011). The Believer also utilized the vocabulary of the system to reclaim a voice of authority: “I can use all the buzz words: NCLB, Race to the Top. But they are forgetting about what’s important: the students.” (Shannon, Interview, April 2011).

The gap between mandate and perceived student needs is where the Believer stages her resistance. The Believer utilizes the mandated pacing guides and lessons because she sees their larger purpose; however, she revises them to meet student needs:

“As long as you do what they say, as long as you do the lesson the way they’re telling them to do them, you’re fine. You can always add. Anything I think I need to throw in I throw in. You’re using what they’re giving you and then expanding. I don’t feel like I’m being controlled. A lot of my children are visual versus auditory. So, I try to just add on to what they want. If it’s not working the way that they told me, I’ll still use the same words but just go a little further and add my own little touch to it.” (Alice, Focus Group 2, April 2011).

The Believer would tell me she was “following the pacing guide exactly” on a particular day.

However, I could have the document in front of me and see she was not. The Believer explained this discrepancy, laughing:

“It’s the same topic, but we all have found a way to have the right page open so that if anybody walks in it looks like I’m right on but I’m not teaching from that page. I’m just teaching the curriculum in a way that I think is best for our children. If it’s an X it’s an X; it doesn’t matter how I got there. I may have gone here here here, but it’s still an X. Everything is not black and white. It’s not cookie cutter. The district wants education to be cookie cutter. But that doesn’t work for kids. A lot of things are mandated, though, so but we still take it and tweak it as much as possible until people with clipboards come around and tell us to change it” (Shannon, Focus Group 3, May 2011).

Instead of overtly fighting the mandates, The Believer preserves her freedom and the figured world of school culture, and therefore her identity as teacher, subversively by adhering to the spirit of the reforms but not the letter. Furthermore, the Believer sees her role as a teacher to look beyond documents towards the whole child and his needs:

“So maybe you didn’t get to math today because all the kids were upset about something. Something happens and you can’t get to it. There is a divide between the two, and a good teacher knows how to blend both. You can’t just go by the books and the rules because these legislators and some administrators have not been in these classrooms. Some of all the research and documentation that they have, I think the Department of Instruction should come in and actually see what it looks like in the classroom. They need to visit and see what work we’re doing before they keep saying teacher, teacher, teacher. They

can't keep putting it all on the teachers' backs. They need to come into the classroom and see this child came in August and knew nothing, and now look where he is. A teacher did that. He was a zero and now he's reading on a four or five level. He's not on a six, but look how far he came. That is a lot of extra help" (Betty, Focus Group 3, May 2011).

It is in those narratives of student success and academic progress that the Believer reclaims her identity as an effective teacher.

The Hopeful

The Hopeful truly hopes that the reforms will affect change but is not as confident as the Believer. Although the Hopeful implements the reforms, she is much more hesitant and more aware of the unintended consequences of the reforms:

"I don't like the way things are going. Because the way they have given us items, things to do, supposedly to help us get out of the red is making us get further into the red. [The district is] giving us too many changes to do and implement in a crucial time. These are changes that should have been implemented back in August not in the middle of third quarter when we're trying, you know we're a tier 1 school at the bottom trying to get up. You're more of a hindrance than a help. I think a lot of things were changed without really analyzing the full situation" (Shannon, Focus Group 1, April 2011).

The Hopeful reclaims the identity of effective teacher by questioning the effects of the district's mandate. It is not the reform itself that troubles the Hopeful—it is the timing and the breadth of reform rather than depth.

The Hopeful approaches district mandates and reforms with optimism, even if the details are challenging. For instance, when faced with the schedule change described previously in the vignette, the Hopeful works within the new schedule and calls for homogenous grouping to develop a system that will better meet the needs of students. She recognizes that there is no flexibility with the math curriculum, so she focuses on literacy. Rather than refusing to follow the scripted curriculum or resisting the schedule change, the Hopeful arranges the groups by literacy needs, where the curriculum is less scripted, so that instruction can be tailored to student

needs. She hopes that this subtle shift in focus towards literacy and away from math will better meet the needs of students, although she readily admits students' math needs may suffer slightly. The Hopeful makes mindful choices and attempts to mitigate unintended consequences without speaking out against the reforms.

The Hopeful can be seen as an ally of reform efforts. Like the Believer, she implements the changes; however, her adaptations are more substantial. The Hopeful claims her identity as effective teacher through more substantial revisions to reforms, emphasizing her professional knowledge of individual student needs.

The Opposer

Although the Opposer may implement the bare minimum of reforms, she is very vocal about her opposition both to the individual reforms and the larger school accountability and reform movement. The Opposer resists the imposition of standards and best practices from "experts" or politicians:

"It's just getting too political and they're running it like a business. You can't. These are children's lives at stake. It's not like I'm working a Toyota line and all I have to do is put the right part in the right place. This is not a factory. Schools are not a factory; they are not. Everybody is always talking, and it's always the people who are outside of the classroom that make all the rules and the guidelines and all the things you are supposed to get done in the time that we don't have. Next year, they want the testing to start on day one. Who tests kids on the first day of school? That's not reality. How do you get to know your kids and set rules and procedures? And pulling a child one at a time on the first day? That's not realistic. The people making the rules have apparently not been in a classroom. Progress monitoring is a good thing, but testing these kids every ten days is crazy. It takes a week just to test, and they're supposed to have ten days of instruction between assessments. You can't test a whole class in one day. There's just not enough time" (Betty, Focus Group 3, May 2011).

The Opposer reclaims the voice of the expert by invoking the needs of students and her own lived experiences into the larger debate. She is far more practical than the reforms will allow, and she raises these larger, pragmatic questions in faculty meetings and PLCs.

The Opposer's resistance to the district culture is more overt than the Believer and the Hopeful: "I don't think a lot of teachers here really trust the people downtown. It's difficult to adjust to someone that's here trying to make you do things the 'right' way." (Shannon, Interview, April 2011). The assumption that the district's way was the "right" way is interrogated by the Opposer; she is quick to find flaws in the plan and raise concerns. Furthermore, the Opposer openly adjusts the districts plans and mandates. She will announce that she is doing her "own thing" and her scores will justify it. Because of her past success, she can make these claims and is largely allowed to ignore the reforms.

The Opposer fears that teachers' efforts that facilitate student success will not be acknowledged: "I just don't want the wrong people to get the credit. The bottom line is us helping our students" (Betty, Focus Group 3, May 2011). The lack of acknowledgement, however, does not hinder The Opposer's efforts to reclaim her authority or resist the reforms. The Opposer utilizes the discourse of effective teachers and meeting student needs to justify her decisions, and her identity as an effective teacher drives her to implement changes within her own classroom to improve student achievement.

Through the three types of resistance, teachers reclaim their identity as effective teachers within the figured world of the school culture. By anchoring themselves in the school culture, teachers are able to interact with the figured worlds of the district and accountability culture,

accepting aspects of those worlds that align with their own beliefs and rejecting those that threaten their identity.

Chapter Five: Implications

Researchers have long debated the use of quantitative or qualitative methods to study school culture. The subjective nature of beliefs and values creates challenges to quantifiably measuring school culture, making more qualitative methods ideal for gathering thick description of culture. However, qualitative data collection is a labor intensive, time consuming effort that produces results that are not generalizable in the traditional sense. Because culture is ever subtly evolving, qualitative measures may not capture an accurate picture; by the time the data collection is complete, the culture is shifting. This study utilized both methods in an attempt to capture both a static snapshot of the culture and a thicker description of that snapshot. Within this thick description, several implications of cultural change as a reform strategy emerged for not only Hawk Elementary but also the education community writ large.

Many reform efforts target school culture as the hub of change; academic optimism is one such example. By systematically reshaping the way academic emphasis, parental involvement, and collective efficacy are viewed within the school, this reform model targets an increase in students' academic success. Reforms that utilize change in culture as a mechanism for improvement, including academic optimism, do not consider the integral relationship between school culture and teacher identity.

In this study, teachers referred to school culture as the collective “we,” which formed the figured word of the school culture. At Hawk Elementary, this culture was based upon academic optimism, a result of previous research upon which the current study was based (Bower, In press;

Bower & Griffin, 2011; Bower & Powers, 2010). Academic emphasis was seen through not only high academic standards for all students, a finding of previous work that resonated in this study in the discourse as meeting students' needs, but also supports strategies to assist all students in meeting these standards. Although the school's actual assessment scores as denoted in the school's classification as low-performing may not suggest an academic emphasis, the underlying philosophy and focus pervaded. Collective efficacy, discussed more extensively in Bower (In press), was seen in this study in the operation of Professional Learning Communities (PLC). Each PLC had a formalized, administration-driven work plan and scheduled weekly meeting time. Perhaps more significantly, as indicated in this study's findings, teachers worked outside of these groups to collaborate on lesson plans, discuss specific strategies for individual students, and help when and where needed. All teachers took ownership for all students, stepping in to assist the assigned classroom teacher as requested. Teachers believed they could impact children academically and holistically, and worked towards those ends. Finally, faculty trust emerged through the discourse regarding parent/school relationships in a previous study (Bower & Griffin, 2011) but did not emerge as a dominant theme in this study's findings.

The figured world of the school culture was seen in direct opposition to the figured worlds of the district and accountability cultures even though these figured worlds viewed the outcomes of academic optimism as goals. The three worlds occupied the physical school building by way of artifacts and actors' performances, but the scope, actors, accountability structures, and key characteristics were unique:

Table 1: Figured Worlds

	The Figured World of Accountability Culture	The Figured World of the District Culture	The Figured World of School Culture as Teacher Identity
Scope	National Ethos	47 Schools	1 School
Actors	Legislators and the General Public	School Administrators and Central Office Staff	Teachers
Accountability Structures	General Public	School Administrators and Central Office Staff	Individual Teachers and Their Peers
Key Characteristics	Testing, Curriculum Narrowing, and Pressure	Standardization and Assessment	Effective Teachers, Planning, and Nurturing

This study’s participants spoke of the school culture in terms of “we” which included only teachers; “they” included the school administrators—even though teachers and administrators were housed within the school—in addition to district officials and the larger educational community. “They” were considered outsiders that had little knowledge of the realities of their classrooms. Teachers in this study began to find alternatives to mandates that “they”, the outsiders, made. These alternatives would allow them as teachers to meet the requirements of the mandate without sacrificing their own values, practices, and freedoms in the classrooms. Although resistance was prevalent, the forms of resistance exercised by teachers in this study varied according to the teachers’ identity in relation to the reform—the Believers, the Hopefuls, or the Opposers.

