Exploring the Complexity of Teacher Professional Identity

By
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Abstract

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This dissertation is based on a case study of 8 beginning English teachers who participated in a collaborative inquiry group at an urban, comprehensive, high school in the San Francisco Bay Area. Qualitative data (including audio-transcribed meeting data, individual interview data, and classroom observations) were collected over two school years, with a follow-up interview about teacher professional identity conducted in the school year following the dissolution of the inquiry group. The study utilizes a theoretical framework grounded in notions of agency, power and discourse as critical elements in the social construction of identity to examine how the focal teachers construct and enact a teacher professional identity in their early careers. Teacher professional identity is defined as the beliefs, values, and commitments an individual holds toward being a teacher (as distinct from another professional) and being a particular type of teacher (e.g. an urban teacher, a beginning teacher, a good teacher, an English teacher, etc.)

The data indicated three types of factors that were important to focal teachers in establishing their early professional identities. The first type was individual factors such as personal experiences as students and pre-professional teaching experiences. A second group included practice-based or classroom-related factors such as subject matter, curriculum, instructional planning, and classroom based goals. Finally, the third type was connected with external discourses related to teaching and learning. These discourses came from theory, policy, contexts in which teachers were embedded and from collegial or expert models of practice.

While all three types of factors were important to the focal group of teachers, individual teachers were oriented toward a particular set of factors over others in the construction of their professional identities. The orientation of teachers had consequences for their classroom practice as well as their sense of what it meant to be a teacher professional. The teacher who emphasized individual factors, constructing his teacher professional identity around a personal image of teaching, was described as an individually-oriented teacher. Teachers who emphasized classroom practice as the focal aspect of their identities were considered classroom-oriented teachers. Teachers who approached their classroom practice and professional decision making
with a clear sense of external discourses related to teaching and learning and a sense that they might affect these discourses through their professional practice were called dialogically-oriented teachers. Dialogically-oriented teachers were the only group of teachers able to articulate both their classroom practice and the thinking which was underlying their choices as teachers.

The collaborative inquiry group was embedded in a parent program which advocated a dialogically-oriented approach to teacher professionalism. Group meetings were structured to promote such a stance toward professional identity. The data indicated that there was a predominance of dialogically-based interactions within inquiry group meetings; however, in examining these interactions more closely, teachers’ individual professional identity orientation connected closely with the focus and nature of their participation in the inquiry group. Further, although classroom-oriented and individually-oriented teachers engaged in various forms of dialogic interaction within meetings, these types of interaction did not seem characteristic of their self-descriptions of their own teacher professional identities.

Implications of the study include: the importance of advocating a stance toward teaching as a profession; investing in teacher education programs which promote a dialogically-oriented stance toward teaching; exploring the expansion of university-based partnerships between the pre-service and induction phases of teacher education; promoting increased dialogue between K-12 teachers and educational researchers and encouraging a broader audience for educational research, particularly research focused on teaching and learning.
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Chapter 1
Introducing the Complexity of Teacher Professional Identity

I am a teacher. But, I am not simply a teacher. I am an English, social studies and math teacher, a teacher of teachers, a student of teachers, who believes in and is committed to a just society, equity of outcomes, ongoing dialogue with students, professionalism and professional competency, inquiry-based communities, high expectations, and thoughtful practice.

Who I am as a teacher did not emerge spontaneously. I was not born this type of teacher, nor did I have a single moment of epiphany at which point I took on all aspects of my teacher professional identity never to look back. Rather, my own professional identity, as a teacher, has developed over time and in a variety of ways through a process of ongoing negotiation. It has its roots in educational experiences long before I entered the classroom as a teacher myself, perspectives on what it meant to be a teacher from various sources (e.g. my mother, the media, my credential program), my personal commitments, and my professional experiences in particular social and policy contexts. While each of these factors was critical in shaping the teacher that I am today, each one weighed differently in my course of development.

In this study, I examine the construction and expressions of professional identity among a focal group of 8 new English teachers in an urban, public high school. I focus on teacher professional identity, which I define as the beliefs, values and commitments that allow a teacher to identify both as a teacher (distinct from other professional identities, e.g. doctor, accountant, architect) and as being a particular type of “teacher.” My interest in investigating teacher professional identity within the group came from my observations of teacher agency in response to authoritative discourses surrounding teachers and urban students of color. Specifically, I sought to understand what drove particular teachers to advocate actively for their own professional development and for these students in a setting where this type of action was highly counter-normative. Each teacher’s beliefs, values and commitments in relation to being a professional informed the way she viewed what it meant to be a teacher and the choices that she made in relation to that role.

Beginning with my own evolution as a teacher, I have situated the construction of teacher professional identity as an ongoing process which develops in various ways and in response to multiple discourses about teaching. I will now elaborate upon my framing of identity by connecting it to ideas found in identity theory and to the empirical body of literature related to teacher professional identity. I conclude this chapter by framing my research questions, the explorations of which I hope will contribute to a more nuanced understanding of teacher professional identity, particularly in relation to the identity formation of new teachers.

Theoretical Understandings of Identity

Identity is a complex and abstract notion that has been explored theoretically across a variety of disciplines. Here, I highlight several ideas from theory central to the view of identity this study: (a) identity as negotiated and socially constructed; (b) identity as related to particular roles or groups; (c) identity as thematic; and (d) identity as connected with authority and agency.

Identity as negotiated within a social environment.

Discussions of identity often focus on constructing the self; however, an individual’s identity is also affected by the interaction that she has with others in particular contexts. In the case of individuals, language is a central form of interaction. Discourse identity theorists in
sociolinguistics approach the notion of social construction of identity by looking at the ways in which language is used as a way to both construct and understand identity, through interaction between interlocutors (De Fina, Schifrin, & Bamberg, 2006). This research emphasizes the importance of language as embedded in social contexts, and identity as something which emerges through interactional practices. The more an individual appropriates markers of certain identities through her language, the more these identities simultaneously become part of who she is. In other words, identity is not something someone has, identity is something someone does repeatedly and becomes continually, using language as a primary means of identity construction. Because my study draws largely upon language-based data sources, relying on investigating the way that teachers perceive and construct their professional identities through their own discourse and in interaction with other discourses about teaching, theories of discourse identity that emphasize the social construction of identity through language have been foundational in framing my investigation.

Identity is subject to competing tensions and results from active negotiation of the multiple discourses from which it evolves. In sociology, Giddens (1991) highlights dilemmas of the self particular to modern society. The dilemma of unification v. fragmentation deals with the ways in which modernity tends to pull individuals toward a fragmented identity. Identity must be regularly renegotiated according to the role one plays in society and in light of cultural expectations of a person based on aspects of their identity (including gender, occupation, religion, etc.). While the individual works hard to establish a unified identity, one which protects a sense of self in the midst of various discourses about one’s role, identity negotiation is ongoing as new discourses arise for consideration. Giddens’ idea of identity negotiation was particularly important to my investigation of focal inquiry group meetings as a space of identity construction. In this setting, discourses of what it meant to be a teacher professional were presented by colleagues and embedded in the program itself. This led me to investigate whether these discourses related to teacher professional identity actually prompted identity negotiation as well as whether the inquiry group meetings might be a unifying or fragmenting factor in relation to the professional identities that teachers occupied outside of inquiry meetings.

Identity as specific to perceived roles and associations in society.

A second key aspect of identity related to my study is identity as connected with roles or group membership. Because I define teacher professional identity as a distinct type of identity (from that of individual identity in a broad sense) centered on what it means to be both a teacher and a particular type of teacher, the notions of identity formation in relation to role (teacher) and group membership (in the focal collaborative inquiry group) have particular significance to my framing of identity in this study.

In sociology, Goffman (1959), centers his notion of the self on presentation and representation or performance in particular social situations. Self-presentation is motivated by a desire to achieve personal goals, present a consistent and positive view of oneself to the world, or

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1 The focal teachers in this study participated in a form of voluntary professional development called collaborative inquiry, a form of teacher research (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993). As part of a collaborative inquiry group, over the course of a school year, teachers met bi-weekly to investigate their practice by focusing on an inquiry question of interest to them, collecting data, receiving feedback on that data from colleagues in a protocol based discussion, analyzing the data, and presenting their conclusions to various audiences including teachers from other sites and staff members at their own site. The nature and structure of the group and its participants are further discussed in subsequent chapters but an overview is given here to situate the reader as to this particular term.
to conform to social norms. Impressions are made according to particular roles that one plays in particular contexts. Goffman proposes that each individual has varying levels of self-monitoring (ability to read the reactions of other and adjust behavior according to one’s motivation) and self-disclosure (regulation of what others know about us). Goffman’s work on role is central to my investigation of identity in relation to the role of being a teacher. In their professional roles, teachers’ beliefs, values and commitments might affect their self-presentation and the ways that they interact with colleagues to create a particular image of a “teacher self.” Similarly, this theory helps me to consider that focal teachers might choose particular aspects of their professional identity to disclose in an interview or particular professional setting because of the impression they wish to create for colleagues or an interviewer.

Being a teacher, a new teacher and an English teacher are all roles that teachers in the focal group occupied by virtue of their professional position; however, another voluntary role which teachers in this study undertook was that of inquiry group participant. The work of educational sociolinguist James Gee speaks to identity in relation to multiple roles. Similar to the work of other discourse identity theorists, Gee considers the importance of language in creating identity. However, Gee’s notion of identity also considers multiple discourses surrounding identity construction, particularly in the field of education. Gee notes that identity can be embedded in: positions authorized by institutions (institutional identities), traits recognized in discourse (discourse identities) and experiences shared in affinity groups (affinity identities) (Gee, 2000). Gee focuses on the way language is used to label or position individuals, by individuals to position themselves (or construct their own individual identities) and in groups to mark belonging. While I acknowledge the view of teachers as institutional agents of cultural reproduction present in educational sociology (cf. Durkheim, 1922; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977) and the particular institutional identities afforded by this view of teaching, my study focuses on a group of teachers who seem to challenge this institutionally-based identity through their voluntary participation in a particular type of collegial, inquiry-based professional development group. Gee’s theoretical perspectives on identity helped frame my investigation of identity in this setting based on particular forms of discourse as well as shared experiences in a professional affinity group. Because of the focal teachers’ choice to create and participate in such a group, I sought to examine how participating in the group might somehow support or create a particular type of identity for its members.

Identity as thematic.

Like the work of Giddens in sociology, the work of Charles Taylor in philosophy also considers aspects of modernity that can lead to fragmentation or forced negotiation of multiple identities (Taylor, 1989). Taylor argues that through forced negotiation, individuals form a narrative identity by placing emphasis on what they feel is “worth” including in a narrative recounting of one’s life. In constructing a narrative identity, a theme emerges. The theme emphasized by an individual forms a sense of cohesiveness in the presentation of her identity. Themes or patterns in focal teachers’ discourses about their professional identities become important to the individual’s understanding of who she is and what her identity means. Taylor’s identity theory is useful in investigating how teachers, in their interview data and group participation, constructed their identities in discourse to emphasize thematic (or central) beliefs, values and commitments underlying their sense of themselves as teacher professionals.
Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain: Identity and Agency: Figured Worlds and Negotiated Authorship of Identity

Dorothy Holland and her colleagues (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, & Cain, 1998) in anthropology provide a theoretical framework of identity that further develops the ideas of identity as negotiated, socially constructed and role related. In addition to developing these key aspects of identity, Holland and her colleagues discuss agency connected with the expression of individual identity, and as potentially transformative to social environments. This work contributes an understanding of agency in identity construction and the notion of the figured world, both of which are central to framing identity in my study. Holland and her colleagues assert that identity arises from figured worlds, culturally embedded realms of interaction which provide the contexts from which identity can be understood. Through using a framework of figured worlds, I explore identity in relation to the culture of particular environments in which the focal teachers took part. Additionally, the authors assert that all individuals are agents to some degree, and as such choose to construct their identities in response to new figured worlds they encounter. This view allows them to expand upon the ideas of a socially-constructed, role-related, negotiated sense of identity with a particular consideration of power. Through using Holland and her colleagues’ framework of identity, I examined identity construction resulting from choice and practice. Further, I examined the collaborative inquiry group meeting time as its own figured world in which teachers might practice identities distinct from those emergent in relation to other site-based contexts (e.g. teachers’ classroom, staff/department meetings), because of the distinct authoritative discourses of the professional development setting and the site at large.

Multivocality and figured worlds.

Heavily influenced by Bakhtinian notions of heteroglossia and dialogism (Bakhtin, 1981)², Holland and her colleagues argue that there is multivocality present in every speech interaction and embedded in any social situation. The interactions through which individuals construct their identities are based in their individual understandings of social experiences, and on an ongoing negotiation between authoritative and internally persuasive discourses³ (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 342). Holland and her colleagues develop these key Bakhtinian notions specifically in terms of identity construction. They discuss the negotiations of multiple voices or discourses as taking place in the spaces of figured worlds.

Holland and her colleagues define figured worlds as “a socially and culturally constructed realm of interpretation in which particular characters and actors are recognized, significance is assigned to certain acts, and particular outcomes are valued over others.” (p. 41). Figured worlds supply the contexts and meanings which allow individuals to come to understandings about themselves central to their notions of identity (p. 60). In other words, figured worlds provide the space for developing the beliefs, values and commitments that make up an individual’s identity. Individuals interact with one another and ascribe meaning to or privilege certain actions or ends based on the authoritative discourse derived from a particular figured world. Actions particularly valued within any figured world then make up the authoritative discourse in that particular

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² Heteroglossia refers to the conditions under which an utterance is made that allow a particular and distinct meaning to be attributed to that speech act. Dialogism refers to the fact that meaning can only be attributed to any utterance when understood as part of a whole. (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 263)

³ Bakhtin describes authoritative discourse as the distant, privileged language of power and juxtaposes it to internally-persuasive discourse which is one’s own personal language (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 342)
context. Figured worlds are complex “frames of meaning” (p. 271) in which individuals send messages about their identities that are received by others and interpreted in order to position these individuals in particular ways.

In my study, I became interested in investigating the inquiry group meetings as a figured world that proposed an authoritative discourse of professionalism based on teacher initiated inquiry-driven practice and ongoing collegial interactions around data. This space was distinct from the larger authoritative discourse of accountability in which the site itself and other professional development efforts at the site were embedded. The question of the importance of interpretative context related to identity fueled my investigation of whether and in what ways the collaborative inquiry group space actually impacted each focal teacher’s individual professional identity.

Identity construction through ongoing negotiation and the importance of power. It would have been impossible for me to conduct an authentic investigation of identity without discussing the importance of authoritative discourses within figured worlds. Holland and her colleagues posit that identity is constructed in negotiations within and among figured worlds. These negotiations can be either nurturing or disruptive to one’s entering sense of identity. However, they are never neutral in terms of power. Within every figured world, there is an authoritative discourse that calls upon an individual to adapt or negotiate her identity in a particular way.

To illustrate the negotiation of identity relative to figured worlds in a more concrete way, I give an example of negotiation related to teacher professional identity and its continuing evolutions according to encounters with alternate figured worlds. An individual who was a successful student in a traditional classroom might hold an internally persuasive view of teaching based on lecturing or classroom management. If this style of teaching practice were effective for her, she might believe that this was also effective for others. This same individual might then be presented with progressive notions of teaching in a pre-service teacher education program which portrayed a teacher as a facilitator, guide, or expert participant within the classroom. As the individual entered the profession herself, she might experience tension from an administration that viewed teaching as measurable by the number and type of strategies used, credentials held and proficient students. Each of these experiences constitutes a source from which this individual might construct her identity. Depending on the weight she assigned to each experience, these experiences might influence her identity as a teacher to differing degrees. Seen as individual experiences in discrete moments, these competing factors can be conceptualized as encounters with multiple figured worlds of teaching over time (the figured world of student experience; that of a particular pre-service; and that of a particular site context) in which the individual was asked to ascribe to certain authoritative beliefs to gain acceptance, according to the view of teaching advocated in that context. Over time, these competing factors might push the individual to reconsider or negotiate her own internally persuasive discourse of the role of a teacher as she constructed her teacher professional identity.

In this example from teaching, there might be important power dynamics that impact a teacher’s adaptation of her identity, such as a desire to receive a good grade in her pre-service teacher education classes or to be looked upon favorably by her administration. Holland and her colleagues address this through their explicit discussion of positioning and power which extend notions of authoritative discourse. Positioning and power affect the degree to which negotiation
may be possible or reauthoring may be necessary for an individual at the intersection of
dissonant figured worlds.

**Agency and identity in practice.**

One final factor central in considering professional identity development was agency in
response to authoritative discourses. Holland and her colleagues note that, even in situations
with clearly skewed power dynamics, individuals can display resistance or creative
improvisation that allows them to maintain internally persuasive discourses over more
hegemonic authoritative discourses with which they do not agree. This can be done through an
individual’s agency in response to competing discourses within a figured world.

Identity construction always involves some sort of agency, either through accepting and
enacting an authoritative identity or in actively authoring an alternate or hybrid identity. While
an individual always responds to an encounter with an alternate figured world, in situations
where differential power dynamics exist, maintaining an internally-persuasive discourse may
require a greater level of agency. Agency is implicit in the “space of authoring” that Holland and
her colleagues discuss as a core element of identity construction (p. 274). In authorship, an
individual chooses an identity. The choice of one’s identity demonstrates agency.

Identity construction, however, only begins with choice. Over time, an individual’s
identity becomes concretized through repeated practice, response and negotiation. Over time,
consistent patterns of practice and an individual’s understanding of herself in relation to these
practices constitutes her identity. These understandings of self are linked to and dependent on
social interaction and feedback in response to a newly adapted identity. The notion of identity in
practice is important in reflecting the ongoing nature and negotiation of identity. If the
authoritative discourse of a particular figured world is encountered only for a limited time,
although a renegotiation of identity might temporarily occur in order to adhere to the valued
practices within that particular context, unless this authoritative discourse becomes internalized,
the behaviors consistent with the revised identity will disappear in the absence of authority.

I was drawn initially to the idea of identity because of the commitment of two focal
teachers toward highly counter-normative practices of professionalism and instruction. Given
the assertion that teachers who actively challenge authoritative discourses of figured worlds in
which they are embedded require a strong sense of agency, I wanted to look deeply at the beliefs
and commitments behind the actions of these two focal teachers and how these beliefs and
commitments were reflected in ongoing practice. In closely looking at my data, however, the
evolution of other focal teachers’ professional identities in different directions became just as
intriguing to me. By thinking about all identity construction as a form of agency, I was able to
examine not only the agency that took place on the part of these two teachers within the focal
group, but to expand my study to look at ways that all the focal teachers exhibited agency in
authoring their professional identities in response to the multiple figured worlds related to
teaching that they encountered. The inquiry group setting became one potential site of practice
for a particular type of professional identity. In designing this study, I was interested both in
whether focal teachers chose a particular identity within inquiry group and whether this identity
seemed consistent with the ways they characterized their identities outside of the group. Agency
and identity in practice provide a means for me to consider teachers’ authorship of their identities
in particular ways during inquiry meetings which may or may not have persisted in the absence
of the inquiry group.

My investigation centers on how teachers, through discourse, positioned themselves as
particular types of teachers and the sources they emphasized in relation to their professional
identities. I focus on the sources from which teachers drew their identities and the discourses they adopted and adapted to constitute their individual teacher selves by examining identity negotiation within and among the multiple figured worlds they referenced as important to their development. Teachers were at the same site, in the same department, in the same inquiry group, and subject to the same site-based authoritative discourses, yet they constructed varying individual senses of professional identity. Given the level of state accountability which the focal site was under, the focal teachers’ ability to author such individual identities seemed to require active negotiation of external figured worlds and agency on their part. Drawing from the totality of each individual’s experience among multiple figured worlds, I consider the broad range of possible sources that teachers referenced to constitute their distinct professional identities. However, with an awareness of the importance of power in the context of urban underperforming schools, I keep in mind the authoritative discourse related to particular types of achievement at the focal site which all focal teachers had to negotiate in order to construct their professional identities.

Teacher Professional Identity

Having situated my use of identity in relation to a theoretical framework, I now position my study in relation to other empirical work on teacher professional identity. After conducting a comprehensive review of the literature, I found that many empirical studies approached identity with specific lenses that touched on a distinct source related to professional identity. One group of studies examines the importance of personal factors in the construction of professional identity. These studies center on either the connection between elements of personal identity and professional identity (cf. Nevin, Bradshaw, Cardelle-Elawar, & Diaz-Greenburg, 2009; Vavrus, 2009), the connection between emotions and the construction of identity (cf. Reio, 2005; O’Connor, 2008; Shapiro, 2010), or the importance of self-image in the construction of teacher professional identity (cf. Chong & Low, 2009; Settlage, Sotherland, Smith, & Ceglie, 2009; Sutherland, Howard, & Markauskaite, 2010). A second group of studies focuses on the role of teacher education in promoting and establishing aspects of professional identity (cf. Doecke & McKnight, 2002; Van Huizen, Van Oers, & Wubbels, 2005; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008). A third set of studies looks at the connection between aspects of environment and professional identity. This third set can be subdivided into studies that focus on the importance of site and learning contexts on professional identity development (cf. Mahlios, 2002; Cohen J. L., 2008; Hung, 2008) and those that discuss identity in relation to socio-political contexts, particularly connected with increased accountability measures in the United States and other western nations (cf. Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Pennington, 2007; Assaf, 2008; Barrett, 2009).

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4 The focal site was designated as a 5th year program improvement site under federal No Child Left Behind legislation. The implications of this designation on the site and site-based professional development are discussed further in chapter 2 (p. 13-14)

5 In addition to focusing on particular aspects of professional identity, a large number of empirical pieces on teacher professional identity lacked a clear theoretical framework making it difficult for me to situate my study in relation to their understandings of teacher professional identity. The issue of a lack of clarity as to a definition of teacher professional identity across studies has been noted as problematic in the field by both major literature reviews of teacher professional identity literature (cf. Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009).
These studies provide perspectives on professional identity by focusing on distinct influences related to identity construction. Particularly relevant ideas from these previous studies include: the importance of personal investment and emotion as an important aspect of professional identity (Reio, 2005; O’Connor, 2008); the importance of context during the induction period of teaching on teacher professional identity, particularly ideas brought in from personal or pre-service experiences (Flores & Day, 2006; Chong & Low, 2009); and the overwhelming evidence that teachers’ perceptions of professionalism differ in significant ways from the vision of professionalism embodied by accountability movements that measure teacher quality through standardized testing (Mockler, 2005; Osborn, 2006; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Pennington, 2007; Assaf, 2008; Barrett, 2009).

While these studies provide a focused examination of aspects of teacher professional identity, my study seeks to examine multiple factors that inform the development of a teacher professional identity and how a particular group of new teacher professionals negotiates such factors. Given these goals, I found the study of individual factors related to identity construction somewhat limiting in scope. Two authors, however, approached what it meant for individuals to be a teacher by considering factors particularly relevant to the professional context and view of identity in this study. I will discuss how these two authors provide an empirical base that this study extends through its investigation of teacher professional identity.

**Grossman: explorations of the importance of teacher education on teacher knowledge and identity.**

In *The Making of a Teacher: Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Education* (1990), Pamela Grossman reports on a case study of a focal group of six beginning English teachers, three with no formal teacher education and three who had been through a subject-specific teacher preparation program. Grossman closely examines each group of teachers, looking at the sources from which they draw their conceptions of their practice in several crucial areas including their understanding of the purpose of teaching English, the subject matter they choose to embed in their curriculum, and their understanding of the students that they are teaching. While Grossman’s focus is on teacher knowledge, Ann Lieberman, in her foreword to the book, explains the term “pedagogical content knowledge” as used by Grossman to represent the means by which “we come to understand the differences in what teachers believe and value, how those values get played out in the classroom, and how they impact the treatment of the very content that teachers teach” (Lieberman, 1990, p. vii). Grossman, while discussing teacher knowledge, also looks at how these first year teachers construct understandings of what it means to be an English teacher.

Grossman’s study indicates that subject-specific teacher education programs can influence the beliefs and stance of new teacher professionals. Although all three teachers with pedagogical training in Grossman’s study drew upon some personal experiences as English students to establish their beliefs as teachers, they also noted that their teacher education program gave them systematic ways of understanding and conceptualizing professional goals, curriculum, and instruction that were important to their sense of themselves as English teachers. All three teachers left their pre-service teacher education program with common emphases in relation to curriculum and instruction; all saw planning as important to making curriculum more accessible to students; and all saw motivating students as a critical part of their role as teachers despite initially differing knowledge and beliefs about the purpose of the English classroom and distinct reasons for entering teaching.
Teachers with no formal teacher education drew their professional models almost exclusively from an apprenticeship of observation. These three teachers relied heavily upon their experiences as students of literature to inform their teaching practice. They expressed difficulty relating to their students and frustration with the levels at which students interacted with literature. While all three of these teachers sought to promote a love of literature among students, they chose to do so in ways that relied upon students’ intrinsic motivation to engage with literature. They saw reviewing the literature they were teaching as a sufficient means of planning instruction, as lessons were comprised of literature-based discussions. Of these teachers, the two who constructed the secondary English classroom as a space centered upon close literary analysis had a very difficult time adjusting to their role as teachers—one left teaching and the other was investigating leaving the profession. The third teacher, who had previously taught English as a second language in Japan, felt that the secondary English classroom was about both literature and the communication of ideas. This teacher was able to transition into the classroom more easily. However, Grossman points out that this teacher did so in a teaching context which “offered a close match between her vision of teaching and the abilities and inclinations of her students” (p. 51). Grossman notes that this particular teacher’s students were, in fact, “both culturally and intellectually” similar to her, a difference between her situation and that of her counterparts without formal teacher training. She hypothesizes that this similarity between the teacher and her students, or this teacher’s willingness to collaborate with colleagues may have contributed to easing her professional transition.

Grossman’s work contributes powerful evidence that pre-service professional education can be important to key aspects of teachers’ early career professional identities. Her study parallels my own in several ways, including its case study methodology, its focus on new teachers of English, and its examination of a mix of teachers who entered the profession both through tradition pre-service education programs and through alternative teacher pathways. Although Grossman focuses on teacher knowledge in her examination of teacher education, she does so by examining sources from which teachers draw their beliefs and values in relation to their practice, two critical components in my definition of teacher professional identity. Additionally, the ways in which prior experience and teacher education inform teacher identity and teacher practice are central features of both Grossman’s study and my own. Grossman’s focus on the sources from which teachers construct their professional identities, viewed in terms of their beliefs and values, has been a critical contribution to the field of teacher knowledge and teacher education and has strong ties to examining teacher professional identity in this study.

**Olsen: personal history as shaping professional development and professional identity development.**

Another empirical study closely related to mine can be found in Brad Olsen’s work (2008). While Olsen, like Grossman, frames his study in relation to teacher knowledge and teacher education, he makes explicit connections between teacher identity and teacher learning, noting that his study shows that “professional learning is less about accruing technical or intellectual knowledge and more about (re-)constructing one’s own teacher identity” (p. 6).

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6 Apprenticeship of observation refers to a term first used by Dan Lortie (1975) to describe a common form of teacher socialization based upon perceptions of teaching developed throughout formal schooling, as students watch what their teachers do. This type of “apprenticeship” reveals practices or behaviors, but does not reveal how teachers think about their professional practice and choices.
Indeed, Olsen’s study seeks explicitly to reconceptualize teacher learning as an ongoing, situated, holistic and identity-related process designed to integrate experiences of the past and present. As such, teacher learning blends personal experiences with professional education.