The Believer can be viewed as an ally in the reform movement. She is able to verbally support the changes and implement those changes in her classroom. The Believer retains her identity as an effective teacher, as defined by the study’s teachers, by “flexing” the reforms. While she implements the idea of the reforms, she shifts the methods slightly. She may not make

sweeping changes to the reforms, but she does “tweak” the plans, flexing time or supplementing with additional activities. Although she appears as an advocate for the reform, she greatly undermines the movement’s efficacy. Because she deviates from what the reform mandates and does not document the nature of these deviations, administrators can no longer claim that the mandated reforms resulted in student success. Although the reforms may have contributed to student growth, without fidelity, it is difficult to make evidence-based claims about reform effectiveness.

The Hopeful’s lack of fidelity to reforms, like the Believer’s, subtly undermines reforms. For instance, as noted in Chapter 4, she may state that she follows a pacing guide exactly, but closer examination reveals she supplements the guides with additional activities or substitutes activities that she feels better meet the needs of her students. These changes are made quietly and individually. Although student achievement may increase, it remains unclear how much of that change is due to the reform itself or the Hopeful’s revisions and the implementation of those revisions. Because she is not vocal about the revisions and does not formally document her decisions, the reforms that were truly implemented would be difficult to define or replicate.

Although it may appear that the Opposer is the enemy of reform with respect to fidelity and the examination of reform effectiveness, she is its strongest ally. The Opposer does not oppose reform in general; she opposes hasty and unilateral decisions. She agrees change is needed, but she seeks incremental change that is driven by teachers—not district mandates or a larger accountability culture. She openly states and documents the ways she implements or revises reforms, increasing the likelihood of accurate analysis and the possibility of replication.

Despite their different approaches to resisting reform, all three identities share a common justification for their actions: meeting student needs. This justification defines the teachers' identity and therefore shapes the culture. Any reform that is perceived to interfere with this goal is rejected by teachers. Although teachers may agree with the individual targets of academic optimism, its implementation does not address the multifaceted needs of students. The district and accountability figured worlds are seen as a threat to student welfare and are therefore resisted.

For Hawk Elementary, ignoring teachers' responses to mandated reform could have drastic consequences. Mandated reforms have unintended outcomes like teacher dissatisfaction highlighted in Chapter 4; the study's participants questioned the benefits of striving to meet the needs of students under the working conditions created by the reform. After the quantitative phase of this study, one participant left the study and the school. Her identity as an effective teacher was so threatened that she was unable to continue teaching at Hawk. She left for another school with two days notice and began pursuing a lawsuit against the school and district for hostile work environment. As the study progressed, I learned at least three other teachers were joining the suit, and other teachers were being approached to join as well. Because teachers were not involved in the reform efforts, they sought to reclaim their identities as effective teachers through legal channels.

Although this study's findings and the ramifications of ignoring the unintended outcomes of mandated reform, were limited to one school, the implications can be extended to the larger educational arena. If school culture and teacher identity are closely related, any efforts to reform the school culture must intimately involve teachers. Their values, beliefs, and voices must be

esteemed factors in any decisions. Although prepackaged reform models that emphasize culture may be an inviting and convenient way for schools to approach change, they cannot be successful if the proposed aims and philosophy do not align with teachers' collective identities. A model akin to that proposed by Darling-Hammond (1993), called redesign of practice, may be the most effective way for improvement to occur. Rather than administrators or districts selecting packaged reforms or introducing reform targets, such a model allows efforts to be tailored to local contexts and teachers are central to those efforts. Unlike the reform articulated by this study's participants, under a redesign of practice model teachers would have the latitude and authority to utilize their knowledge of strengths and weaknesses of the school context and their knowledge of student needs to alter practices to reach desired ends, which they and other stakeholders define. A model based on teacher leadership assumes a well-prepared teaching force with sufficient resources. District officials and administrators become support staff, leveraging resources and procuring "just in time" professional development to help teachers implement the targeted practices.

A redesign of practice model like the one proposed by Darling-Hammond positions teachers as experts and functions to retain their freedom in the classroom. In contrast to the experiences teachers reported in this study, teachers would have the option to collaborate on assessment design and curriculum pacing. They would have flexibility within the curriculum to accommodate student interest and tailor instruction to meet students' needs. Such a model of reform may lessen the teachers' feelings of pressure and threatened identity articulated in this study. The proposed redesign of practice model where teachers are central and their expertise is valued and used directly contradicts the pervading cult of efficiency and reliance upon outside

experts that have long guided education reform and decision making. Resources and time, common markers of efficiency, needed to improve schools would vary greatly.

In addition to concerns of efficiency, allowing individual schools and teachers greater freedoms is difficult to conceive in this era of increasing accountability and NCLB. With schools facing sanctions if test scores do not improve, schools and districts perceive that there is little time to experiment with new strategies. Well-articulated plans and aligned interventions satisfy the public demand for accountability and “effective” teaching. Even in light of the aforementioned, this study’s findings indicate that policies should reexamine the role of professional teachers and communities of practice within schools. A reexamination of professional teachers and communities of practice within schools may require a shift in the national ethos from a view of effective teaching as a solely assessment-based standard and towards a more holistic model in order for true educational reform to be possible. Rather than defining accountability as a score on a standardized test, accountability may be based upon student growth, one indicator voiced by teachers in this study. Teachers would be intricately involved in defining student growth and determining how best to track it.

For Hawk Elementary, and other urban schools, the accountability questions around student growth are urgent and complicated. Highly transient populations make tracking student growth more difficult; the problem is amplified when the staff has a high turnover rate, a concern that did not exist at Hawk Elementary. In this study, Hawk, unlike other urban schools with similar demographic profiles, benefited from a stable school staff, which enabled teachers to have a greater sense of identity. Teachers’ roles within the school culture of Hawk Elementary

were highly defined, and attempts by outsiders to reform that culture were resisted. In schools like Hawk, teachers must be given ownership if redesigns of practice are to occur.

In a model of reform where redesigns of practice are the goal, the three exemplar identities described in this study could become significant change agents and facilitative of reform. The Believers could become the advocates for change, encouraging teachers to try new practices and reminding the school of the need for reform. The Hopefuls could become the cautious voices, reminding the school of the unintended consequences and mitigating those situations. The Opposers could become the leaders of reform, documenting shifts in practice and ensuring that an accurate history is recorded. Together, the school-based team could implement true redesigns of practice that are linked to student growth and achievement.

Suggestions for Future Study

This study lays a foundation for future studies of school culture and teacher identity that have implications for reform. Additional studies are needed to further define the types of resistance, determine if the exemplar identities of this study and others can be applied to schools as a whole, and if and how the identities of individual teachers and teachers as a group within a school are related to student achievement and other student outcomes.

For this study, the exemplar identities emerged from the study of one school. Qualitative studies should be conducted across several schools with different demographic profiles located in diverse geographic regions with the goal of determining the extent to which this study's identities of resistance are applicable. . Once exemplar identities are articulated teacher surveys or observational protocol could be developed as tools to inform the implementation of reform. .

The instruments would then need to be field tested with large samples in diverse schools to test for reliability and validity.

Once exemplar identities are delineated, it would be desirable, in light of the pressures and realities of the accountability culture, to examine student achievement as it relates to each identity. Do teachers' choices to ignore district reform strategies help or hinder student achievement? Do opposers make the gains in student achievement they profess? Correlational studies with large sample sizes would be an ideal study design. Furthermore, studies should be conducted in diverse schools to see if the effect of these exemplar identities was the same regardless of school type or location.

Finally, studies could be conducted to see if these exemplar identities apply at the school level. Do some schools operate as opposers within the district? The frameworks outlined above could be utilized to conduct similar assessments of identities and correlations to student achievement. It would be ideal to utilize a large, diverse district implementing a reform mandate as the sample for this study.

Although the study conducted was an ethnographic case study and the findings are not generalizable, its themes and implications raise new questions around cultural change as a school reform strategy. These questions signify an alternative way to think about reform, a path that may prove useful in addressing the challenges of the 21st century.

Appendix A: Organizational Health Inventory-Elementary

DIRECTIONS: THE FOLLOWING ARE STATEMENTS THAT ABOUT YOUR SCHOOL.
PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH STATEMENT CHARACTERIZES
YOUR SCHOOL BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE.

RO=RARELY OCCURS (1) SO=SOMETIMES OCCURS (2) O=OFTEN OCCURS (3) VFO=VERY
FREQUENTLY OCCURS (4)

1. The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist....	RO	SO	O	VFO
2. The principal gets what he or she asks for from superiors.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
3. The principal discusses classroom issues with teachers.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
4. The principal accepts questions without appearing to snub or quash the teacher	RO	SO	O	VFO
5. Extra materials are available if requested.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
6. Students neglect to complete homework.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
7. Students are cooperative during classroom instruction.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
8. The school is vulnerable to outside pressures.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
9. The principal is able to influence the actions of his or her superiors.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
10. The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
11. The principal goes out of his or her way to show appreciation to teachers.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
12. Teachers are provided with adequate materials for their classrooms.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
13. Teachers in this school like each other.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
14. Community demands are accepted even when they are not consistent with the educational program.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
15. The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
16. Teachers receive necessary classroom supplies.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
17. The principal conducts meaningful evaluations.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
18. Students respect others who get good grades.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
19. Teachers feel pressure from the community.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
20. The principal's recommendations are given serious consideration by his or her superiors.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
21. The principal maintains definite standards of performance.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
22. Supplementary materials are available for classroom use.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
23. Teachers exhibit friendliness to each other.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
24. Students seek extra work so they can get good grades.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
25. Select citizen groups are influential with the board.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
26. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of faculty members.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
27. Teachers express pride in their school.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
28. Teachers identify with the school.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
29. The school is open to the whims of the public.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
30. A few vocal parents can change school policy.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
31. Students try hard to improve on previous work.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
32. Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
33. The learning environment is orderly and serious.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
34. The principal is friendly and approachable.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
35. There is a feeling of trust and confidence among the staff.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
36. Teachers show commitment to their students.....	RO	SO	O	VFO
37. Teachers are indifferent to each other.....	RO	SO	O	VFO

Appendix B: Omnibus Trust Scale

DIRECTIONS: THE FOLLOWING ARE STATEMENTS THAT ABOUT YOUR SCHOOL. PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH STATEMENT CHARACTERIZES YOUR SCHOOL BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE.