Olsen’s study focuses on a group of 8 English teachers from 4 university-based credential programs. Olsen finds that among this group of teachers there was an ongoing negotiation between several discourses about teaching (or teaching models) that emerged from sources such as: teachers’ experiences as students; their experiences with teachers they had known personally; images of teaching from the media; experiences with teachers shared by friends; any pre-professional teaching practice; instruction and experiences in pre-service education; and experiences in early professional practice. While these discourses could be conflicting, Olsen notes that teachers tended toward what he calls “knowledge coherence,” (i.e. a unified or cohesive teacher identity). Olsen also finds that teacher construction of a “teacher self” was both developmental and recursive, individual and social, a premise with which this study also frames identity.

Olsen further discusses personal versus professional influences on teacher identity. His finds that the pull of a personal stance or personal beliefs is often stronger than that of pre-service education, when these two sources of teacher identity conflict. Olsen notes that in nearly all the cases where personal and pre-service beliefs conflicted, new teachers tended to maintain their entering beliefs. However, focal teachers showed varying levels of discomfort in this practice, at times acknowledging that they probably should be teaching in a different manner and referencing ideas from their pre-service programs. Further, Olsen notes that for teachers with strong subject area backgrounds in English, knowledge of literature and affiliation with a literary analysis framework structured their understandings of other forms of teacher learning. In programs that were not subject-specific, focal teachers were often dismissive of methods that they did not feel were relevant to teaching literature. Olsen also gives evidence that among the focal teachers, both the personality of the individual teacher and the relationship of the teacher to staff of the credentialing program were important to the level of appropriation of a programmatic discourse toward teaching. Finally, Olsen notes that the alignment between a teacher’s incoming stance toward his/her role and the stance of his/her credentialing program was an important factor in the experience created by the program for the teacher. If a teacher came in with a different view of teaching than that advocated by the program, that teacher was presented with a situation in which she might reconsider and negotiate her identity given new ideas advocated by the program. In only one of the focal cases presented, a teacher’s incoming sense of “teaching self” was confirmed by the stance of the program. Olsen notes that this “confirmatory” experience is not necessarily what he advocates for teacher education programs; nor does he hope that teachers continue to implicitly dismiss conflicting beliefs espoused by their programs. Rather, he recommends that teacher education programs provide opportunities for teaching candidates to explicitly and critically examine their incoming beliefs and interact intentionally with numerous discourses around teaching, including, but not limited to, the stance of the program itself, in order to engage teachers in an active process of knowledge and identity construction.

There are several parallels between the design of Olsen’s study and my own. Olsen also studies a focal group of English teachers and adopts a view of identity as an ongoing, recursive process influenced by multiple discourses about what it means to be a teacher. He emphasizes the process of negotiation that new teacher professionals go through in constructing a “teacher self” or a teacher professional identity. Finally, Olsen also considers the factors which prevent
teachers from adapting their own models of teaching to others that they encounter, giving evidence for the strength of one’s image of a teaching self which exists prior to entering a teacher credentialing program. Olsen does not, however, consider the importance of the professional setting or professional development that aims to support particular beliefs and commitments central to professional identity.

**Considering Multiple Factors Related to Teacher Professional Identity**

In my study, I build upon many of the central considerations of identity that Grossman and Olsen identify and expand upon others which their studies do not consider. Grossman and Olsen focus their studies explicitly on the connection between pre-service education and teacher identity as connected to teacher knowledge. I move away from an explicit focus on pre-service and teacher knowledge toward a more open investigation of the sources to which teachers attribute their professional identities. I use this broad investigation of professional identity to consider how emphases on specific aspects of this identity then inform the choices that teachers make as new professionals. Finally, I focus on the collaborative inquiry group as a professional development space to question what happens when disparate teacher identities intersect and interact with one another around the professional goals of each individual teacher as expressed through her inquiry project.

I examine the following central research questions: *What are the sources that new teachers cite as important to the formation of their professional identities? What can we learn from new teachers’ emphases on the understandings gained from particular sources of professional identity? What can we understand about the ways that professional identities inform professional interactions in a particular professional development setting?* Through answering each of these central questions, I hope to extend and enrich the existing literature on professional identity by deepening an understanding about the factors which may contribute to an individual’s teacher professional identity and by considering the way that this identity shapes and is shaped by early professional practice and collaboration.
Chapter 2
Methods and Methodology

Research Design

I conducted this study as part of an ongoing program of research focused on teachers in their first three to five years of professional practice who participated in site-based collaborative inquiry groups. The parent project, Project IMPACT, investigates induction support and beginning teacher inquiry through building a network of voluntary, inquiry based, practice-centered teacher communities focused on issues of social justice. The project’s mission is to support the development of the “will, skill, capacity and commitment of teachers to teach and lead in inspired and effective ways” through engaging them in investigations of their own practice. The project’s primary method for the establishment of new groups is to ask interested alumni of the university’s credential programs to recruit other willing teachers on their site to participate. The project asks that at least half of each inquiry group be comprised of teachers in their first three years of practice.

Each group, in Project IMPACT, is led by a facilitator who is either a university-based facilitator with teaching experience, or an experienced teacher-researcher from the participating site. The facilitator’s role is to facilitate a cycle of inquiry for participants. The cycle of inquiry process includes initial work around question development; data protocol sessions during which teacher participants bring samples of student work, assignments, surveys or other data, present to the group and receive feedback relevant to their inquiry question; and focused reflection on the inquiry process through writing and discussion. The culmination of the year long inquiry process is a presentation to the larger network (i.e. teacher participants from other schools also participating in the project) and a short reflective paper. Project IMPACT teachers receive a small stipend for their voluntary participation in the program. As part of the ongoing research goals of the project, group facilitators are required to collect meeting data. In facilitating the Goody High group, I regularly participated in and audio-recorded bi-weekly meetings, as well as taking detailed field notes of each meeting.

During my initial year as facilitator of the Goody High group, I was struck by one particular teacher in the group, Annie. Annie had initiated the participation of the Goody High group with Project IMPACT, recruited me as the facilitator, invited the first year group members, and had chosen to connect her practice explicitly to inquiry by investigating the connection between teacher and student inquiry in her year one project. In year two of the group, Annie joined with Isa, another focal group teacher, to pilot an “Advanced Placement for All” pipeline. The project by Annie and Isa, which was also central to their year two inquiry projects, was unprecedented at the site both because there were large numbers of African American and Latino students in the pilot classes and because traditionally students were required to come prepared with particular prerequisite skills in order to gain admission into Advanced Placement classes. Impressed by the agency required on the part of both Annie and Isa, I collected supplementary data (including extra interview data and classroom observations) on these two teachers in order to focus my study on the factors that enabled them to honor their professional commitments in several ways that were counter-normative.

As I studied the practices of Annie and Isa, I became interested in the notion of teacher professional identity as a means of understanding and framing the beliefs, values and commitments which were at the heart of the choices that Annie and Isa made in relation to their
professional practices, both in the classroom and in the inquiry group. Annie and Isa shared many professional commitments, worked closely together and were in the same cohort of their pre-service teacher education program before beginning their teaching careers at Goody High. However, I realized that within the collaborative inquiry group itself, there were other teachers with distinct professional backgrounds and commitments who made different professional choices. Although all of the teachers joined the collaborative inquiry group voluntarily, their participation in meetings varied greatly. I also knew, from observations of practice and meeting with individual teachers as part of my secondary site role as a literacy coach, that these teachers varied in their classroom practice. I became curious as to the way that the professional identities of each of the inquiry group teachers related to their professional choices and the way they articulated their sense of themselves as teachers.

Both professionally and intellectually, I was particularly interested in the professional identities of these teachers who chose to participate in a voluntary collaborative inquiry group. I had previously facilitated several collaborative inquiry groups and had noted a particular type of discourse present in these meetings that differed from other types of “teacher talk” I had participated in, as a teacher myself, outside of this type of professional setting. As a researcher, I was familiar with a large body of theoretical and empirical literature related to inquiry-based professional development and communities of practice (cf. Lave & Wanger, 1991; Grossman, Wineburg, & Woolworth, 2001; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009) that connected inquiry with a particular counter-normative view of teaching. Cochran-Smith and Lytle argue that through participation in communities of inquiry, teachers can develop a stance of inquiry which provides a grounded theory of action with “the role of practitioners and practitioner knowledge as central to the goal of transforming teaching, learning, leading and schooling” (2009, p. 119). They further state that participating in a community of practice formed around inquiry allows professionals to consistently engage in inquiry and begin to see inquiry as a central to their practice. I sought to investigate, through my study, whether these principles of an inquiry-based identity, that required active agency on the part of focal teachers, actually emerged from teachers in the inquiry group. To do this, I chose to look at the inquiry group meeting data as a particular space of interaction among the participating teachers. Further, I wanted to know whether teachers themselves cited inquiry as a critical source through which they constituted their professional identities in practice when asked about identity individually, outside of the inquiry group setting.

This interest in professional identity related to the collaborative inquiry group led me to expand my study beyond my initial focus on Annie and Isa to include all teachers who had participated for at least one year in the focal group at Goody High. However, I did not fully conceptualize this as the focus of my study until after the focal group disbanded at the end of year 2. At that point, while I had meeting data over two years and some exit interview data from teachers in year 1 of the inquiry group, little of this data had been focused on professional identity.

In order to collect specific data related to professional identity for all of the teachers in the focal group, I formulated several identity-related questions for a semi-structured individual interview. Two of the teachers from the year 1 group had moved out of the area and were sent the interview questions electronically. In the fall semester following the end of the group (school

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7 Further details about the site-based roles, including that of new English teacher literacy coach, are explained on p. 18 when I position myself as researcher in this study.
year 2009-2010), I successfully conducted professional identity based interviews with or received electronic responses from all but one of the focal inquiry group participants. Based on these interviews, data collected in the formative stages of this study and data collected as part of my ongoing participation with Project IMPACT, I have constructed this study focused on sources of teacher professional identity and the intersections of individual professional identities in the collaborative inquiry group setting.

The Site: Goody High

My study is based on research conducted at Goody High, an urban high school in the San Francisco Bay Area. Goody High is one of three remaining large comprehensive high schools in the Lawndale School District, a district that has been under state takeover for several years because of a failure to meet Academic Yearly Progress\(^8\) benchmarks, as determined by standardized testing measures. Goody High is classified as an underperforming site with significant subgroups of Asian, African American, Latino, socio-economically disadvantaged students and students with special needs students. The school has an Academic Performance Index (API) statewide ranking of 2 and an API of 629 in 2008.\(^9\) Although the school greatly exceeded its API growth target (growing 30 points instead of the target 10 points from 2007-2008), it failed to meet its 2007-08 Adequate Yearly Progress criteria in 4/26 significant subgroups/subject areas.\(^10\)

In the 2008-09 school year, the school was in Program Improvement Year 5 (California Department of Education 2009). Program Improvement Year 5 is a critical year for sites as they must undergo state-mandated restructuring during this year. Goody High School restructured in the 2009-2010 school year, through establishing ninth grade “houses” in which a core group of teachers worked closely to provide greater accountability for incoming students. These “houses” were in addition to two “academy” programs already in place at the site to emphasize particular curricular foci, one focused on visual arts and the second focused on environmental science. In 2008-2009, Goody High was also required to renew its accreditation with the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC) through a year-long self study process. In Spring 2009, Goody High submitted its self-study report to WASC and received a three-year provisional accreditation.

Professional development at Goody High.

During the two years of data collection for the study (school years 2007-2008; 2008-2009), Goody High’s whole staff professional development focused on restructuring and accreditation efforts. In addition, the district and site supported targeted professional

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\(^8\) Adequate Yearly Progress is a term from federal *No Child Left Behind* legislation and refers to acceptable progress among significant subgroups of students as measured by standardized tests in Language Arts/Math (see below).

\(^9\) The statewide ranking score is a performance ranking from 1-10 in comparison with all other schools in California. API scores are calculated on a scale of 200-1000 points, with 800 considered the goal for all sites.

\(^10\) The academic performance index is a statewide accountability measure based on STAR (Standardized Testing and Reporting) measures. At the high school level, this includes California Standards Tests (CST) and the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) passage rate. Goody high school exceeded their overall growth target by 20 points, however, in order to exit state Program Improvement status, a school must meet their growth target with all “significant subgroups” (i.e. in all areas where there are at least 100 students or 15% of the school population fits into this category). Goody High failed to meet state benchmarks in: percentage of African American students proficient in Math and English; percentage of Hispanic/Latino students proficient in English; and percentage of English Language Learners proficient in English.
development for teachers, mainly organized through department heads or initiated by individual teachers. This included: teacher attendance at professional development seminars of interest or relevance to them, on-site content coaching, (Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment) BTSA Induction support,\textsuperscript{11} stipends for specific work by teams of teachers in the summer, and voluntary participation in a collaborative inquiry network (Project IMPACT) sponsored by a local research university.

**Goody High focal inquiry group.**

The Goody High Project IMPACT group was the focus of this study. This collaborative inquiry group was comprised solely of teachers in their first 5 years of teaching, a subset of the 12-person English department. Being a part of the same departmental context allowed for subject specific conversations that a cross-content group may not have facilitated. Additionally, Goody High, as a site under strict accountability measures serving a highly diverse, predominantly low income, urban population provided a particularly interesting context for developing professional identity as accountability factors have been cited in previous literature (Barrett, 2009; Lasky, 2005) as affecting the nature of teacher professional identity.