SD=STRONGLY DISAGREE (1) D=DISAGREE (2) SWD=SOMEWHAT DISAGREE (3)
SWA=SOMEWHAT AGREE (4) A=AGREE (5) SA=STRONGLY AGREE (5)

1. Teachers in this school trust the principal.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
2. Teachers in this school trust each other.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
3. Teachers in this school trust their students.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
4. The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the principal's actions.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
5. Teachers in this school typically look out for each other.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
6. Teachers in this school trust the parents.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
7. The teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
8. Teachers in this school are suspicious of each other.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
9. The principal in this school typically acts in the best interests of teachers.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
10. Students in this school care about each other.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
11. The principal of this school does not show concern for the teachers.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
12. Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
13. Teachers in this school do their jobs well.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
14. Parents in this school are reliable in their commitments.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
15. Teachers in this school can rely on the principal.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
16. Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
17. Students in this school can be counted on to do their work.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
18. The principal in this school is competent in doing his or her job.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
19. The teachers in this school are open with each other.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
20. Teachers can count on parental support	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
21. When teachers in this school tell you something, you can believe it.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
22. Teachers here believe students are competent learners.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
23. The principal doesn't tell teachers what is really going on.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
24. Teachers think that most of the parents do a good job.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
25. Teachers can believe what parents tell them.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
26. Students here are secretive.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA

Appendix C: Collective Efficacy Scale

DIRECTIONS: THE FOLLOWING ARE STATEMENTS THAT ABOUT YOUR SCHOOL.
PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH STATEMENT CHARACTERIZES
YOUR SCHOOL BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE.

SD=STRONGLY DISAGREE (1) D=DISAGREE (2) SWD=SOMEWHAT DISAGREE (3) SWA=SOMEWHAT
AGREE (4) A=AGREE (5) SA=STRONGLY AGREE (6)

1. Teachers in the school are able to get through to the most difficult students.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
2. Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
3. If a child doesn't want to learn teachers here give up.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
4. Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
5. If a child doesn't learn something the first time teachers will try another way.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
6. Teachers in this school are skilled in various methods of teaching.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
7. Teachers here are well-prepared to teach the subjects they are assigned to teach.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
8. Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teaching methods.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
9. Teachers in this school have what it takes to get the children to learn.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
10. The lack of instructional materials and supplies makes teaching very difficult.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
11. Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
12. Teachers in this school think there are some students that no one can reach.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
13. The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the teaching and learning process.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
14. The students here come in with so many advantages they are bound to learn.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
15. These students come to school ready to learn.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
16. Drugs and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
17. The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
18. Students here just aren't motivated to learn.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
19. Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
20. Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with these students.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
21. Teachers in this school truly believe every child can learn.	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA

Appendix D: Organizational Health Inventory Scores
Individual Items (Range of 1-4)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
OH1	8	2.00	4.00	2.8750	.83452
OH2	6	2.00	3.00	2.6667	.51640
OH3	8	2.00	4.00	3.3750	.74402
OH4	7	1.00	4.00	2.8571	1.06904
OH5	7	1.00	4.00	2.2857	1.11270
OH6R	8	1.00	3.00	2.0000	.75593
OH7	8	2.00	3.00	2.6250	.51755
OH8R	7	1.00	3.00	2.0000	.81650
OH9	6	2.00	3.00	2.5000	.54772
OH10	6	2.00	4.00	3.0000	.63246
OH11	6	2.00	4.00	3.0000	.63246
OH12	8	1.00	4.00	2.2500	1.03510
OH13	8	3.00	4.00	3.5000	.53452
OH14R	7	1.00	4.00	2.7143	.95119
OH15	8	3.00	4.00	3.6250	.51755
OH16	8	1.00	4.00	2.2500	1.03510
OH17	8	2.00	4.00	3.2500	.70711
OH18	8	2.00	4.00	2.7500	.88641
OH19R	8	2.00	4.00	3.3750	.91613
OH20	5	2.00	4.00	2.8000	.83666
OH21	7	2.00	4.00	3.2857	.75593
OH22	7	1.00	4.00	2.2857	1.11270
OH23	8	3.00	4.00	3.3750	.51755
OH24 ³	8	1.00	3.00	1.6250	.74402
OH25R ²	5	3.00	4.00	3.8000	.44721
OH26	7	1.00	4.00	2.5714	.97590
OH27	8	2.00	4.00	2.8750	.99103
OH28	7	2.00	4.00	2.4286	.78680
OH29R	7	1.00	4.00	2.5714	1.13389
OH30R	7	1.00	4.00	3.1429	1.06904
OH31	8	1.00	3.00	2.1250	.83452
OH32	8	2.00	4.00	3.0000	.75593
OH33	8	2.00	4.00	3.2500	.88641
OH34	8	1.00	4.00	2.7500	1.03510
OH35	8	1.00	4.00	2.7500	1.03510
OH36	8	3.00	4.00	3.7500	.46291
OH37R	8	2.00	4.00	3.6250	.74402
Valid N (listwise)	3				

Composites

Profile Item	Score	Standardized Score	Comparison ¹
Institutional Integrity	17.6	555.60	Average
Collegial Leadership ²	30.61	662.20	Higher than 84% of Schools
Resource Influence ³	17.05	373.79	Lower than 97% of Schools
Teacher Affiliation	28.57	575.50	Average
Academic Emphasis ³	11.14	278.62	Lower than 99% of Schools
Overall Health Index		489.14	Slightly Below Average

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.888	37

¹ Comparison derived using survey designed formulas based on a representative, study designed sample of schools in the United States

²Score that were considered protective factors

³Scores that were considered risk factors

Appendix E: Omnibus Trust Scores

Individual Items (Range is 1-6)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
T1	8	1.00	6.00	3.8750	1.72689
T2	8	4.00	6.00	4.7500	.70711
T3	8	1.00	5.00	3.3750	1.30247
T4R	8	1.00	6.00	3.3750	1.76777
T5	8	1.00	6.00	4.8750	1.64208
T6	8	2.00	5.00	2.8750	.99103
T7	8	2.00	6.00	4.3750	1.30247
T8R	8	3.00	6.00	4.7500	1.03510
T9	8	1.00	6.00	4.3750	1.92261
T10	8	2.00	5.00	3.5000	1.06904
T11	8	1.00	5.00	2.6250	1.30247
T12 ²	8	5.00	6.00	5.5000	.53452
T13	8	1.00	6.00	4.6250	1.59799
T14 ³	8	1.00	4.00	2.0000	1.19523
T15	8	2.00	6.00	4.5000	1.30931
T16	8	1.00	6.00	4.5000	1.51186
T17	8	2.00	5.00	4.0000	1.06904
T18	8	4.00	6.00	5.1250	.83452
T19	8	1.00	6.00	4.3750	1.68502
T20 ³	8	1.00	4.00	1.7500	1.16496
T21	8	3.00	5.00	4.5000	.75593
T22	8	3.00	5.00	4.7500	.70711
T23R	7	1.00	6.00	3.7143	1.88982
T24	8	1.00	5.00	2.7500	1.48805
T25 ³	8	1.00	3.00	1.8750	.99103
T26R	8	1.00	6.00	3.2500	1.83225
Valid N (listwise)	7				

Composites

Profile Item	Score	Standardized Score	Comparison ¹
Trust in the Principal ³	4.00	442.07	Lower than 84% of Schools
Trust in Colleagues	4.74	563.21	Average
Trust in Clients ³	3.01	416.26	Lower than 84% of Schools

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.881	26

¹ Comparison derived using survey designed formulas based on a representative, study designed sample of schools in the United States

²Score that were considered protective factors

³Scores that were considered risk factors

Appendix F: Collective Efficacy Scores

Individual Items (Range is 1-6)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CE1	8	1.00	6.00	3.8750	1.45774
CE2	8	4.00	6.00	4.6250	.74402
CE3R	8	3.00	6.00	4.7500	1.28174
CE4R ²	8	3.00	6.00	5.0000	1.06904
CE5 ²	8	5.00	6.00	5.6250	.51755
CE6 ²	8	4.00	6.00	5.1250	.83452
CE7	8	4.00	6.00	4.8750	.64087
CE8R	8	2.00	6.00	4.0000	1.51186
CE9	8	1.00	6.00	4.3750	1.50594
CE10R ³	8	1.00	2.00	1.3750	.51755
CE11R	8	1.00	6.00	3.8750	1.72689
CE12R	8	2.00	6.00	3.7500	1.58114
CE13	8	1.00	6.00	4.2500	1.48805
CE14 ³	8	1.00	5.00	1.7500	1.38873
CE15	8	1.00	6.00	3.3750	1.59799
CE16R	8	1.00	6.00	3.0000	2.00000
CE17	8	1.00	6.00	3.0000	1.60357
CE18R	8	1.00	6.00	3.2500	1.66905
CE19R	8	1.00	6.00	4.1250	1.55265
CE20R	8	1.00	6.00	3.2500	1.90863
CE21 ²	8	2.00	6.00	5.0000	1.30931
Valid N (listwise)	8				

Composites

Profile Item	Score	Standardized Score	Comparison ¹
Collective Efficacy	3.92	468.70	Lower than 84% of Schools

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.820	21

¹ Comparison derived using survey designed formulas based on a representative, study designed sample of schools in the United States

²Score that were considered protective factors

³Scores that were considered risk factors

Appendix G: Focus Group 1 Guide

I noticed in the survey results that the perceived level of collegial leadership (principal advocacy, fairness, effectiveness) is high, but the level of trust in the principal is low. Why do you think these two scores are opposite?