**Profile of Study Participants**

The Goody High collaborative inquiry group participated for two years as part of the Project. Three group members (Annie, Isa and Emily) participated in both years of the group, while 5 other members participated for either year one or year two of the group. In the first year, the group was 5 teachers, all women in the first four years of practice. In the second year, the group was 6 teachers, 4 women, 2 men, all in their first five years of practice. All focal teachers elected to participate both in the inquiry group itself and the research projects connected with the group. Participants were included as subjects of my study only if they participated in the Goody High group for at least one full year (n=8).\textsuperscript{12} While the group of study participants was somewhat diverse, the composition of the group generally reflected the larger demographic of high school English teachers, being predominantly white, female, and beginning their teaching careers before age 35 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2006).\textsuperscript{13} Table 2.1 provides an overview of the study participants. The table is followed by a brief narrative description which includes a brief self-description from participant interviews.

\textsuperscript{11} The Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment program is a state-funded induction program, co-sponsored by the California Department of Education and run by districts. It pairs new teachers up with mentor teachers and asks them to conduct several “events” looking at their practice with multiple lenses. It is a requirement for new teachers to become fully credentialed.

\textsuperscript{12} Two teachers, not included as participants, attended one collaborative inquiry meeting but chose not to participate in the group because of the time commitment and conflicts with scheduling. Additionally, during some collaborative inquiry meetings outside visitors to the group, including the project director and an alumnus of the program who was a site administrator, attended and participated in meetings. Although they are not listed as subjects of investigation, data related to their participation is included in the study.

\textsuperscript{13} While the majority white, female composition was reflective of the race/ethnicity and gender statistics on high school English teachers, the ethnic breakdown of the rest of the group (2 Asian Americans/1 African American) was not reflective of larger trends among English teachers in the United States, with a much larger African American (6.9%) and Hispanic (3.3%) percentage of teachers than Asian American (1.1%).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Race/Ethnicity Gender</th>
<th>Year(s) of Participation</th>
<th>Year(s) of Practice</th>
<th>Professional Entry Pathway</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emily</td>
<td>White Female</td>
<td>2007-2008; 2008-2009</td>
<td>1st/2nd</td>
<td>MA/Credential at Project Affiliated University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosie</td>
<td>White Female</td>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>MA/Credential at other Research University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molly</td>
<td>White Female</td>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Teach for America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>White Male</td>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>5th</td>
<td>Internship Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beth</td>
<td>White Female</td>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Teach for America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duc</td>
<td>Asian American Male</td>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>MA/Credential at Project Affiliated University</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1 Study Participants

Annie, an Asian American woman in her mid-twenties, initiated the site-based collaborative inquiry group and participated in both years of its existence. Annie credited her entry into the profession to previous success in tutoring and mentoring experiences in college (9/12/09: 2-20). She completed her credential and MA in education through a major research university affiliated with Project IMPACT and initiated the initial research funding proposal for Goody High School’s group. When asked how she would describe herself as a teacher, Annie emphasized the structured nature of her classroom, and a firm, but loving, approach to discipline. In terms of her growth as a professional, she noted that her ability to adapt her teaching to her students’ needs had grown over her time in practice. Annie taught 9th and 10th grade English in the Visual Arts/Media Academy (VAMA) and one English class (9th grade in year one; 10th grade in year two) in the general program.

Isa, also in her mid-twenties, came from a mixed heritage (African American/Asian American) background and also participated in the focal inquiry group over both years of the study. Isa is a graduate of Goody High who returned to teach at her alma mater upon completing her credential program. Like Annie, Isa cited the importance of her pre-professional experiences in education to her entry into the profession (9/25/09: 2-5). When asked to characterize herself as a teacher, Isa cited strengths in curriculum, interactions with students and the inclusion of all student voices and participation in the classroom (9/18/09: 73-76). She cited vocabulary instruction as her weakness (76-78), but also noted that this was the subject of her own “self-inquiry” project in year three of the study (a way she sought to investigate her practice after the Project IMPACT group had disbanded). In the first year of the study, Isa taught 12th grade honors English; 12th grade English; and 9th grade Reading Intervention; in the second year of the study, she taught 11th and 12th grade English in the VAMA and an additional section of 11th grade English outside of the academy.

Emily, a white woman in her early thirties, was the final focal group teacher who participated in both years of the study. Prior to teaching, Emily had worked in fields outside of education before receiving her credential. She entered the inquiry group in her 1st year of professional practice, while concurrently earning her Masters degree in the same
Credential/Masters program that Annie and Isa had graduated from 2 years prior. When asked how she would describe herself as a teacher, she highlighted strengths in her grasp of content and that she was a “direct teacher,” which was somewhat ambiguous in meaning (9/18/09: 84-88). Emily felt that her weaknesses or areas for improvement were in: organization; consistency (or the balance between routine and spontaneity); yearlong flow and progression; and an ability to clearly articulate what she is teaching them and why (88-97). Emily taught 10th and 12th grade English both years of the study, with one section that was part of the Environmental science focused academy (AES) and one honors section. In the second year, Emily also advised a Journalism elective.

Rosie, a white woman in her late twenties, participated in the inquiry group in year 1 of the study, during her third year of professional practice. Like Emily, Rosie had worked before entering teaching. Rosie had relocated for personal reasons to the Bay Area to begin her teaching career after obtaining her credential from a research university on the East Coast. After year 1 of the study, Rosie relocated back to the area that she was from and accepted a position teaching High School English in another large urban school district. Rosie was the one teacher whom I was unable to conduct a follow-up interview or survey with regarding her professional identity in year 3. However, Rosie did participate in an exit interview after the first year of the study in addition to her inquiry group participation. Rosie taught 11th and 12th grade English in the VAMA with Annie in year 1 of the study and an additional section of 11th grade English before leaving the site at the end of the 2007-2008 school year.

Molly, a white woman in her early twenties, participated in the inquiry group in year 1 of the study, during her second year of professional practice. Unlike the other teachers in the year one group, Molly did not enter teaching through a credential program, but was certified through an alternative entry pathway (Teach for America). Unable to find a job in a secondary school upon her relocation, Molly accepted a position at a local community college teaching English. When asked to describe herself as a teacher, Molly described herself as positive, hard working, having high expectations and someone who worked relentlessly to keep students engaged and learning effectively. She also described herself as reflective. She cited a potential area for improvement in finding creative and effective ways to introduce new material and not getting into “idea ruts,” but constantly pushing herself to try new things (9/09: 21-26). Molly taught two sections of 9th grade English and two sections of 10th grade English in addition to teaching a Business Apprenticeship elective.

James, a white man in his early thirties, entered the study in year 2 of the focal group. He is the only teacher in the focal group to have professional experience at another site before Goody High, spending one year teaching 7th grade at a middle school in a smaller, low-performing district in the greater Bay Area and one year teaching at a continuation high school. James was alternatively certified through a university-based internship program that partnered with local school districts to help teachers obtain credentials while full-time teaching. When asked to describe himself as a teacher, James emphasized the importance of building relationships with students, community, safety, self-reflection and personal responsibility. He cited his ability to create strong relationships with students, as well as his fairness and his teaching of creative writing as his strengths. He reported teaching essays and giving homework as weaker elements of his practice. Finally, James noted his desire to improve his practice in the

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14 Molly and Rosie were similar in that both relocated to begin their teaching careers at Goody High, and both left after year one of the study focal group for personal reasons.
second half of the school year, as practices effective in the earlier (9/22/09). The year he participated in the study, James taught 10th and 12th grade English, with one section of each being in the Academy of Environmental Sciences program.

Like Molly, Beth, a teacher who participated in year 2 of the focal inquiry group, was a white woman in her early twenties who entered teaching through Teach for America and entered into the inquiry group in her second year of professional practice. Beth was part of the year 2 group for the study and reported entering the group because of her colleagues’ participation and at my suggestion (9/22/09). When asked to describe herself as a teacher, Beth noted her strengths as: organization, and relevant curriculum design and her weaknesses as: long term planning and staying on top of paperwork in “an efficient and effective manner” (9/22/09: 44-52). Beth taught 9th and 11th grade English, with one section of 11th grade English in the AES academy.

Duc, an Asian American male in his early twenties, was the group member newest to his professional practice. Duc joined the group in year 2 of the study, his first year of professional practice. Duc received his credential and Masters from the same program as Annie, Isa, and Emily, in the cohort following Emily’s. Duc, when asked to describe himself as a teacher in his professional identity interview, characterized himself as a “2nd year teacher” which to him meant that he was no longer struggling to survive teaching and not simply taking any material thrown at him and trying to implement it, but that he was developing his capacity to reflect upon his curriculum and units and thinking about how he could improve them (10/27/09: 89-107). Duc cited his strengths as his passion for teaching, energy and enthusiasm (109-118) and saw his areas for improvement as helping his students to be more organized and differentiating his instruction effectively for the range of student needs in his classroom (119-137). Duc taught 9th and 11th grade English during the year he participated in the study.

**Researcher Positioning**

As a participant-observer with multiple roles on the focal site, I have adopted Peshkin’s (1988) stance of subjectivity in relation to my own participation in the study. Peshkin notes that subjectivity should be actively considered throughout the process of data collection, analysis and discussion. However, he also cites subjectivity as uniquely positioning a researcher to contribute a particular perspective based on her subjective involvement in her study.

My role as researcher was one of several which I held at Goody High School. During the course of data collection for the study, I served as inquiry group participant-facilitator, instructional coach for beginning English teachers and researcher. Prior to my site-based roles at Goody High, I served as a mentor teacher for Annie during her credentialing program. Through maintained contact with Annie, I assumed my role as inquiry group facilitator at Goody High, when that particular position arose in collaboration with Project IMPACT.

Neither my role as facilitator nor my role as literacy coach was neutral. In both roles, I had clear goals for professional development that aligned with my own beliefs about what professional growth looked like. Were this a study focused on professional development, this would raise clear issue of bias, as I might choose to highlight teachers who I felt “developed” in the ways most aligned with my own beliefs in order to highlight my effectiveness as a professional development provider. However, the design of the study examining professional identity development rather than professional growth allowed me to decouple effectiveness in coaching from the study of identity itself. My view of professional identity as a complex phenomenon distinct from professional development allowed me, as researcher, to focus on my
data in different ways that do not implicate my own professional effectiveness. To further address my own subjectivity, I have made my participation in inquiry meetings a part of meeting-based data analysis. Furthermore, in order to ensure the accuracy of the data related to this analysis, I audio-recorded and transcribed all oral data sources cited in the study.

While I openly acknowledge the subjectivity inherent in my site-based roles, I also feel that these roles have afforded me a particular access to the practice and professional identities of teachers outside of group meetings. My multiple roles at the site allowed me to become part of the site community at Goody High over the two years of the study. I shared not only in the inquiry processes of teachers but also in their classroom struggles and successes in an ongoing, invested way through my coaching role and regular presence on site. I developed close relationships with each of the focal teachers that provided me with access to their personal and professional perspectives, and which prompted me to take great care in accurately and honestly representing their professional identities according to what the data revealed.

Conducting the analysis for this study, I have attempted to be non-evaluative and acknowledge the importance of the multiple sources that teachers cited as important to their professional identities, as these factors emerged from the data. Through triangulation of multiple data sources, I have sought to have minimized any potential researcher bias in relation to these professional identity orientations. I also hope to convey in the portrayal of the participants throughout the study the respect which I have for their role as professionals and their universal commitment to their own development as well as the growth and development of their students.

Data Collection

Data collection for the study took place during the two years of the group itself (SY 2007-2008; 2008-2009), with follow-up interview data collected in the fall of the following school year (2009-2010) with all but one participating teacher. Table 2.2 provides a data collection timeline and is followed by a description of each data source by category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Year/ Project Year</th>
<th>Data Collected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 2007-2008; Year 1         | • Audio-taped, transcribed meetings and related field notes/written artifacts (15 meetings; 2 hours in length; Oct-May)  
• Exit interviews with all participating teachers (May 2008; n=5)  
• Final Reflection papers for all participating teachers  
• Teacher in-class observations |
| 2008-2009; Year 2         | • Audio-taped, transcribed meetings and related field notes/written artifacts (15 meetings; 2 hours in length; Oct-May)  
• Group Exit Interview conducted with outside facilitator (May 2009)  
• Final Reflection papers for all participating teachers  
• Individual interviews about teacher practice with Annie/Isa (April 2009)  
• Teacher in-class observations |
| 2009-2010; Year 3         | • Professional Identity Interviews/ Surveys for all participating teachers except Rosie (n=7) (September-October 2009) |

Table 2.2 Data Collection Table by Year of Project

Individual teacher data related to inquiry participation/practice/professional identity.

Teacher exit interviews (Year 1).
Following year 1 of the study, each of the year 1 focal group teachers individually gave a 45-minute structured exit interview focused on the benefits and challenges of collaborative inquiry as a means of professional development and their own sense of growth over their year participating in the group. Although the focus of this interview was on professional growth, and not specifically on professional identity, participating teachers engaged in reflection of their practice as teachers and teacher-researchers that revealed aspects of their professional identity related to professional development. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

**Teacher professional practice interviews (Year 2—Annie and Isa only).**

As part of the initial research focus of my study, Annie and Isa each participated in a two-part semi-structured interview related to their professional practice (including questions related to recent observations of classroom practice) and their participation in the collaborative inquiry group. These interviews provided reflective discourse on the part of these teachers in relation to specific practices in their classroom. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

**Classroom observation/debrief notes (Years 1/2).**

As part of my site coaching role, I regularly observed Molly, Emily, Duc, James, and Beth in classrooms. In year 2, I also asked Annie and Isa to come observe their classroom interactions with students as part of the initial focus of this study. Field notes from these interactions and debrief notes from observations are used as a secondary data source because the data collected as part of coaching observations was less systematic than other data sources used for analysis.15

**Teacher professional identity interview/survey (Year 3—All Participants from Year 1/Year 2 group except for Rosie).**

The main data source for teacher self-description is the teacher professional identity interview. This was a 45-minute to 1-hour, semi-structured interview that I conducted with each focal group participant, conducted in the school year following the end of the inquiry group (i.e. academic year 2009-2010). This interview asked questions including what caused focal group teachers to enter teaching, what affected their development as teachers (both preservice and as practicing teachers), their beliefs about good teaching and whether they characterized themselves as teacher professionals and what that meant to them. Molly and Rosie, from year one of the group, had moved out of the area and were given the identity interview in the form of survey questions which Molly completed and returned electronically. The survey included three questions not in the interview. These questions asked about the teachers’ current teaching situations and their reasons for leaving Goody High. Rosie was the only teacher for whom this data was not collected. In-person interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

**Teacher written discourse in relation to inquiry and practice.**

**Inquiry group handouts/written artifacts (Years 1/2).**

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15 Because initially I had only planned to investigate Annie and Isa, my notes on classroom observations for other teachers reflected elements that teachers requested I observe them for, rather than most data which was audio-transcribed in addition to the field note record.
All members of the focal group prepared 1-3 handouts per year for the group to use as reference points during data protocol presentations to the group. I compiled electronic or hard copies of these handouts. Where possible, I also collected and photocopied written notes on handouts provided in the binder, including brainstorming sheets. This data indicated teacher preliminary thinking about the data related to their inquiry that was presented to the group during meetings and provided a summary of their inquiry progress and process to that point.

**Final inquiry papers (Years 1/2).**

All participating teachers were required to write a minimum 2-page paper summarizing their findings and inquiry process as part of the requirements of Project IMPACT participation. These papers were submitted electronically, read by two facilitators (the group facilitator and an outside facilitator), commented on, and published in an annual publication for other participating teachers in the project. I included the final published versions of these papers in the data set.

**Teacher interaction/discussion in collaborative inquiry group/related settings.**

**Field notes/transcripts of collaborative inquiry group meetings (Years 1/2).**

In the two focal years of the study, focal teachers participated in 15 regular biweekly collaborative inquiry group meetings around a central inquiry question that each individual determined as part of Project IMPACT (30 hours/year; 60 hours total). These meetings took place from October until May in the classroom of one of the teachers in the group or occasionally off-site at a nearby restaurant. Each meeting (except the first two meetings of the year 1 group) was audio-recorded and transcribed. Meetings were two-hours in length and followed an agenda, generally decided upon by the facilitator with input from the group. Meetings followed a specific format, beginning with informal check-ins (―brags and drags‖), proceeding to inquiry check-ins (short progress reports from each participant), inquiry-focused activities 16 (relevant to the particular part of the cycle of inquiry the group was engaging in), and ending with a process reflection by each teacher.

**Group Discussion about Inquiry (Year 2).**

At the final meeting in year 2 of the study, 5/6 participants 17 engaged in a group discussion with the same exit questions as the year 1 individual exit interviews. Although the group discussion during the final inquiry meeting of year 2 used the same questions as the individual interview, it is classified as interaction data because it occurred during inquiry group time in which participants could build off the previous comments of other participants. As part of the collaborative inquiry meetings, the group discussion was audio-recorded and transcribed.

**Group exit interview (Year 2).**

At the last project network meeting in year 2, 4/6 participants 18 engaged in a group exit interview conducted by two outside facilitators. This interview was particularly related to their participation in the project and questions specifically related to the group itself and what

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16 Some examples of inquiry focused activities included question generation brainstorming in pairs, chalk-talk and tuning protocols to focus inquiry questions or look at teacher generated documents, structured data protocols around student work, survey, interview or assessment data, structured work or computer research time.

17 Annie was not present for this discussion because of maternity leave.

18 Both Emily and Annie were not present for the final network day/exit interview.
participants felt was valuable from their experiences in the meetings. The group exit interview was audio-recorded and transcribed.

**Data Analysis**

I conducted data analysis for this study in multiple stages. During the data collection phase of the project, as part of my facilitator role for Project IMPACT, field notes included ongoing reflection on themes related to new teacher support and inquiry. As my study evolved to focus on teacher professional identity, I began to look at identity frameworks which would allow me to consider constructing identity as a complex and ongoing phenomenon.

Originally, I established a definition of teacher professional identity as the beliefs, values and practices central to a teacher’s understanding of her professional role. In my first definition of professional identity, the idea of teacher practice was included as an aspect of embodied identity; however, I realized that embedding practice in my definition of identity for this study was problematic; as teachers might claim beliefs or values inconsistent with their actual classroom practices. Further, I realized that my focus in this study was more on who teachers saw themselves to be as teachers rather than what they actually did as teachers, although the two were often connected in important ways. My definition of identity became focused on teacher beliefs, values and commitments which allowed teachers to characterize themselves as “being” a particular type of teacher and which were at the heart of teachers’ professional choices.

After establishing a definition of teacher professional identity, I began coding my data for beliefs, values and commitments of the focal teachers, looking for commonalities that might indicate patterns related to teacher professional identity. After coding for these three categories, I also looked for sources to which teachers attributed these beliefs, values and commitments. What emerged prominently from this initial set of coding were patterns related to sources of the beliefs and values related to professional identity. The patterns that emerged indicated that there were three central sources from which teachers drew their understandings of their professional identities: individual experiences/notions of self; classroom practice; and participation with external teaching-related discourses, including research, theory, collegial models, site context and national policy.

Using the three initial categories of individual experience, classroom practice and teaching-related discourses, I then recoded the data, looking more carefully for aspects of how teacher professional identity related to each of the three areas among each of the focal teachers as individuals. Patterns then began to emerge that indicated that while all three sources played a part in the professional identities of each of the focal teachers, among certain teachers, particular sources figured more prominently than others. According to emergent areas of emphasis, teachers were grouped by an orientation toward individual experiences, classroom practice, or the interplay between the classroom and related external discourses. I then looked at the data for teachers with similar identity orientations for patterns within orientation groups and distinctions between teachers in different orientation categories.

While teachers’ overall data showed particular trends related to their professional identity orientations, when looking at interactions within inquiry meetings I noticed that all teachers participated in dialogic interactions which connected their practice to external teaching-related discourse. In examining meeting-related data, I first attempted to code responses during inquiry data protocol portions of meetings with categories related to the three central sources of professional identity: classroom practice, interaction and individually-based comments. However, almost immediately, I encountered difficulty in coding comments “interaction-
oriented” v “classroom-oriented,” especially because dialogic interaction often involved relating classroom practice to external discourses and ways that these intersections informed one another. For this data set, the discourse informing practice was, in most cases, the inquiry process itself or the practice of other teachers. Separating interaction and classroom practice became artificial and was not useful for the distinction I sought to understand in differentiating comments made in the inquiry process. Instead, I created a “practice → inquiry” spectrum (Figure 2.3) which helped to clarify the nature of comments made in response to inquiry projects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice Based</th>
<th>Internally Dialogic</th>
<th>Inquiry Based</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practice-based</td>
<td>Classroom-based (Connected to Inquiry)</td>
<td>Inquiry-based (Connected to Classroom)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.3: Practice → Inquiry Spectrum for Inquiry Project Response Coding

On the practice-based end of the spectrum were practice-based comments. Practice-based comments referred to resource suggestions. These suggestions were not directly linked to the inquiry question or investigation, although they may have been connected more broadly to the inquiry topic. An example of this type of comment would be a suggestion for specific films when an inquiry question was focused on “How can I better utilize film to engender student analysis of text?” In this example, suggesting film is a resource that relates to the topic of the use of film in the classroom, but not the investigation of the process by which film use can become more effective.

Internally dialogic comments were broken into two subcategories, depending on focus of the comment itself. Classroom-based internally dialogic comments were comments which included explicit suggestions for classroom practice specifically designed to further the data collection process of inquiry. An example of this type of comment would be a suggestion to use dialectical journals as a classroom-based tool to help student analyze theme in both film and literature. While this suggestion is grounded in a classroom strategy, the strategy itself forwards the investigation of the inquiry question itself through providing classroom-based data that would then be subject to later reflection by the inquirer.

Inquiry-based internally dialogic comments were comments that referred to suggestions of inquiry, such as questions or processes of collecting data that were connected to already existing classroom practices or structures. An example of an inquiry-based comment connected to practice would be a suggestion to administer a survey to students regarding their strengths and challenges in analyzing film and literature at the end of a unit which incorporated both types of text. While this comment would be connected to the classroom, in that it was predicated on the occurrence of particular classroom practices, the central focus of the comment was on data collection and the inquiry process, rather than on the instructional, curricular or relational factors of classroom practice. Whether comments were anchored in instructional practice or inquiry
investigations, I classified both types of comments as internally dialogic because they explicitly integrated connections between practice and inquiry which informed one another.

Inquiry-based comments were suggestions for inquiry not directly linked to classroom practice. These comments generally fell into two categories: comments about data which had already been collected, or feedback on specific data measurement tools (e.g. surveys). Inquiry-based comments were not made in order to influence practice directly. Rather, they were often offered as points for the inquirer to consider in relation to the data presented. While inquiry-based comments were not internally dialogic, these comments often promoted avenues for ongoing dialogic interaction as they provided alternative external perspectives on inquiry to consider in a way that might affect a presenter’s beliefs, values and commitments. An example of an inquiry based comment would be if an inquiry group member noted that the wording of a survey question could be biased toward eliciting a positive response toward film in the classroom. This comment focuses exclusively on the inquiry question and tool itself rather than the classroom practice. However, it might prompt the presenting teacher to consider whether his commitment was to justify his use of film in the classroom or to elicit students’ authentic sense of learning in response to the nature of film and adapt his survey based on his underlying professional commitment.

Looking at the nature of comments made in response to data presentations allowed me to discuss trends in the data regarding types of comments made by participants. I examined the nature of specific types of comments according to the identity orientations of teachers who made these comments for connections between the nature of comments and the professional identities of teachers. Finally, I focused on the other main form of structured interaction in meetings, text-based discussions, to examine interactions among all teachers during these dialogues and note any patterns in types of comments made in response to text or colleagues according to teachers’ professional identity orientations.

**Overview of Dissertation**

Having situated and fully introduced my study, I now begin the discussion of findings related to my central research questions, as stated in chapter 1. In chapter 3, I discuss findings related to sources of professional identity for focal teachers. These findings are organized into three general categories (individual, classroom practice, and external teaching-related discourses) which are further subdivided according to patterns from the data. While teachers reported that each category contributed to their professional identities, not all areas were equally important to each teacher. In chapter 4, I report findings related to professional identity orientations or emphases that each teacher placed on particular sources of their professional identity. In this chapter, I show how emphases on particular sources of identity were reflected in professional discourse and individual interview data in ways that connected with teacher practice. In chapter 5, I focus on the ways in which certain professional development activities supported or challenged particular aspects of professional identity dependent upon the fit between the beliefs, values and commitments of a teacher’s professional identity and those inherent in the professional development activities. Finally, in chapter 6, I discuss multiple implications of my study and its importance, particularly given the current educational policy context related to teaching and teacher education.
Chapter 3
Sources of Teacher Professional Identity

In this chapter, I discuss findings related to the sources cited by focal teachers as important to the development of their professional identities. By “source”, I refer to a central means by which focal teachers constituted their professional identities. In some cases, sources provided models of teacher professional identity which focal teachers responded to in specific ways. In other cases, sources were part of an active construction and representation of what it meant to be a particular type of teacher. However, in all cases, sources were foundational in teachers’ establishing an understanding of who they were as teachers and the beliefs, values and commitments that made up their teacher professional identity.

My analysis of focal teacher data finds three main sources from which teachers drew the beliefs, values and commitments central to their professional identities: (a) student and pre-professional experiences in education; (b) classroom practice; and (c) interactions with external teaching-related discourses.

Student and Pre-professional Experiences in Education as a Source of Professional Identity

The first central source of teacher professional identity in the focal group was experience in education prior to entering the profession. These types of pre-professional educational experiences were important to the focal teachers in providing early models of professional practice. Two main types of experiences with education prior to professional practice were particularly relevant for the teachers in the focal group: experiences as students and pre-professional teaching experiences. These teaching experiences included instructing, tutoring or mentoring roles prior to professional practice that occurred before entering the classroom as a fulltime teacher. While these early teaching experiences were formative to teacher professional identity, often helping to shape commitments that teachers held once they entered the profession, they are included here and not in a discussion of professional practice because teaching as a profession was considered to be distinct in role, number of students served and professional commitment from pre-professional roles such as tutoring, mentoring and even student teaching by teachers themselves in their discussion of these positions to me.

Apprenticeship of observation: all eyes on the teacher.

Teachers’ experiences as students were often cited as a formative part of their later professional identities. Two focal teachers, Emily and Isa, made particularly strong connections

19 Although I found several additional personal factors which required individual teachers to negotiate their identities in particular ways (e.g. competing roles or the location of a teaching placement far from a supportive personal community), factors were only included in this chapter as a source of professional identity, if teachers explicitly connected them to the role of a teacher or ways that they perceived themselves to be as a teacher professional.

20 While these early teaching experiences were formative to teacher professional identity, often helping to shape commitments that teachers held once they entered the profession, they are included here and not in a discussion of professional practice because teaching as a profession was considered to be distinct in role, number of students served and professional commitment from pre-professional roles such as tutoring, mentoring and even student teaching by teachers themselves in their discussion of these positions to me.

21 See explanation of term from Lortie (1975) in chapter 1 (p. 9)
between their observations of teachers as students and their later professional identities in response to those teaching models.