Possible probes: Interim Principal, Levels of Leadership

The survey results suggest that teachers don't feel as though they receive the necessary resources or support. Do you think that is true? What resources are lacking? Why?

Possible probes: District resources/mandates, Parental Support

The survey results also suggest that academics are not valued by students. Can you tell me more about that. Why do you think that is?

Possible probes: Parental Support, How are efforts to increase rigor received?

The survey results also indicate that teachers trust each other and each teacher's commitment to the school. However, the faculty as a whole does not feel effective. Is that true? Why do you think that is?

Possible probes: PLCs, Accountability

Appendix H: Focus Group 2 Guide

Over and over, I've heard that this school is different than any other school—even those with similar demographics. What do you think makes this school so unique?

Possible Prompts: Identity? Reform? Culture?

What does it take to be a teacher in this school?

Possible Prompts: Collaboration? Strategies? Flexibility?

What do you think about the role of the district and accountability in general?

Possible Prompts: Necessity? Misguided? Functionality?

Appendix I: Selected Images

Figure I1: Objectives

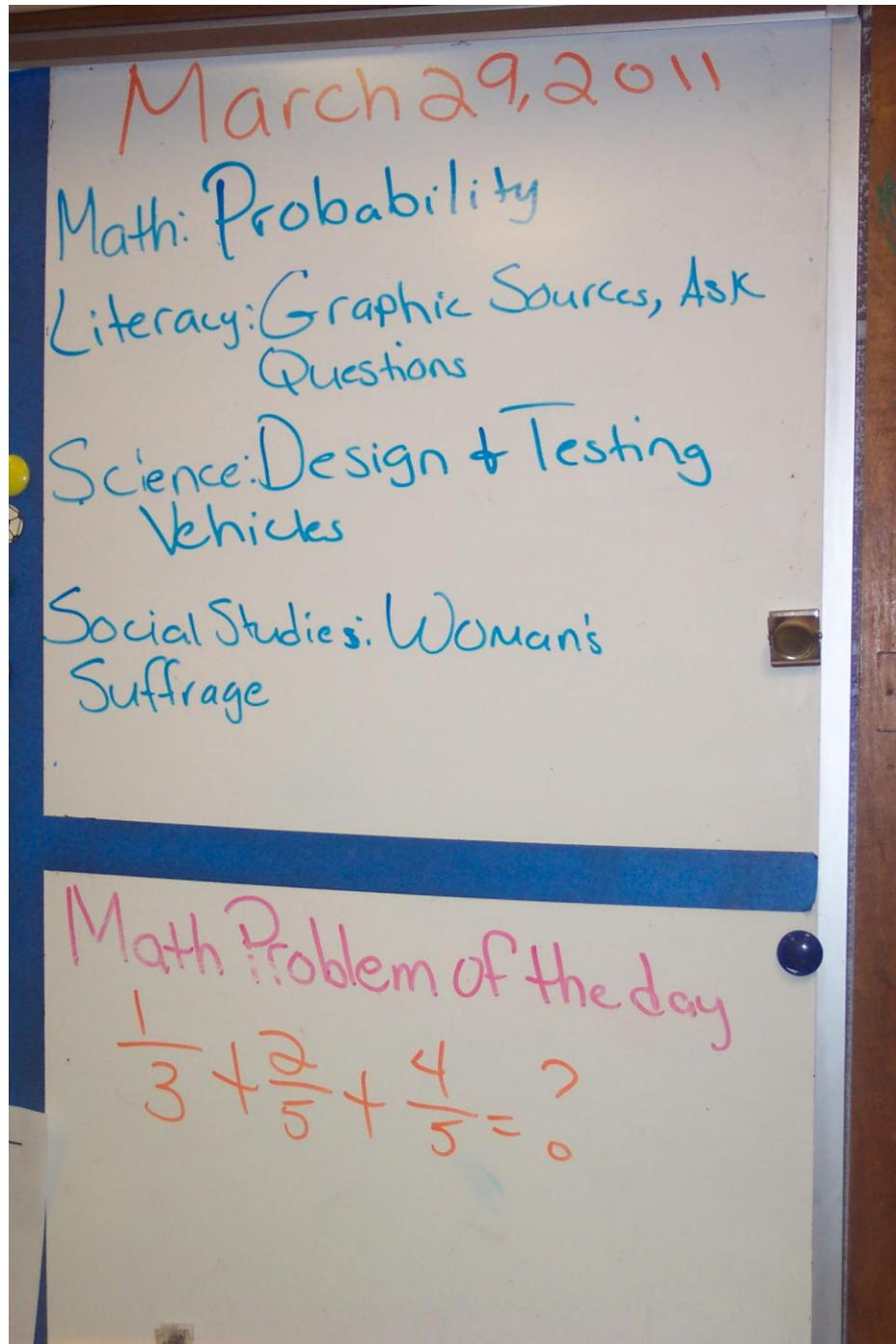
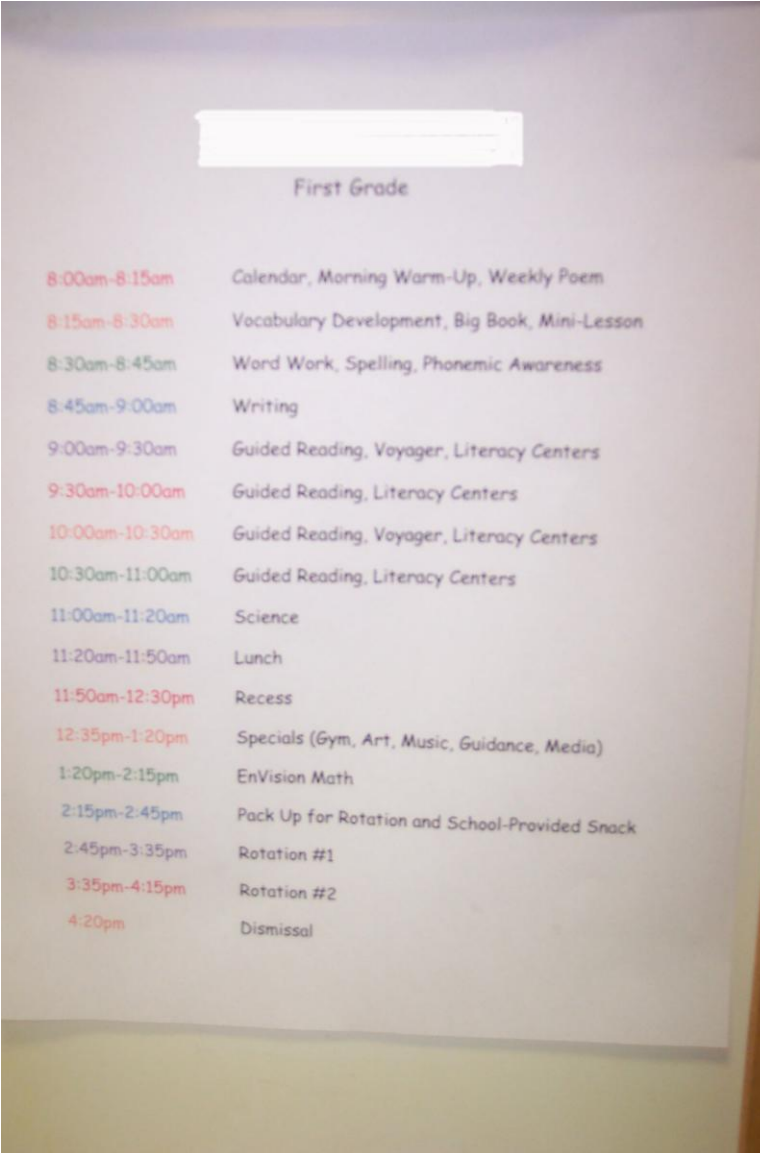


Figure I2: Kindergarten Schedule

Kindergarten Schedule	
7:45-8:00	Arrival/Morning Announcement
8:00-8:10	Calendar Activity
8:10-9:00	Literacy Block//Shared Reading Mini lesson/Word Work/Group Share
9:00-10:00	Guided Reading/ Differentiated/Instruction
10:10-10:45	Voyager/Double Dose
10:45-11:00	Restroom Break
11:00-11:30	Lunch
11:30-12:00	Science/Social Studies
12:00-12:30	Resources (Mon. - Fri.) Science/Media/ Writing Specials (Mon.-Fri.) P. E./ Dance/Music/ Art
12:30-1:00	Outside Play
1:00-1:30	Math/Math Workshop Centers
1:30-2:20	Rest/Story time
2:20-3:00	Snack
3:00-3:15	Museum workshop/Science/Social Studies
3:15-4:15	
4:15-4:30	Wrap-up/ Dismissal

October November December January February March April May

Figure I3: First and Second Grade Schedule



First Grade	
8:00am-8:15am	Calendar, Morning Warm-Up, Weekly Poem
8:15am-8:30am	Vocabulary Development, Big Book, Mini-Lesson
8:30am-8:45am	Word Work, Spelling, Phonemic Awareness
8:45am-9:00am	Writing
9:00am-9:30am	Guided Reading, Voyager, Literacy Centers
9:30am-10:00am	Guided Reading, Literacy Centers
10:00am-10:30am	Guided Reading, Voyager, Literacy Centers
10:30am-11:00am	Guided Reading, Literacy Centers
11:00am-11:20am	Science
11:20am-11:50am	Lunch
11:50am-12:30pm	Recess
12:35pm-1:20pm	Specials (Gym, Art, Music, Guidance, Media)
1:20pm-2:15pm	EnVision Math
2:15pm-2:45pm	Pack Up for Rotation and School-Provided Snack
2:45pm-3:35pm	Rotation #1
3:35pm-4:15pm	Rotation #2
4:20pm	Dismissal