In interview data, Emily cited her personal connection with teachers as promoting her love of literature and influencing her decision to become a teacher (9/18/09: 2-6). In describing her own perception of good teaching, she highlighted the characteristics which she observed from her best student experiences:

For me, the teachers that I thought were good teachers were teachers who had time, who were willing to make time for their students, but who also had strong backgrounds in the material they were teaching and a passion for that material and a genuine interest in sharing their love for the material with other people and I feel like, the teachers who I didn’t like were ones who, for the most part, didn’t seem to care about the subject they were teaching, else the people they were teaching and I feel like if either of those elements were lacking—that would be a teacher that just wouldn’t work for me because if they cared a lot about their subject but didn’t care about me actually learning it, I’d think, “Well, you don’t really care, because if you really cared, you’d want everyone to know about how great this poem is.” (9/19/09: 208-216)

Emily drew from her own experience as a student to create a definition of good teachers as those who cared both about subject matter and about students. She recalled her own perceptions of teachers truly caring only if they were interested in both what they were teaching and who they were teaching.

This model became central Emily’s own professional practice. Emily’s belief in establishing personal connections with students while helping them to develop a deeper appreciation for English as a subject matter was demonstrated in her choice of inquiry topics. In both years of her inquiry, Emily focused on exploring the connection between students’ personal investment and academic progress in her class. Through her inquiry projects, she sought to better understand how she could connect with students and their interests to engage them with the literature based curriculum. Emily also cited her ability to connect with students around literature to be one of her strengths as a teacher (9/18/09: 84-87).

Emily noted explicitly that the way she was taught had provided her with both positive and negative models of teaching. She found herself often referring to these models in her professional practice. In response to the question, “What made you the teacher you are today?” Emily responded:

Well, let’s see, going way back, my own experiences being taught shaped me, both in thinking about the teacher I wanted to be and the teacher I did not want to be and having some teachers who I just couldn’t stand and who I felt were horrible teachers, but then I also find myself sometimes in the position of explaining something poorly and I’m thinking, “If I were in my class right now, I’d be thinking, ‘I should be teaching this lesson. I could be explaining this so much better.’” I remember being that kid so often in my own education. (9/18/09: 100-105)

Emily, in reflecting upon her own experience as a student, noted that once in the position of teacher, she could see elements of her practice that mirrored both the positive and negative models of teaching that she had encountered. In her statement, Emily seemed to express
empathy for teachers she may have previously considered poor teachers. Throughout her interview data, Emily focused on how positive early experiences with education had shaped her perception of her own teaching and established models that she now emulated in terms of the sphere of classroom practice. Here, she acknowledged that negative models of classroom teachers had shaped her professional practice as well, particularly in pushing her to be more clear in her explanations and instructional practice with students.

Isa also used her former teachers as a point of comparison in discussing her own teacher professional identity. While she had been a successful student at Goody High herself, Isa characterized her observations of her former teachers as helpful in providing models of teaching that she did not feel would be effective for “most students”:

I don’t feel like I teach any way similar to the way that I was taught. I think I realized really early that the way I learned was largely independently—I don’t remember, in particular, doing anything in class that kinda guided me, so I knew that probably that way of teaching wasn’t going to work for most students, so that was, so that’s actually what made it more challenging—I felt like I always was creating something new because I didn’t have anything to go on…even configuration. I had a class in this room and I just remember how different it looked—like the teacher’s desk was right in front of the white board and all the desks were just facing the board and I knew, I remembered I sat somewhere on one side and I remembered just not paying attention at all; I was just stuck in this corner talking to people, and then at the very end, look up and see what the assignment was and then do it at home later and bring it back. So, I knew that kind of configuration wouldn’t work. (9/25/09: 54-64)

Isa drew from memories of her own lack of engagement as a student to create models of teaching that she did not want to emulate. Isa, citing her own style of learning as “largely independent,” recognized that, while she would look at an assignment, “do it at home later and bring it back,” this type of classroom “wasn’t going to work for most students.” Her sense that her own teachers had not done much to engage her as a student fueled her own commitment to creating a different type of environment for her own students when she returned to her alma mater. Isa deliberately chose to teach in a way that would guide students and help promote their engagement in the classroom rather than rely on the students themselves to be independent learners as she had been.

Isa and Emily’s experiences as students were reflective of the ways in which individual experiences as students could be formative to perspectives that teachers took in their own professional identities in relation to classroom practice and their sense-making about their roles on site. Emily’s student experiences provided both strong and weak professional models that helped her to determine the type of teacher she wanted to be, emulating some of the characteristics of the “good teachers” in her experience. In contrast, Isa highlighted the way in which her student experiences had left her without a professional model that she wished to emulate. Isa did, however, source a part of her professional identity from her student experiences, responding to them in ways that revealed the professional commitments that she found lacking on the part of her former teachers.

The relationship between pre-professional practice and professional commitments. A second influential experience for several teachers in the focal group was pre-professional teaching experience in which teachers worked within or partnered with educational
organizations to further student learning, including tutoring, mentoring or facilitating. These types of experiences were often central in shaping core commitments that were foundational to teacher professional identity. Both Beth and Annie cited pre-professional teaching experiences which were important to their professional commitments. In both cases, relationships with students during pre-professional practice affected a later perspective on the importance of teacher-student relationships in their teaching careers.

Beth referred several times to her pre-professional experience with Upward Bound as instilling in her both a passion for students and a passion for education that would lead to their eventual academic success (9/22/09: 2-7). Beth also claimed that knowing the Upward Bound students, their stories and their situations, in individual ways, pushed her to realize the purpose behind her teaching (9/22/09: 64-66). Beth’s commitment to establishing personal relationships with students around advocacy and the establishment of an academic identity were strong elements of her professional identity that could be linked to these early experiences with Upward Bound. The investigation of academic identity construction became the subject of her inquiry project and emerged several times in her interview data. Beth’s pre-professional experience provided the foundation for her stance toward students, one which she felt was particularly important both at Goody High and in urban schooling environments in general.

Annie similarly had early tutoring experiences at both the middle and high school levels that were formative in instilling her commitment to her students. In her experience with mentoring high school students who were applying for college, Annie recognized the importance of writing as a potential gatekeeper for students in their pursuit of higher education, leading to her subject area focus:

I finally knew I wanted to teach English after I mentored high school students—I had been with them for a few years, and by their senior year when they were applying for colleges, I just realized, there was so much that they were struggling with in terms of their writing, and what made me so sad about that situation was, because I spent so much time with them outside of school, I knew that they would be a great asset to whatever school they went to. That school would be so lucky to have that student, and yet, when you looked at their writing, it wasn’t a true representation of that person, and then I went, “Okay, then I want to do something with Writing” and then English came naturally after that. (9/12/09; 14-20)

For Annie, as for Beth, her personal relationship with students, one that was critical in her mentoring role, helped reveal to her ways in which students had been underprepared in their educational readiness for college. Her individual experience with students in her mentoring role led Annie to her belief that a focus on academic skills (particularly writing) would enable students to exhibit their college-going potential to prospective schools. She then stated that it was her commitment to helping students develop writing skills that would allow them to accurately portray themselves as assets to prospective colleges that influenced her choice of subject matter and directly impacted one type of knowledge on which she focused in her classroom practice. Academic language and writing also became a central factor in her year 2

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22 Upward Bound is a university-school partnership that targets prospective first generation college students with academic support and support with college entry requirements beginning in their sophomore year of high school.
inquiry which focused on effective instruction to scaffold essay preparation for her Advanced Placement students.

For all focal teachers, some type of pre-professional educational experience was cited as influential to later aspects of professional identity. In the cases I have chosen to examine here, Emily and Isa drew models of teaching from their experiences as students to shape core professional commitments. Beth and Annie honored commitments first established in their pre-professional mentoring or facilitating roles as part of their teacher professional identities. These examples were consistent with references made by other focal teachers in the data set to student or pre-professional experiences with education that had affected their professional identities. As in the cases discussed above, pre-professional experiences shaped beliefs and values teachers held in relation to their own teaching, as well as the ways in which they later constructed their classroom practices to honor their professional commitments.

Classroom Practice: The Active Construction and Representation of a Professional Identity
The second central area that focal teachers referenced as a source of their professional identities was classroom practice. The classroom was the primary space in which teachers enacted their professional identities. However, it was also a source of professional identity in that teachers anchored their beliefs, values and commitments to aspects of classroom practice, including curriculum, instruction and practice, choosing examples from practice to illustrate and articulate their professional identities.

Curriculum: the content area connection to professional identity.
Curriculum is the first core aspect of classroom practice. In examining this area, I demonstrate how the focal teachers connected content-area or subject matter knowledge to their professional identities. This aspect of classroom practice includes references to the value associated with individual content-area knowledge as well as the beliefs, values and commitments specifically related to content area instruction and curricular design. Curriculum further encompasses a commonly expressed belief in the importance of individual content knowledge (i.e. teacher content knowledge) in constructing a part of one’s teacher professional identity. Choices made by focal teachers, in relation to literature and writing, reflected and helped to identify commitments central to their professional identities.

The importance of content area in the construction of professional identity.
Teachers commonly referenced individual content area knowledge in English as a foundational part of teacher professional identity. In their teacher professional identity interviews, both Annie and Duc explicitly stated that teachers needed to have knowledge of their content area in order to be effective (Annie 9/12/09: 137-138; Duc 10/27/09: 284-285), a sentiment echoed in many ways by the focal teachers throughout the data set.

Knowledge of literature and literary analysis was one of the aspects of content area knowledge particularly important to the identities of the focal teachers. James stated that his love of literature influenced his personal decision to become an English teacher: “I really love analyzing and discussing the literature—I mean that’s why I’m an English teacher” (9/22/09: 134-135). In this interview excerpt, James constituted his love for literature as central to his professional identity. Who James saw himself to be as an English teacher was firmly anchored in an affinity for discussion and analysis of literature.
Emily shared James’ love for literature and cited understanding literature as a particularly important strength of hers: “I think that I have a pretty strong grasp of the content that I’m supposed to be teaching—Yeah, I think that a lot of the students have actually talked to me about that too, that that’s something that particularly brings them to discuss their class issues with me, is because I’ve got a clear command of English and literature.” (9/18/09; 84-87). Emily here highlighted her knowledge of literature as central to her practice and how she viewed her role as a teacher. Emily’s knowledge of literature allowed her to honor her commitment to establishing relationships with students around literature, supporting her belief in the importance of a love for both students and subject matter.

While English as a content area and subject matter came up in each of the focal teacher’s professional identity interviews, most references were not specifically to teacher knowledge of subject matter; rather, teachers privileged the knowledge of particular types of subject matter central to their instructional practice. Such curricular references played an important part in inquiry meetings, accounting for 22% of all beginning of meeting sharing by teachers in the group, with Molly and Emily referring to subject matter in over one-third of their initial sharing check-ins. In these references, particular values emerged as important, namely those related to the choice of literature and the knowledge of writing and language use as academic skills with socio-cultural and academic implications.

**Literature choice as connected to teacher professional identity.**

Beyond an emphasis on the importance of understanding literature in relation to content knowledge, literature was also connected to professional identity in terms of teacher choice of curriculum. Teachers’ choices of literature to meet instructional goals reflected underlying values and beliefs specific to their professional identities.

Beth highlighted the way in which literature and her uses of various types of literature, including young adult fiction and canonical works, allowed her to support establishing students’ personal and academic identities (9/18/09; 120-129). Beth’s inquiry project also studied the way literature and theme could help empower students to engage with academics in ways related to their identities as students (Beth Year 2 Final reflection). In this way, Beth’s choices of literature supported her beliefs in particular forms of literature as powerful means to engage with and connect with students’ personal and academic identities. In discussing these choices of literature, Beth was able to construct her identity as a teacher who was interested in connecting to students through her curriculum and also a teacher who valued student engagement as central to learning.

Choice of literature also was a central feature of a text-based discussion which occurred during year 2 of the study (11/13/08) related to cultural funds of knowledge (Risko & Walker-Dalhouse, 2007). This discussion focused on the importance of bringing different types of literature (young adult, canonical, culturally diverse) into the classroom that reflected the diversity of literature and the diversity of the classroom that existed. Emily, James, Beth and Isa all emphasized the choice of literature during this discussion. Each of these teachers noted how their choice of literature revealed aspects of their professional identity as connected with values they placed on students learning from culturally relevant texts, canonical texts that they might not otherwise be exposed to, and multicultural texts which presented differing perspectives on important themes.

In this discussion, Isa noted that choice of literature in interaction with cultural identity was critical for her in establishing trust and credibility with students:
What struck me is that a lot of bringing in other aspects and other cultural readings does more for trust issues, I feel like, because it, and I don’t know; I’m making assumptions, because I don’t know what it’s like to be a teacher of students of color not being a person of color, but I’m assuming, just my observing my student teacher there was a big trust issue about whether or not she cared about what they were and I feel like it’s the opposite with me—we just did a unit with all these different works by people of color and I had two students come up to me after school and ask me, “Why are we reading all of these? I want to read…” like basically saying, they wanted to read white authors and I felt like the same way, when I was in school and people were giving me that, I was like, “Okay, I know how to read this—I need to know what I don’t know how to read,” and I feel like I needed that other part, so I don’t know if bringing in cultural works is so much for bridging the gap as far as academics, but I feel like, it’s an issue of establishing trust in the classroom. (11/13/08: 178-191)

Isa used this discussion of literature to position herself as a cultural insider, drawing upon her own experience as a student of color and her experience as a teacher of color teaching students of color as crucial components of her professional identity. Isa contrasted her experiences as a teacher of color with those of her student teacher, who was white. When Isa’s student teacher chose to teach a standard canonical text, students questioned whether the student teacher was able to relate to their culture, whereas when Isa chose to teach a unit of literature with mainly authors of color, some students of color approached her to ask why they were reading authors of color rather than standard texts by white authors, with which they felt less experienced. Isa interpreted this as an issue of culture and positioning in relation to her culture and that of her student teacher for her students. This interpretation then caused Isa to examine her beliefs, values, and practice in terms of literature choice and value for students through this lens of cultural location. In this way, the importance of literature choice in the classroom was a means by which Isa constructed her professional identity as a teacher of color who was seen as both a cultural insider and as a teacher responsible for exposing students to “gatekeeper” texts that they might not otherwise read.

**Emphasizing academic language as connected to professional identity.**

A second form of privileged instructional content knowledge was written and spoken academic language. In both written and oral form, academic language was acknowledged as a skill and tool for students, with focal teachers demonstrating an awareness of socio-cultural and academic implications of particular forms of writing and language use. In other words, academic language was not emphasized because of its correctness or inherent better nature in relation to other language registers, but because of the social implications around the use of particular “standard” and “non-standard” language forms, which teachers in the group referred to as “Community English.” In their emphasis on academic language, teachers saw themselves as not only acknowledging the linguistic practices of students outside of the classroom, but giving students tools which would enable them to be more academically successful.

In addition to a discussion of literature choice, an emphasis on academic language in content area instruction emerged during the text-based discussion of cultural funds of knowledge. During this discussion, Annie spoke about teaching the difference between “Community English” (the language that students use outside of the classroom in community situations) and “Standard English” (academic language of the classroom) to her students and
explicitly instructing students in informed choice of language according to situational settings, focusing in the classroom on the development of “Standard English,” particularly for expression in writing (11/13/08: 29-45). Duc similarly referred to this practice of code-switching by genre as important knowledge in helping students move from informal persuasive letters to more formal persuasive essay writing, helping students to consider audience in their writing (11/13/08:47-52). Finally, Emily talked about how memoir and biographical narrative can be powerful forms of academic writing that established connections between a students’ personal and academic identities (11/13/08: 87-99). The multiple references to knowledge around writing, language use and culture that arose in this single meeting demonstrated a focus on the importance of academic language as well as an awareness and acknowledgment of cultural implications. The teachers who spoke during this particular discussion espoused the value of additive identity, or asking students to take on an academic identity through their language that did not replace the culture they brought into the classroom, but allowed it to speak more broadly to an audience.

The curricular emphasis on teaching writing and language use as an academic skill, with socio-cultural and academic implications extended far beyond a single discussion. In both her inquiries, Emily focused on specific writing structures in her classroom that she implemented to support a connection to theme or self through writing (Emily Year 1/Year 2 Final Reflection). Academic writing and identity also figured heavily into the inquiry studies of Beth, Isa and Annie in year 2 of the study. All three of these teachers emphasized for student the importance of communicating their valuable ideas to multiple communities through engaging in academic discourse. Molly focused on the importance of correct language use as an academic skill in her teaching. He noted that he sought to help students to go beyond the immediate demands of the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) and prepare them for success in community college and at the university level (9/22/09: 100-108). For these teachers, supporting the development of academic language was an instrumental part of their teacher professional identity in allowing them to see themselves as teachers who promoted access to greater academic achievement through an explicit focus on the language.

Curricular design and teacher professional identity.

While the content of curriculum clearly reflected values and beliefs of the focal teachers, discourse around the process of curricular design further revealed aspects of teachers’ professional identities. Molly and Isa emphasized the importance of knowing one’s educational goals in relation to curricular planning, as an aspect important to their teacher professional identities. When asked what made a good teacher, Molly stated: “[A good teacher is] goal oriented: strong lesson and unit planning–knowing the goals and purpose behind every lesson and how it relates to the bigger class and year-long goals” (9/09: 38-39). This comment reflected her belief in the importance of curricular planning tied to larger goals of the classroom and the centrality of strong curriculum to good teaching. Similarly, Isa highlighted goal-based learning as a strength of her teaching, reflecting her belief in cohesive, goal-aligned curricular planning: “I think I have clear goals for everything that I teach in the class and so I know how to tell students where it fits together in their overall learning” (5/09; 46-47). Annie and Beth also used their inquiry findings to examine their curriculum and tie their instruction to specific goals that were made explicit to students (Annie Year 1 Final Reflection; p. 5; Beth Year 2 Final
Reflection, p. 2). In all of these cases, teachers expressed a belief in goal-oriented curricular design which allowed for more cohesive and coherent instruction.

The goal of cohesive, coherent curriculum was echoed even by teachers who felt this was an area for development in terms of their own classroom practice. Both James and Emily mentioned the importance of curricular design that would remain effective for students throughout the year. For both, this was an area they saw for improving their practice. James stated twice that while his first semester curriculum went well, his curriculum in the second semester felt less effective for students, particularly in moving beyond the basic instruction that worked well in the early part of the year. James indicated his desire to improve on long-term planning that would move students beyond the basic skills and formulaic writing that he felt dissatisfied with (9/22/09: 77-78; 112-116).

Emily also noted a desire to become more effective in curricular planning. “I feel like something that I’m getting better at, but need to continue working at is the progression throughout the year, from lesson to lesson and unit to unit and making that really flow in a way that not only makes sense to me, but makes sense to my students. I think that tied in with that, I need to just be more explicit with my students about what I’m teaching them and why.” (9/18/09: 93-97). In this excerpt, Emily highlighted the importance of planning in a clear progression aligned with her goals for her students’ learning as well as the importance of being explicit about those goals with students. James and Emily both emphasized the importance of being able to effectively plan and map out curriculum that would allow them to achieve goals for student learning, a clear value among the focal group.

In the case of content area and curricular design, teacher discourse about choices to be English teachers, to teach particular types of literature, to emphasize academic language, and to have clear curricular goals in their classrooms were closely connected to their professional identities. Teachers, by anchoring their view of themselves in classroom practice, revealed central aspects of their professional identities, including the ways that they saw themselves or desired to be seen as “English teachers,” “Literature teachers,” “teachers who prioritized the importance of student experience in the classroom,” “teachers who understood the implications of particular forms of language for students,” or “teachers who had clear curricular goals.” Classroom practice became a source of teachers’ professional identities in allowing them to characterize themselves through and in regards to their practice.

**Instruction: the delivery of content in relation to teacher professional identity.**

The second core aspect of classroom practice that arose from the data set as important to the focal group was the importance of instruction. Like curriculum, instruction was a focus for teachers in their beginning of meeting shares that were often based in practice. Instructional references constituted 20% of individual shares during the beginning of meeting check-in and sharing time, nearly the same number of references as content based references. Instruction was closely connected with curriculum, as curricular planning necessarily encompassed both content and methods of delivery, or instruction. However, in this examination of instruction, I focus on the goals of instructional practices cited by focal teachers which allowed them to constitute their professional identities in particular ways.

Several focal teachers, including Duc and Isa, spoke about their professional identities in relation to being teachers who sought to give access to a greater number of students through their instructional practices.
For Duc, examining how he could give greater access to his special education students was a central focus of his inquiry (Duc, Year 1 Final Reflection). Multiple points of access to curriculum and types of activities also came up in Duc’s Professional Identity interview, conducted early in his second year of practice, where he described improvements to his practice:

So, as a 2nd year teacher, I find myself really looking at my units and really starting to ask myself, “Can this be done better?” “How can it be done better?” I’m thinking of more ways to do the same things. My first year, I just took the worksheets and handouts that teachers gave me and I just kinda did it as a survival tactic. This year, I’m using technology a lot more; I’m thinking of different ways I can get the same point across; I’m showing videos; I’m having the kids not just work off of handouts if I can help it; those are still a part of my curriculum, of course, but I feel like I’m giving them a bigger variety and I’m hitting on a lot more of the modalities that students learn on (10/27/09: 99-106)

Here, Duc equated development in teaching with giving students greater access to curriculum through varied forms of instruction, including technology and film. While he had not completely abandoned more traditional forms of instructions, like worksheets and handouts, he noted the greater richness of his practice through using more varied curriculum. He connected this richer practice to giving greater access to students through engaging more learning styles or modalities. Duc then related this to his identity as a “2nd year teacher” or one who had moved from a state of survival to focus on strengthening his practice through integrating new practices.

Isa, in both an inquiry meeting data protocol (2/5/09) and her year two findings (Isa Year 2 Final reflection, p. 3) also emphasized the importance of different activities to engage the greatest number of students and to meet the multiple purposes and goals of the class. While Isa’s main focus was on student preparation for the academically rigorous AP exam, she did not want to limit her assessment of students’ learning to this particular measure as a singular goal. This commitment to multiple forms of assessment was based partly on her findings from her Year 1 inquiry where she noted how an over-focus on academic skills without a consideration of personal values could be problematic. Rather, Isa thought carefully about the ways that many activities were able to engage different students in the classroom, including those who did not go on to take the AP exam, giving students of varying academic achievement access to the central themes of the course. In her conclusions about her data, in Year 2, Isa explicitly spoke to the fact that different activities engaged different students, highlighting the importance of varying the curriculum in order to expand access. In her follow up interview, she stated that her practice was a constant evolution of “trying to figure out what works” with each new group of students, thinking about everything that needs to get covered in curriculum and attempting to reach the greatest number of students (9/25/09: 182-187).

For all of the focal teachers, engagement and access were core values held in relation to instructional practice, particularly for students who might not traditionally have participated in a classroom setting. I have used examples from the inquiry projects and discourse of Duc and Isa to illustrate the ways that these values were connected with aspects of professional identity.

**Beliefs about teacher-student relationships important to professional identity.**

Teacher-student interactions were prevalent in beginning of meeting sharing, with 21% of these check-ins focused specifically on teacher-student relationships, and many others referring
to roles that teachers played outside of their classroom that expanded their relationships with their students in different ways. The importance of the teacher-student relationship to focal teachers’ understandings of their professional identity was cited throughout the data and has occurred throughout this chapter in its intersections with other sources of professional identity. Teacher-student relationships extended beyond academics for many teachers, as several focal teachers referred to the importance of personal relationships and investments in students as core principle to their professional identities. The importance of respecting student identities outside of the classroom and establishing a bridge which allowed the integration of personal and academic identities was also a key value important to the professional identities of many focal teachers. In this discussion of teacher-student relationships, I focus on the way that these two aspects of teacher-student relationships were connected with professional identity.

A personal investment in students.

Emily characterized her personal investment in students through using the word “love”. Emily began her definition of a good teacher by saying that a good teacher her be willing to love and connect with their students in addition to seeking to promote a love of literature for them (9/18/09: 207-208). For Emily, the investment that teachers make in students and in their learning allows students to develop a love of literature in an environment where they felt supported, both personally and academically. The investment in students and in content area learning were interconnected and equally important in Emily’s perception of good teaching and core to her professional identity.

For Beth, personal investment and caring for students came not in the form of love, but in the form of support and advocacy. She noted, in reference to both her entry into the profession and her inquiry project that her goal in her teaching was to “support students and help them find themselves through education…finding their student identity” (9/22/09:33-36). She showed her support for students outside of her classroom through her involvement in school activities, such as advising a club, coaching the girls’ soccer team and sponsoring afterschool football team tutoring in her classroom. She also actively advocated on behalf of many of her students with the administration and other teachers she felt had unfairly labeled them without acknowledging the possibility of individual change. However, most clearly, Beth took the role of advocate and support of students within her classroom, the space in which she noted that she had the most control of the environment students participated in (9/22/09: 38-41). In her classroom, Beth sought to create a space where students were respected, pushed academically and supported. For Beth, the roles of support, involvement and advocacy were central to her professional identity.

Duc based his inquiry project on the importance of a personal investment and connection with three focal students (who had Individualized Education Plans or Special Needs) who also aimed to support their learning and participation in the classroom (Year 2 Final Reflection). For Duc, the impetus for this project came through a strong personal connection with Kai, one of the three focal students in his inquiry. The initial connection that Duc and Kai had through discussing video games and sports during lunches that Kai might spend in Duc’s classroom did not result in Kai’s success in Duc’s class, but did prompt Duc to look at how he might explore the personal connection he had with Kai to promote his academic development through coaches sports like tennis (Duc), soccer (Beth) and dance (Isa). Emily advised Journalism. James played video games with some students after school. Isa, Annie and Beth offered formalized tutoring/study hall in their classes on a weekly basis.

Among the focal teachers, some coached sports like tennis (Duc), soccer (Beth) and dance (Isa). Emily advised Journalism. James played video games with some students after school. Isa, Annie and Beth offered formalized tutoring/study hall in their classes on a weekly basis.

23 Among the focal teachers, some coached sports like tennis (Duc), soccer (Beth) and dance (Isa). Emily advised Journalism. James played video games with some students after school. Isa, Annie and Beth offered formalized tutoring/study hall in their classes on a weekly basis.
individual conferences (Year 2 Final Presentation, 5/9/09). Duc also emphasized the importance of teacher passion as an essential characteristic of teacher professionalism, particularly in urban settings. He felt that his passion for both education and students allowed him to make it through the rigors of first year teaching in an environment that often felt isolating and overwhelming (10/27/09: 300-311). For Duc, the importance of the teacher-student relationship and the personal connection to the importance of education itself were central in his professional identity, allowing him to connect to the reasons that he became a teacher and his role in the lives of his students.

There are multiple additional references by the focal teachers communicating the importance of personal investment in the teacher-student relationship dimension of classroom practice. These excerpts from Emily, Beth and Duc illustrate the value placed on caring for students in varying ways in the focal group and how these values are intrinsic to their professional identity. In the focal group, the view of oneself as a teacher who cared about students was both reflected in teacher practice and emerged from teacher practice as a central aspect of professional identity.

**Respecting what students bring to the classroom.**

The value placed on respecting students’ identities and cultures which they brought to the classroom as individuals was another important part of the teacher-student dynamic. Teachers varied in their perceptions and understandings of student identities and cultures. However, each of them saw him or herself as a teacher who valued student culture and what students brought to the classroom. Evidence of the value of student culture and experience could be seen in relation to literature choices by Beth and Isa that reflected the cultures of students in the classroom, writing assignments by Beth and Emily that integrated personal experiences and culture with academic assessments and writing, and the way in which teachers drew on shared experiences to teach new skills and concepts (Annie classroom observation 4/2/09). In each of these cases, focal teachers sought to bridge students’ personal identities and cultures with the academic demands of the classroom. Being a teacher who brought in elements of students’ experiences as a tool for learning was central to the professional identities of many if not all of the focal teachers.