Figure I4: Original Third, Fourth, and Fifth Grade Schedule

Our Schedule	
7:45-7:55	Arrival, Unpack
7:55-8:20	Independent Reading / Double D
8:20-9:40	Math
9:40-9:55	Mini Lesson (Skill/strategy)
9:55-10:40	Guided Reading
10:40-10:55	Word Study
10:55-11:25	Writing
11:25-11:35	Vocabulary
11:35-11:40	Clean-up
11:40-12:25	Lunch/Recess
12:25-1:25	Science
1:25-2:25	Specials
2:25-2:35	Snack/Pack up
2:40-4:25	After Noon Academy
4:25	Dismissal

Figure I5: Revised Third, Fourth, and Fifth Grade Schedule

Daily Schedule

7:45-8:15 Independent Reading

8:15-8:40 Review HW & Introduce Math Lesson

8:40-9:00 Math Rotation #1

9:00-9:20 Math Rotation #2

9:20-9:40 Math Rotation #3

9:40-10:00 Double Dose
(Skill, Strategy, Story, Vocabulary)

10:00-10:20 Guided Reading #1

10:20-10:40 Guided Reading #2

10:40-11:20 EOG Intervention

11:20-11:40 M-W Writing
Th-F EOG Reading

11:40-11:55 Math Daily Review

11:55-12:45 Lunch/Recess

12:45-1:20 Science

1:20-1:25 Agendas

1:25-2:25 Specials
(Music, Art, Media, Guidance, PE)

2:25-2:45 Snack/Pack Up

2:45-4:20 HW Help/Tutoring

4:30 Dismissal

The Narrative Writing Diamond

Key Words for Questioning at Each Level of Thinking and Reasoning

Below are suggested key words for assessing knowledge at each level of the Thinking and Reasoning hierarchy. Note that words at the middle level can be used at the next level as well.

Remembering	Organizing	Applying	Analyzing	Generating	Evaluating
list	compare	illustrate	classify	create	judge
copy	classify	use	analyze	design	defend
repeat	organize	execute	break down	invent	justify
recall	arrange	perform	examine	develop	argue
find	order	do	inspect	construct	decide
look up	sequence	operate	investigate	formulate	conclude
search	list	work	explore	propose	recommend
locate	group	use	analyze	create	defend
identify	plan	execute	break down	design	justify
recognize	arrange	perform	examine	develop	argue
know	order	do	investigate	formulate	decide
find	sequence	operate	explore	construct	conclude
look up	list	work	analyze	create	defend
search	group	use	break down	design	justify
locate	plan	execute	examine	develop	argue
identify	arrange	perform	investigate	formulate	decide
recognize	order	do	explore	construct	conclude
know	sequence	operate	analyze	create	defend
find	list	work	break down	design	justify
look up	group	use	examine	develop	argue
search	plan	execute	investigate	formulate	decide
locate	arrange	perform	explore	construct	conclude
identify	order	do	analyze	create	defend
recognize	sequence	operate	break down	design	justify
know	list	work	examine	develop	argue
find	group	use	investigate	formulate	decide
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search	arrange	perform	analyze	create	defend
locate	order	do	break down	design	justify
identify	sequence	operate	examine	develop	argue
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locate	plan	execute	examine	develop	argue
identify	arrange	perform	investigate	formulate	decide
recognize	order	do	explore	construct	conclude

Figure I6: Kindergarten Word Walls



Appendix J: Sample Pacing Guides

Table J1: Third Grade Math Pacing Guide

Day	RIO Unit 1: Addition and Subtraction- Using the Number System	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
1	<p><i>Investigation 1</i></p> <p><i>Hundreds, Tens, and Ones</i></p> <p><i>Students use base ten models such as stickers and money to represent the place value of 2 and 3 digit numbers. Students solve and discuss problems that involve addition and subtraction. Students solve missing addend problems by finding the distance between numbers</i></p>	<p>1.01</p> <p>1.06</p>	<p><i>Session 1.1 Stamps: Using a Base Ten Model for Representing Numbers</i></p> <p>Students are introduced to stamp problems as a context for representing place value of 2 and 3 digit numbers.</p> <p>Introduce Game “Roll a Square” to reinforce ones, tens, hundreds</p>	<p>Investigations unit: <u>Putting Together & Taking Apart</u></p>
Day	RIO Unit 1: Addition and Subtraction- Using the Number System	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
2		<p>1.01</p> <p>1.02</p> <p>1.06</p> <p>5.03</p> <p>5.04</p>	<p>Session 1.2 Adding and Subtracting 2-digit Numbers</p> <p>Students discuss representations for adding and subtracting multiples of 10.</p> <p>They solve a set of problems that involve adding and subtracting 2-digit numbers. (CGI problem structure)</p>	
3		1.01	<i>Session 1.3 Trading Tens and Ones</i>	

		1.02 1.06 1.04 5.03 5.04	Students discuss addition strategies. They solve problems, including some that involve trading. They discuss how the digits change in these problems. (CGI problem structure)	
4		1.01 1.02 1.06 5.04 5.03	Session 1.4 <i>How Many More Stickers to 100</i> Students solve missing addend problems in which they find the distance between 2-digit numbers and 100. They use 100 grids and number lines as tools for solving problems and representing their strategies. Students share strategies. (CGI problem structure)	
5		1.02 a 1.02 b c 1.04	Session 1.5 <i>Relationships Between Operations</i> Students use 100 grids to explore the relationship between addition and subtraction.	
6		1.01 1.02 1.06	Session 1.6 <i>Capture 5</i> Students play Capture 5, a game that provides practice in adding and subtracting 10's and 1's <i>7 Strategies for Capture 5</i> Students discuss strategies for Capture 5 focusing on adding and subtracting 10's and 1's and solving problems which involve finding the difference between 2-digit numbers and 3-digit numbers.	Investigations Unit: <u>Putting Together and Taking Apart</u>

7		1.01 a b c 1.02 a b c	<p><i>Session 1.8 Collect \$2.00</i></p> <p>Students learn and play Collect \$2.00, a game that involves accumulating a total of \$2.00 using pennies, dimes, and dollars as a context for place value.</p> <p>Students compare and contrast our money system with our base ten number system.</p>	
8		102 a 1.06	<p><i>Session 1.9 Coupons</i></p> <p>The students use coupons to figure out a set of numbers to give a total savings.</p> <p>Collect coupons that relate to student interests or have students order books.</p>	Investigations Unit: <u>Combining</u> & <u>Comparing</u>
Day	RIO Unit 1: Addition and Subtraction- Using the Number System	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
9		1.01	<p><i>Session 1.10 Making Numbers With 100's, 10's and 1's</i></p> <p>Students use the stamps in context to represent up to 3-digit numbers. They discuss equivalent combinations of stamps for given numbers.</p>	
10		1.01	<p><i>Session 1.11 Making Numbers With 100's, 10's and 1's</i></p> <p>Students use the stamps in context to represent up to 3-digit numbers. They discuss equivalent</p>	

			combinations of stamps for given numbers.	
11 & 12		1.01 1.02	<i>Session 1.12 Math Workshop</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collect \$10 This is a game using pennies, dimes and dollars. • Capture 5 • Renaming Numbers equivalent combinations • Shopping with Coupons • Roll a Square • Money Game 	
13	Investigation I: Doubling and Halving Review combining and comparing quantities in various contexts. Focus on strategies of doubling and halving.	1.02 a c 1.04 1.05 5.01 5.03	<i>Session 1.1 Doubles and Halves</i> Students explore patterns of doubles and make conjectures.	Investigation s Unit: <u>Mathematica</u> <u>l Thinking at</u> <u>Grade 3</u>
14		1.02 a 5.01	<i>Session 1.2 Plus-Minus-stay the Same</i> Students explore patterns on the hundred chart.	Investigation s Unit: <u>Mathematica</u> <u>l Thinking at</u> <u>Grade 3</u>
15		1.02 a 1.02 b 1.06	<i>Session 1.3 Doubling and Halving with Money.</i> Students review coin values as they use money to solve doubling problems.	Investigation s Unit: <u>Mathematica</u> <u>l Thinking at</u> <u>Grade 3</u>
16	Graphing: In lesson 4 students create a line plot. Data Collection and Data Analysis should be integrated across mathematics and across other disciplines throughout the year.	1.02 a 1.02 b c 4.01	<i>Session 1.4 Handfuls of Cubes and Other Objects</i> Students discuss strategies for adding and subtracting.	Investigation s Unit: <u>Mathematica</u> <u>l Thinking at</u> <u>Grade 3</u>
17 &	Math Workshop Students work on a variety of activities that focus on similar content. Math Workshop may provide additional support, extensions and opportunities for	1.02 a 1.02 b 1.02 c 1.06	<i>Session 1.5 Math Workshop</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pattern Block Designs • Double & Halves Problems • Grabbing Handfuls • Addition Combinations • Games 	Investigation s Unit: <u>Mathematica</u> <u>l Thinking at</u> <u>Grade 3</u>

18	differentiation. Click on Teacher Resource Link.		<i>Plus-Minus Stay the Same</i> <i>Double-Up or Double Maker</i>	
19		1.01	<i>Session 1.13 DPS Assessment: 1.01</i> Renaming Numbers using 1's, 10's, 100's. <i>Extension:</i> Students research other number systems: Roman, Egyptian, Mayan, etc.	
Day	RIO Unit 1: Addition and Subtraction- Using the Number System	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
20	<i>Investigation 2: Comparing Numbers Using Data</i> <i>Students use landmark numbers while making comparisons. Students use calendars to solve problems. They examine how the parts and the whole are related in addition and subtraction.</i>	1.02 1.06 4.01	<i>Session 2.1 Comparing Heights:</i> Students compare their heights with others who have placed world records. <i>The Guinness Book of Records.</i>	Investigations Unit: <u>Combining & Comparing</u>
21		1.02 1.06 4.01	<i>Session 2.2 Looking at Animal Data/ Oldest Living Relative:</i> Students bring in data from home and compare it with world record data. They compare the record ages of animals and people with ages of their pets and relatives.	Investigations Unit: <u>Combining & Comparing</u>
22		1.02 1.06	<i>Session 2.3 How Much Longer?</i> Students use calendars to figure out together how many more days until a particular holiday or event, and how many days until their next birthday.	Investigations Unit: <u>Combining & Comparing</u>
23		1.02 1.06	<i>Session 2.4 Days In and Out of School</i> Students consider two problems: (1) Which is more, the number of school days in a year or the number of non school days? (2) How much longer do students in other countries spend in	Investigations Unit: <u>Combining &</u>

			school than we do?	<u>Comparing</u>
24		1.01 1.02 1.06	<i>Session 2.5 Continuation of Work with Open Number</i> Students will continue to work on the strategy of using open number lines and connect its use to the 100's board. Money will also be used to reinforce place value.	
25	Investigations 3: Addition Combinations <i>Students apply ideas of place value as they estimate the sums of addition problems involving 2 digit numbers. Students determine if the sums are more or less than 100 or \$1.00, Students explore and discuss the equivalency of different combinations of hundreds, tens, and ones</i>	1.01 1.02	<i>Session 3.1 Close to 100</i> Students use knowledge of place value and known combinations that make 100 ($20 + 80$, $25 + 75$, $50 + 50$) to find pairs of 2-digit numbers that equal 100 or close to 100.	<u>Ten Minute Math</u> book
26		1.02	<i>Session 3.2 More or Less Than 100</i> Students will estimate the sums of addition problems involving 2-digit numbers to determine if the sums are more or less than 100. Students will share and discuss strategies. <i>Extensions: More or Less Than 1000</i> Estimate the sums of addition problems involving 2 digit and 3 digit numbers to determine sums more or less than 1000.	
Day	RIO Unit 1: Addition and Subtraction- Using the Number System	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
27		1.01	<i>Session 3.3 Finding different groupings of 256</i> Students take numbers apart and group them in	

			different ways, using ones, tens, hundreds.	
28 & 29	Extension: Research other number systems. Create a new number system.	1.01 1.02	<p><i>Session 3.4 Math Workshops:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Line-Up</i> Students will place numbers in order from least to greatest. • Place Value Path (Nimble with Numbers grades 4-5) • <i>Close Enough</i> Students use estimation strategies and place value strategies to get as close to 100 without going over 100. • <i>Take Your Places</i> Students use place value strategies to try to make the largest number. • <i>Three Other Ways</i> Students use base ten models to record a number in three different ways <p><i>DPS Standard Tasks 1.02 – Coupons</i></p>	<p>Grade 3</p> <p>Line –Up-Strategies p.11</p> <p>Close Enough- Wk. By Wk. Essentials wk. 7</p> <p>Take Your Places- Wk by Wk. Essentials wk. 12</p>
Day	RIO Unit 2: Multiplication and Division	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
30	<p><i>Investigation 1: Groups of Things</i></p> <p><i>Students make lists of things that come in groups from 2-12.</i></p> <p><i>They illustrate and describe multiplication situations and</i></p>	1.03 a 1.03 b	<p><i>Session 1.1: Many Things Come in Groups</i></p> <p>Students make lists of things that come in groups of 2 to 12 in order to create and solve multiplication problems based on the class list.</p>	Investigation Unit: <u>Things That Come in Groups</u>

	<i>represent them with equations.</i>			
31		1.03 a 1.03 b	<i>Session 1.2 How Many in Several Groups?</i> Students choose a multiplication situation to illustrate. Students will describe multiplication situations in words and numbers. <i>If time, introduce game, Circles & Stars Link to Student Activity.</i>	Investigations Unit: <u>Things That Come in Groups</u>
32		1.03 a 1.03 b 1.03 c 1.06 5.04	<i>Session 1.3: Writing and Solving Riddles</i> Students pose problems about their pictures by leaving out one of the two factors or the answer, and then solve each other's riddles	Investigations Unit: <u>Things That Come in Groups</u>
33		1.03 a 1.03 b 1.03 c 1.06 5.04	<i>Session 1.4: Writing and Solving Riddles Cont.</i> Students pose problems about their pictures by leaving out one of the two factors or the answer, and then solve each other's riddles.	Investigations Unit: <u>Things That Come in Groups</u>
Day	RIO Unit 2: Multiplication and Division	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
34		1.03 5.01 3.02 5.03 5.04	<i>Session 1.5: How Many in the Nth Group?</i> Students create tables and extend the number of wheels on any number of cars. Students choose other items from the groups list. Students graph ordered pairs on a coordinate grid.	
35			<u><i>Session 1.6: Each Orange Had Eight Slices</i></u>	<u><i>Each Orange</i></u>

		1.03 1.06 5.03 5.o4	Students listen to problems posed in the book, <i>Each Orange Had Eight Slices</i> and try to solve them on their own. Students write similar problems.	<u>Has Eight Slices</u> (literature book)
36		1.03 a 1.03 b 1.03 c	<i>Session 1.7: Circles and Stars</i> <i>Link to Student Activity if this is the first time using this game.</i> Collect class data. Classroom discussions	
37		1.03 5.01 5.03	<i>Session 1.8: Connecting Counting with Multiplication</i> Students will see the relationships with counting and multiplication.	
38		1.03 4.01 4.03	<i>Session 1.9: Which Products are Most Likely?</i> Students predict product that will appear most often. Students create recording sheet 1-36. Students roll two dice 50 times and record product. Calculators should be available. Collect Class data.	
39	Investigation 2: Skip Counting <i>Students recognize that skip counting represents multiples of the same number and has a connection to multiplication.</i> <i>Students highlight multiples of 2-12 on hundred charts. They find and describe patterns found in the multiples among the hundred charts.</i>	1.03 5.01	<i>Session 2.1: Skip Counting and 100 Charts</i> Students highlight multiples of 2 and 3 by making a chart for each one. They discuss the patterns they find. Create a Venn Diagram for multiplies of 2 and 3. Students highlight multiples of 4 and 5 in their skip counting booklets. Discuss patterns across multiples.	Investigatio ns Unit: <u>Things That Come in Groups</u>
40		1.03	<i>Session 2.2: Skip Counting and 100 charts</i>	Investigatio ns Unit:

		5.01	Students highlight multiples of 6 and 7 by making a chart for each one. They discuss the patterns they find and compare with multiples of other numbers 2-5.	<u>Things That Come in Groups</u>
41		1.03 a 1.03 b 1.03 c 5.01 5.04	<i>Session 2.3: Problem Solving: Animal Legs</i> Students apply strategies to solve Problems Share: <u>The Best of Times</u> by Greg Tang. Discuss strategies.	<u>Thinking Algebraically</u> by Jeane Joyner
Day	RIO Unit 2: Multiplication and Division	NC SCOS	Description/Lesson Title	Resources
42		1.03 1.06 5.01	<i>Session 2.4: Using the Calculator to Skip Count</i> Students learn to skip count on the calculator and they continue to highlight multiples on the 100 charts. Multiple Madness I or II Students practice multiplication facts 1-5 or 1-9. Students use skip counting as a strategy.	Investigations Unit: <u>Things That Come in Groups</u>
43	<i>This is a good point to do the Task Assessments as part of the choice time.</i>	1.03 5.01 1.06	<i>Session 2.5: Math Workshops</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Skip Counting with a Partner Circles and Stars <i>Closest to 100</i> Students roll dice and x or + to get close to 100. Students will record and solve equations Solving Story Problems Patterns Across the Charts Multiple Madness (Students need Skip Counting Books)	Investigations Unit: <u>Things That Come in Groups</u>

End of Quarter 1

Table J2: Fourth Grade Language Arts Pacing Guide

<p>Fourth Grade Overview</p> <p>Language Arts and Social Studies</p> <p>Quarter 1</p>			
Reading	Social Studies	Word Study	Writing
Students automatically and flexibly apply foundational skills learned earlier to decode and comprehend fiction, nonfiction, poetry, and drama. They use critical thinking skills which they apply strategically across the disciplines to comprehend and clarify information and ideas. Fourth graders become increasingly independent and flexible in their use of communication skills and strategies.	Fourth grade students proceed from the study of individuals who make a difference in their communities and the world to a study of North Carolina. Students explore geographic regions, landforms, climate, and resources of the state. They learn about the state's social, economic, and political institutions and how these institutions respond to the needs of North Carolinians. Students build a base of knowledge about economic principles	Students in fourth grade apply reading strategies and skills automatically, flexibly, and strategically to comprehend fiction, nonfiction, poetry, and drama. They read for literacy experience, to gain information, and to perform a task. They use a variety of strategies and writing process elements to compose fiction, nonfiction, poetry and drama. They become increasingly proficient	Students in fourth grade compose fiction, nonfiction, poetry, and drama for a variety of purposes and audiences. Read with fluency and comprehension fiction, nonfiction, poetry, and drama. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Routinely spell high frequency words and use resources to check spelling. • Write for a variety of audiences and purposes using appropriate formats. • Communicate effectively with different audiences through spoken, written, and visual

<p>The learner will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Read with fluency and comprehension fiction, nonfiction, poetry, and drama. • Apply strategies flexibly and strategically for recognizing words, learning new words, and constructing meaning from text(s). • Expand vocabulary through wide reading, word study, and discussion. <p>Apply comprehension strategies and skills to a wide variety of genres.</p>	<p>and technological developments, about past experiences in the state and about present day practices. They study the land and its people analyzing the diverse groups that have contributed to the development of North Carolina beginning with the American Indians up to the revolutionary period. Additionally, students have the opportunity to draw parallels between contemporary issues and their historical origins.</p> <p>Strands: Individual Development and Identity, Cultures and Diversity, Historical Perspectives, Geographic Relationships, Economics and Development, Global Connections, Technological Influences, Government and Active Citizenship</p>	<p>in active listening, speaking, and using media and technology. They deepen and extend their understanding and use of English language conventions in oral presentations and written products.</p> <p>The learner will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Routinely spell high frequency words and use resources to check spelling. • Apply strategies flexibly and strategically for recognizing words, learning new words, and constructing meaning from text(s). • Expand vocabulary through wide reading, word study, and discussion. • Write for a variety of audiences and purposes using appropriate formats. <p>Apply grammar and language conventions to access and communicate information and ideas.</p>	<p>formats.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use media and technological resources for research and as tools for learning. <p>Use increasingly sophisticated knowledge of grammar and language conventions in oral and written products and presentations.</p>
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Table J3: Fourth Grade Language Arts and Social Studies Pacing Guide

Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 1			Setting up the classroom and administering formative assessments	<i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i> <i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i>
	Social Studies Content and Skills			
				Social Studies Connection Core Literature
	Word Study			
				<i>Guiding Readers, Grades 3-6</i> by Fountas and Pinnell, <i>Guide on the Side Grade 4 .</i>
	Writing Workshop			

				<i>Empowering Writers</i> <i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 2	Genre: Realistic Fiction Strategy: Identify the order or sequence of events Skill: Summarize by sequencing the main events	1.03, 1.04, 2.02, 2.03, 2.04, 2.06 4.01	Students will <ul style="list-style-type: none"> recognize that in realistic fiction, although the story is fictional, the characters are believable and the events that happen are things that could happen in real life. identify the order or sequence of events in realistic fiction text to assist in comprehension. use the sequence of events in realistic fiction to write a summary of the story. identify and examine words in realistic fiction text with the suffixes –ly, and –ful and will understand those suffixes mean “full of”. Students will understand and practice using the rise and fall of voice while reading realistic fiction text to show where the story includes questions and where it is full of emotion. 	<i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i> pp. 2a-39b22-23 <i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i> pp. 44-45, 66-67, 78-81,
	Social Studies Content and Skills			

	North Carolina's Geography	1.01, 1.02	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> locate in absolute and relative terms major landforms, bodies of water, natural resource in NC. describe and compare physical and cultural characteristics and regions. identify the main idea and supporting details of the text . 	<p>HC GR.4 <i>North Carolina Geography, History and Culture</i></p> <p>Unit 1: Lesson 1-2</p> <p>TE: pp: 5a-16</p> <p>LR: <i>Geography of NC, Cradle of Forestry, Finding Your Way Around</i></p> <p>Suggested Read Alouds: <i>An Island Scrapbook: Dawn to Dusk on a Barrier Island, T is for Tar Heel; a North Carolina Alphabet, My America: A Poetry Atlas of the United States</i></p>
	Word Study			
	Short Vowels VCCV	1.01	<p>Students will apply the following generalization(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A single vowel that comes before two consonants usually has a short vowel sound. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>p. 39i</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i></p> <p>p 168</p>
	Writing Workshop			

	Recognizing genre	<p>Content</p> <p>1.04, 2.04</p> <p>3.01, 3.02</p> <p>Conventions</p> <p>5.03</p>	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> review the three types of writing: character/problem solution, personal experience story, and expository writing. Refer to the “Three Types of Writing” chart displayed in the classroom. explore <i>The Treasure Hunt</i>, a character/problem solution narrative. explore and analyze the expository piece, <i>Treasure Hunting</i>. explore and analyze the personal experience piece, <i>The Best Project Yet</i>. review and discuss genres using the “Name the Genre” activity. Declarative and Interrogative Sentences- Students will define and identify declarative and interrogative sentences and use them correctly in writing. 	<p><i>Empowering Writers</i> pp. 9-11, 18, 28-29, 33-34, 37</p> <p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 39e-39f</p>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 3	<p>Genre: Historical Fantasy</p> <p>Strategy: Identify different purposes the author has to write a story</p> <p>Skill: Answer questions to identify the author's purpose</p>	2.01, 2.02, 2.03, 2.07	<p>Students will</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> understand that historical fantasy combines both historic events that really happened and fantastic events that could not have possibly happened. identify the variety of purposes an author has for writing a historical fantasy story (entertain, persuade, inform, express). recognize that an author may have more than one purpose. <p>answer the following questions while reading historical fantasy, to</p> <p>help identify the author's purpose:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is the author trying to tell me? Why is this fact or event included in the story? Can the text be written more clearly? How would I say it instead? identify and examine words in historical fantasy text with the endings -ed (showing action that happened in the past) and -ing (showing present or ongoing action). pause in appropriate places while reading historical fantasy aloud to make the reading easier for listeners to follow. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 40a-65b</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i></p> <p>pp. 26-27, 52-53</p>
	Social Studies Content and Skills			

	North Carolina's Geography	1.03	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> suggest some information that location has on life in NC, such as major cities, recreation areas, industry and farms. 	<p>HC GR.4 <i>North Carolina Geography, History and Culture</i></p> <p>Unit 1: Lesson 3</p> <p>TE: pp: 13a-16</p> <p>LR: <i>Cradle of Forestry, Finding Your Way Around</i></p> <p>Suggested Read Alouds: <i>An Island Scrapbook: Dawn to Dusk on a Barrier Island, T is for Tar Heel; a North Carolina Alphabet, My America: A Poetry Atlas of the United States</i></p>
	Word Study			
	Long Vowel Sounds <i>a</i> and <i>i</i>	1.01	<p>Students will apply the following generalization(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spell words with long <i>a</i> and <i>i</i> sounds. Generalization: Long <i>a</i> is sometimes spelled <i>ai</i>, <i>igh</i>, or <i>ay</i>. Long <i>i</i> is sometimes spelled <i>igh</i>. The letter combinations <i>ai</i>, <i>igh</i>, and <i>ay</i> usually stand for the long <i>a</i> sound. The letter combinations <i>igh</i> usually stands for long <i>i</i> sound. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i>, p. 65i</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i>, p. 168</p>
	Writing Workshop			

	Introduction of the Narrative Writing Diamond	<p>Content</p> <p>2.02, 2.03, 2.04, 3.01, 3.02, 3.03</p> <p>Conventions</p> <p>2.03, 2.04, 3.01, 5.03</p>	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> review the narrative writing diamond section by section and recognize the parts as the teacher verbalizes the story using the definition for each component. reread the character/problem solution narrative, <i>The Treasure Hunt</i>, to review and analyze the components of the diamond. use the Narrative Writing Diamond to analyze the parts of picture books. (This needs to be done all year long with each book read to/with students.) Imperative and Exclamatory Sentences- Students will define and identify imperative and exclamatory sentences and use them correctly in writing. They will also distinguish between exclamatory sentences and interjections. 	<p><i>Empowering Writers</i> pp. 21, 35-36, 43-46</p> <p><i>Classroom Library and Media Center</i></p> <p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 65e-65f</p>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 4	Genre: Understand the characteristics of historical fiction Strategy: Identify the sequence of events Skill: Use graphic organizers to understand text	1.04 , 1.05, 2.02, 2.03, 2.04, 4.01	Students will <ul style="list-style-type: none"> understand that historical fiction is realistic fiction that takes place in the past and may include real people. identify the sequence of events while reading historical fiction text. apply their knowledge of sequence of events to construct a timeline to enhance their understanding of the historical fiction text. use the dictionary or glossary to identify the appropriate meaning of multiple-meaning words in context while reading historical fiction. read historical fiction aloud with a slower tempo and rate to help listeners understand it better. 	<i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i> pp. 66l, 87c <i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i> pp. 82-89
	Social Studies Content and Skills			

	North Carolina's Geography	1.04, 1.05	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • evaluate ways the people of NC used, modified and adapted to the physical environment past and present. • assess human movement as it relates to the physical environment. 	<p>HC GR.4 <i>North Carolina Geography, History and Culture</i></p> <p>Unit 1: Lesson 4-5</p> <p>TE: pp: 17a-22</p> <p>LR: <i>Cradle of Forestry, Finding Your Way Around</i></p> <p>Suggested Read Alouds: <i>An Island Scrapbook: Dawn to Dusk on a Barrier Island, T is for Tar Heel; a North Carolina Alphabet, My America: A Poetry Atlas of the United States</i></p>
	Word Study			
	Long Vowel Sounds <i>e</i> and <i>o</i>	1.01	<p>Students will apply the following generalization(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • spell words with long <i>e</i> and <i>o</i> sounds. • generalization: Long <i>e</i> is sometimes spelled <i>ee</i> or <i>ea</i>. Long <i>o</i> is sometimes spelled <i>oa</i> or <i>ow</i>. The letter combinations <i>ee</i> and <i>ea</i> usually stand for the long <i>e</i> sound. The letter combinations <i>oa</i> and <i>ow</i> often stand for the long <i>o</i> sound. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>p. 87i</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i> p. 168</p>
	Writing Workshop			

	Beginnings	<p>Content</p> <p>2.03, 2.04,</p> <p>3.01, 4.02,</p> <p>4.08, 4.09</p> <p>Conventions</p> <p>2.03, 2.04,</p> <p>3.01, 5.03</p>	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • recognize the four ways to begin a piece of writing: an action, dialogue, a thought or question, or a sound. • use authentic literature to analyze different types of beginnings. • revise and discuss the story beginning for <i>Camping</i> to capture the reader's attention. • revise and discuss the story beginning for <i>Coyote</i> to capture the reader's attention. • select a story beginning and continue to practice revision by using one of the four techniques for interesting and entertaining beginnings. • Subjects and Predicates- Students will define and identify subjects and predicates and use them correctly in writing. They will also distinguish between complete and simple subjects and predicates. 	<p><i>Empowering Writers</i> p. 51-64, 72-77</p> <p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 87e-87f</p>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
Week	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 5	<p>Genre: Understand the characteristics of a modern fairy tale</p> <p>Strategy: Identify the story structure</p> <p>Skill: Use the story structure to identify the author's purpose</p>	1.04, 2.01, 2.02, 2.03, 2.04, 2.07, 4.01	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> recognize that a modern fairy tale is a fairy tale that is set in the present. identify the story structure of a modern fairy tale by identifying the following key story elements: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> characters setting main problem rising action apply their understanding of story structure to determine the author's purpose of a modern fairy tale. recognize the use of synonyms to help readers understand unfamiliar words. read a modern fairy tale aloud at an appropriate volume level, so everyone can hear easily. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 881-111c</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i></p> <p>pp. 26-26, 68-69, 74-77, 82-85</p>
	Social Studies Content and Skills			

	North Carolina's People	2.01	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> locate and describe American Indians in NC, past and present. 	<p>HC GR.4 <i>North Carolina Geography, History and Culture</i></p> <p>Unit 4: Lesson 1</p> <p>TE: pp: 123a-128</p> <p>LR: <i>People Today and Long Ago, North Carolina Festivals, Coming to North Carolina</i></p> <p>Suggested Read Alouds: <i>Sequoyah: The Cherokee Man Who Gave His People Writing, The Whistling Tree, Native Tribes of the Southeast</i></p>
	Word Study			
	Long Vowel Sound <i>e</i>	1.01	<p>Students will apply the following generalization(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> spell words that end with long <i>..e</i> generalization: Long <i>e</i> at the end of a word can be spelled <i>ie</i>, <i>ey</i>, and <i>y</i>. When the letters <i>ie</i>, <i>ey</i>, and <i>y</i> come at the end of a word, they can stand for the long <i>e</i> sound. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>p. 111i</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4, p. 168</i></p>
	Writing Workshop			

	Elaborative Details	<p>2.01, 2.02, 2.07, 3.01, 3.02, 3.03, 4.05, 5.03</p> <p>Conventions</p> <p>5.03</p>	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand the importance of elaborating on story critical characters, settings, and objects. They will use their understanding to recognize and identify these story elements. • identify irrelevant details in a passage. • use story critical elements to show the difference between showing and telling. • review detail generating questions. (The detail generating questions must be displayed in the room. It is best to have an individual chart for each of the following: setting, objects, and characters.) • practice using detail generating questions to write elaborative details for a pirate ship. • Compound Sentences- Students will define and identify compound sentences and use them correctly in writing. They will also distinguish between simple and compound sentences. 	<p><i>Empowering Writers</i> pp. 81-8,; 86-89, 176-177</p> <p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 111e-111f</p>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
Week	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 6	<p>Genre: Understand the characteristics of narrative nonfiction</p> <p>Strategy: Identify the main idea/supporting details</p> <p>Skill: Use graphic organizers to understand the main idea/supporting details</p>	1.01, 1.04 2.01, 2.02 2.03, 2.04, 4.01	<p>Students will :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> recognize that narrative nonfiction presents information about true events in a specific sequence, often in chronological order. understand that the main idea is not always stated directly and is an important point about the topic that has at least one supporting detail. use a graphic organizer to record and help remember the main idea and supporting details of the text. identify and examine words in narrative nonfiction with suffixes –ist, -er, and –or, and understand that these suffixes mean “one who is an expert in” or “one who does.” use phrasing to keep related words grouped together in order to make the narrative nonfiction text easier to understand. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 112l, 133c</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i></p> <p>pp. 42-43, 56-57, 78-81, 86-89</p>
	Social Studies Content and Skills			

	North Carolina People	2.02	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> trace the growth and development of immigration to North Carolina, over time from Europe, Asia, and Latin America. 	<p>HC GR.4 <i>North Carolina Geography, History and Culture</i></p> <p>Unit 4: Lesson 2</p> <p>TE: pp: 129a-134</p> <p>LR: <i>People Today and Long Ago, North Carolina Festivals, Coming to North Carolina</i></p> <p>Suggested Read Alouds: <i>Sequoyah: The Cherokee Man Who Gave His People Writing, The Whistling Tree, Native Tribes of the Southeast</i></p>
	Word Study			
	Long Vowel Sound <i>u</i>	1.01	<p>Students will apply the following generalization(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> spell words with long <i>u</i> sound. generalization: Long <i>u</i> has two sounds, /u/ and /yu/, and several spellings. The letter patterns <i>u</i>-consonant-<i>e</i>, <i>ew</i>, <i>oo</i>, <i>ui</i>, and <i>u</i> can stand for /u/ or /yu/. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>p. 133i</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i></p> <p>p. 168</p>
	Writing Workshop			

	Elaborative Details	<p>Content</p> <p>2.02, 4.06</p> <p>4.09, 5.03</p> <p>Conventions</p> <p>5.03</p>	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • practice using detail generating questions to write elaborative details for a forest (setting). • practice using detail generating questions to write elaborative details for a palace (setting). • practice using detail generating questions and sentence starters to write elaborative detail for a pirate (character). • practice using detail generating questions and sentence starters to write elaborative detail for a dragon (character). • practice using detail generating questions and sentence starters to write elaborative detail for a king or queen (character). • Clauses and Complex Sentences- Students will define and identify clauses and complex sentences and use them correctly in writing. They will also distinguish between dependent clauses and independent clauses. 	<p><i>Empowering Writers</i> pp. 130-131, 133-135, 160-162, 166-167, 179-181</p> <p><i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i></p> <p>pp. 133e-133f</p>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
Week	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 7			Unit Assessment and Supplementary	<i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i> <i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i>
	Social Studies Content and Skills			
				<i>Harcourt Geography, History and Culture</i>
	Word Study			
				<i>Guiding Readers, Grades 3-6 by Fountas and Pinnell,</i> <i>Guide on the Side Grade 4 .</i>
	Writing Workshop			

				<i>Empowering Writers</i> <i>Reading Street Book 4.1</i>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
Week	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 8	<p>Genre: Understand the characteristics of realistic fiction</p> <p>Strategy: Determine prior knowledge of a text subject</p> <p>Skill: Use prior knowledge to identify cause and effect relationships in text</p>	1.04, 2.01, 2.02, 2.03, 2.04, 4.01	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • apply their knowledge of realistic fiction to understand that in a fictional story the events that happen are possible, but not always probable. • determine prior knowledge while reading fiction by asking and answering the following questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do I already know about this subject? • How can what I already know help me understand the text? • apply their prior knowledge of the fictional text to identify the clue words: like, because, and so, signaling cause and effect relationships. • identify and examine words with the prefix un- (meaning not) and the suffix -able (meaning able to be) to determine word meanings of unfamiliar words in fictional text. • read fiction text aloud in a rhythmic pattern, stressing important and emotionally-charged words. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.2</i></p> <p>pp. 141l, 161c</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i></p> <p>pp. 28-29, 78-81, 86-89</p>
	Social Studies Content and Skills			

	North Carolina People	2.03, 2.04	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> describe the similarities and differences among people of North Carolina, past and present. describe how different ethnic groups have influenced culture, customs, and history of North Carolina. 	<p>HC GR.4 <i>North Carolina Geography, History and Culture</i></p> <p>Unit 4: Lesson 3-4</p> <p>TE: pp: 135a-144</p> <p>LR: <i>People Today and Long Ago, North Carolina Festivals, Coming to North Carolina</i></p> <p>Suggested Read Alouds: <i>Sequoyah: The Cherokee Man Who Gave His People Writing, The Whistling Tree, Native Tribes of the Southeast</i></p>
	Word Study			
	Plurals –s, -es	1.01	<p>Students will apply the following generalization(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> spell words by adding –s or –es. generalization: Add –s to words ending in a vowel and y. Change y to <i>i</i> and add –es to words ending in a con-sonant and y. Add –es to words ending in <i>sh, ch, s, ss, or x</i>. Words that end in –s, -es, or –ies, are often plural. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.2,</i></p> <p>p. 161i</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4,</i></p> <p>p. 169</p>
	Writing Workshop			

	Elaborative Details	<p>Content</p> <p>4.06, 4.09, 5.03</p> <p>Conventions</p> <p>5.02, 5.03</p>	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • practice using detail generating questions and sentence starters to write elaborative detail for an old woman (character). • practice using detail generating questions and sentence starters to write elaborative detail for a treasure chest (object). • practice using detail generating questions and sentence starters to write elaborative detail for a sword (object). • practice using detail generating questions and sentence starters to write elaborative detail for a crown (object). • learn to flip the sentence subject in order to increase sentence variety. • Common and Proper Nouns- Students will define and identify common and proper nouns and use them correctly in writing. 	<p><i>Empowering Writers</i> pp. 136-138, 163-165, 169-171, 182-184, 194-195</p> <p><i>Reading Street Book 4.2</i></p> <p>pp. 161e-161f</p>
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Time Period	Language Arts and Social Studies	NCSCOS	Description Grade 4	Resources
Week	Reading Workshop			
Quarter 1 Week 9	<p>Genre: Identify the characteristics of historical fiction and determine prior knowledge</p> <p>Strategy: Determine prior knowledge about the text</p> <p>Skill: Use prior knowledge to draw conclusions</p>	<p>1.04</p> <p>2.01</p> <p>2.02</p> <p>2.03</p> <p>2.04</p> <p>2.05</p> <p>4.01</p>	<p>Students will</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • apply their knowledge of historical fiction characteristics to identify texts of this genre. • determine their prior knowledge about the historical fiction text by asking the following questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do I already know about this subject? • How can what I already know help me understand the text? • apply their prior knowledge to draw conclusions about the subject or character in historical fiction text. • define the meanings of unfamiliar words in historical fiction by searching for the root word in a dictionary/glossary. • read historical fiction aloud with emotion by changing the pacing and tone of voice to make the dialogue in text more interesting. 	<p><i>Reading Street Book 4.2</i></p> <p>pp. 162l-187c</p> <p><i>Guide on the Side Grade 4</i></p> <p>pp. 33-34, 64-65, 78-81, 86-89</p>
	Social Studies Content and Skills			

	Culture in North Carolina	5.01, 5.02	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • explain different celebrated holidays, special days, and cultural traditions in North Carolina communities. • describe traditional art, music, and craft forms in North Carolina. 	<p>HC GR.4 <i>North Carolina Geography, History and Culture</i></p> <p>Unit 6: Lesson 1-2</p> <p>TE: pp: 191a-204</p> <p>LR: <i>North Carolinians, A Musical Heritage, North Carolina Crafts</i></p> <p>Suggested Read Alouds: <i>A is for Appalachia, Appalachia: The Voices of Sleeping Birds, What Makes America America?</i></p>
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