**Classroom practice as integration and expression of professional identity.**

Analysis of classroom practice as a source of teacher professional identity was highly complex for several reasons. Although classroom practice was a central focus and aspect of teacher professional identity, classroom practice seemed initially to be a reflection of teacher professional identity rather than a source of it. However, in this section I have argued that teachers did draw their professional identity from their classroom practice, using examples from practice to illustrate and construct central beliefs, values and commitments that made up their professional identities. Classroom practice is a complex domain of teacher professional identity because curriculum, instruction, and teacher-student relationships were highly intertwined and it became difficult to discuss each as distinct elements of teacher professional identity when often there were several beliefs, values and commitments of professional identity at the heart of teachers’ professional choices, however, when taken as a whole, it is clear that much of professional identity intersects with a teacher’s classroom practice.

**External Teaching-Related Discourses as Sources of Professional Identity**
The final main source through which focal teachers constituted their professional identities was in their interactions with external teaching-related discourses. Teachers’ interactions with these external teaching-related discourses were bidirectional, in that they responded to these sources as a means of constituting their professional identity, but they also hoped that their professional identities would in some way impact these discourses related to teaching. These interactions informed and reflected beliefs, values and commitments of the focal teachers. Through various levels and types of discourse which sourced teacher professional identity in the focal group, focal teachers constituted aspects of their professional identity in response to these external teaching-related discourses, often seeking to influence these discourses through practice reflecting their beliefs, values and commitments.

**Referring to the work of others: theory and practice.**

Throughout their participation in the focal inquiry group, the work of others was highly influential on establishing core beliefs, values and commitments of many of the focal teachers. References to the work of others came through references to both theory and the classroom practice of other teachers.²⁴

**Connecting professional identity with empirical and theoretical work.**

The work of others was referred to, in relation to teacher professional identity, when a larger theoretical framework was used to situate, illustrate or articulate beliefs, values or practices that teachers held as part of their professional identities.

One example of the use of theory to situate professional identity can be seen by looking at Beth’s final reflection on her inquiry project. Beth framed her project on empowerment and students’ establishing an academic identity by connecting it to the earlier work of educational researcher James Cummings (1986). In her final reflection, she noted that the theoretical framework developed by Cummings that placed “strong emphasis on the empowerment of minority students mainly through analytical thinking skills that would become an engaging conversational dialogue between teacher and student” (Beth, 5/09, Final Reflection, p. 1) was similar to her focus in her curriculum development related to her inquiry project. Beth had come to the project with an idea that she wanted to empower her students and help them “to feel that they controlled their own destinies” (Final Reflection, p. 1). She used Cummings’ framework as a means of situating and drawing upon the work of others to guide her practice. For Beth, Cummings’ framework provided a way for her to conceptualize and situate her professional identity and her work in her classroom related to her inquiry project. Beth then sought to extend Cummings’ framework in her own context through the work of inquiry.

Isa and Rosie similarly cited the work of others, both colleagues and theoretical pieces which informed the work of their inquiry projects in their final reflections (Isa, 5/09; Rosie 5/08). In these three cases, theory was a framework that grounded teachers’ inquiries into their own practice and provided a point of departure from which they could situate central beliefs, values and commitments. This framework allowed them to connect their projects with underlying beliefs that they held as teacher professionals.

**External models of classroom practice through mentor curriculum and practice.**

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²⁴ The classroom practices of other teachers included references to the work of colleagues, mentors and the work of other teachers as cited from empirical studies of teaching.
The work of the focal teachers also often originated from the work of other practitioners. In these cases, focal teachers referred to models of classroom practice which strongly connected with their own central beliefs, often in ways that then directly impacted their classroom practice.

One clear example of this connection was the project/process at the center of Emily’s inquiry in her second year of practice. Emily had attended a professional development conference for English teachers early in her second year and had received mentoring from a local teacher who implemented a project called “The Personal Creed” project (Creger, 2008) that had students engage in a series of writings about their personal beliefs and values. From this workshop, Emily was inspired to adapt “The Personal Creed” project to her own classroom setting and investigate what happened for students in relation to their own sense of academic identity when they engaged in this personal examination of beliefs and values. Although she began with Creger’s framework, Emily spent much of her inquiry project looking at how to adapt this curriculum from a more suburban, high achieving setting where students completed most of the assignments in the project as homework, to her urban setting where very few students completed any homework and there were a high number of absences which affected the continuity of the project. In this case, Creger’s work (and initial project design) was directly adapted to Emily’s practice as it corresponded with her belief in the value of bringing in students’ personal and reflective writing into the classroom. In her adaptation of the work for her classroom setting, Emily further constituted her professional identity as a teacher who valued access to curriculum for all of her students.

Similarly, Annie and Isa’s classroom practice was directly influenced by the work of a mentor. In year 2 of the study, Annie and Isa began an Advanced Placement (AP) pipeline for their students within the Visual Arts Academy at Goody High. Annie and Isa both specifically highlighted the importance of having a model of practice in Joan Cone, a former instructor in their credential program, an experienced teacher and teacher researcher who had de-tracked AP classes at her own site. Not only had Cone introduced this idea in the credential program, she met with Annie and Isa in the summer prior to their pilot year of the program to give them a basic outline of her two year program which prepared students for the AP Literature and AP Language tests (Annie, 4/09: 40-43; Isa 1/08: 347-348). Following Cone’s model, Annie and Isa organized their curriculum to prepare students for the Literature exam before the Language exam, in contrast to most sites that prepared students in the reverse order. Annie and Isa also adapted Cone’s curriculum to include two years of preparation for Advanced Placement in the 9th and 10th grades, instruction that they termed “pre-AP” and to include all students in their academy not only students who asked to be in the course. Cone, who had begun her open AP class despite a site context which had previously required prerequisite courses for entry into AP courses, inspired Annie and Isa to honor their commitments to equal access to Advanced Placement courses for their students and their belief in the capacity of all students to be

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25 “The Personal Creed” project asked students to examine their core beliefs and values through multiple journal-like writing assignments throughout the year. At the end of the year, students chose several pieces to create a portfolio that articulated their “personal creed”.

26 Cone published regarding her work with her own classes both online Invalid source specified, and in text Invalid source specified, in collaboration with the Carnegie foundation.

27 Cone’s only admission requirement for her Advanced Placement course was student request, however, in the case of Annie and Isa, all students in the academy were automatically enrolled in their courses (as they were the only English teachers in the academy) and all students therefore received an “AP-prep” curriculum.
academically successful even in a site (and national) context that had not previously been successful in promoting the achievement of African American and Latino students.

Similar to Emily, the work of an outside practitioner inspired Annie and Isa, and they adapted it to their particular professional context. In the case of Annie and Isa, Cone’s work aligned with beliefs and values they held about the potential for college-level academic success for all students. For Emily, Creger’s work aligned with her belief in integrating student identity with academic writing. In both cases presented, the work of other practitioners provided an origin for work that reflected the beliefs, values and commitments of focal teachers in the study. The focal teachers adapted these practices in ways that further allowed them to honor their professional identities and commitments within their particular site context.

**Site context.**

The discourse of teaching present at the site itself was also a key external discourse connected with the establishment of professional identity. Teacher references to Goody High and contextual factors on the site shaped their sense of their professional identity. The teachers’ experiences as part of their shared site context contributed to their sense of themselves as professionals, particularly in terms of the type of teacher who they needed to be given their particular context. Experiences in similar or different site contexts also proved important to several teachers’ generalized sense of valuable characteristics of instructional practice or teacher-student relationships that were then important to their own teacher professional identities.

**Staff relations, resources and professional identity.**

One major shared factor in terms of site context was the effect of relationships with other site staff members on shaping the way teachers understood their roles and as important to constituting their core beliefs, values and commitments. The characterization of whole staff meetings as somewhat contentious, centered around certain veteran “power-players” and often unproductive, was fairly consistent. However, the way in which teachers experienced individual relationships with other staff members on site differed. While all teachers referred to interactions with other staff members as formative to their understandings about their own identities, their perspectives on the nature of staff relationships related to their professional identities in different ways.

Isa, for example, characterized her staff relations as largely supportive (9/25/09: 37-38). Returning to her alma mater to teach, many of the former staff remembered Isa as a good student and she felt that her transition to teaching at the site was positive, with no major issues (9/25/09: 46-51). When Isa had wanted to begin the “AP for All” pipeline with Annie, despite initial skepticism to the idea expressed by some colleagues, they did not meet with staff or administrative resistance in implementing this program (Annie, 5/09). Isa’s largely positive experience with other staff members (as well as her membership in the larger community of Lawndale) allowed her to construct an identity in the classroom focused around her sense of self as an insider. The “insider” aspect of her identity connected with the types of teacher-student relationships she was able to make and her curricular development, that was designed heavily around personal development and community. Isa’s comfort at the site helped her to feel that although other staff members did not share her particular beliefs, values and commitments, she could pursue them in an environment that honored her as a professional.

Although they did not have a strong prior identification with the staff and site, Annie, Rosie, Molly and James shared, to varying degrees, Isa’s positive characterizations of the site,
particularly in contrast to pre-professional teaching experiences at other sites. For all of the focal teachers who felt generally positive about relations particular to their site context, there was a sense that, while administrators were not particularly informed about their practice (a sentiment shared by all teachers) and while other teachers might not share their strong sense of values and beliefs in regard to their students or instruction, they were able to enact their own beliefs, values and practices within their site context and maintain their professional identities without experiencing direct challenge.

Beth’s perception of the site context provides a contrasting view. Beth characterized her experiences at Goody High with many other teachers and administrators as somewhat difficult. Beth was well-respected by her colleagues in the inquiry group and worked closely with a neighboring math teacher as part of a 9th grade house. However, for the most part when Beth spoke of other teachers and particularly of administrators on the site, her characterizations often expressed the sense of cross-purposes that she felt in relation to the site. Beth, in her professional identity interview, noted on three separate occasions, the ways that some administrators and other teachers “labeled” certain students, without seeing beyond behavior to a student’s potential to improve or strengths, giving up on students rather than giving them chances (9/22/09:16-29; 36-37; 96-100). Beth’s perception of many of her colleagues outside of the focal group reinforced her focus on advocacy and promoting student identity within her own classroom through her own active involvement with her students. Beth saw her own involvement with students as a way to counteract the labeling that students might experience outside of her classroom. In contrast to Isa and other focal teachers who felt that teachers on the site who did not share their beliefs did not greatly impact their individual practices, Beth felt strongly that many other teachers on site, through their beliefs about and practices toward students, actively created barriers for her students that she had to adapt her practice to overcome. Beth improvised an independent identity in opposition to this larger site discourse.

Duc and Emily also referenced difficulties in relation to feeling community at the site level outside of the focal group, and particularly in their relationships with administration. Both Duc and Emily had noted experiences in which the administration had not supported their practice as professionals in relation to and in front of their students (10/27/09: 246-270; 9/18/09: 64-71). Both teachers interpreted this lack of support as reflective of a general disregard of the importance of staff and students at the site and expressed concern that treating staff in this manner created an environment of distrust that negatively impacted students. Teachers who characterized site relations overall more negatively, noted the ways in which a lack of support undermined the goals for instruction and learning that they had for students (including support for classroom management and use of instructional facilities). In response to their perceptions of the site context, these teachers adapted their professional identities to reflect the beliefs, values and practices which they felt were essential to promoting student learning in ways that were either independent of connections to the rest of the staff or in ways that were highly selective of professional relationships at their site. These adaptations included thinking about management strategies which minimized the role of the administration and writing grants to allow for greater access to certain resources when the site limited such access.

Whether experiences with staff were positive or negative, teachers continued to enact their professional identities in ways consistent with their own beliefs, values and practices despite their view of site context. This enactment of identity was easier for teachers who felt less site resistance; however, all focal teachers drew upon the difference of their individual beliefs from those of many of their colleagues in constituting their professional identities. Many focal
teachers exhibited some form of agency in resistance to a normative status quo of the site. Some teachers, like Annie and Isa, were actively engaged in attempting to shift the site-context in particular ways (e.g. shifting perceptions of “Advanced Placement students”); others, like Beth, engaged in resistance by creating a distinct classroom space. In this way, the interaction with site context both informed and was informed by a strong sense of teacher professional identity on the part of focal participants.

**Collaboration and professional identity.**

Collaboration on the site informed and was informed by teacher professional identity, both generally and particularly in relation to the focal inquiry group. Most focal teachers valued collaboration as a part of teacher professional identity, particularly as it shaped knowledge and instructional practice in the classroom. For all teachers, participating in the focal inquiry group itself was an active attempt to shift the definition and opportunities for professional community, staff relations, and respect on the site.

While all focal teachers valued collaboration as a part of their professional identity, teachers viewed the level of and opportunities for collaboration differently on the site. Duc and Molly emphasized the importance of collaboration to their teacher professional identities, noting how Goody High was an environment in which they felt there had been multiple opportunities for collaboration and in which their colleagues had shaped their professional practice in multiple ways (Duc 10/27/09: 198-208; Molly 9/09: 32; 67). In contrast, Emily had been surprised, upon entering Goody High School, that there was not greater collaboration, particularly in terms of shared curriculum on site. 28 Emily struggled to think about ways that working with her department had connected to her classroom practice, but saw collegial interaction as something she wanted to further expand upon as part of her professional identity (9/18/09: 52-62; 114-119). In Duc, Molly and Emily’s references to collaboration, these teachers shared a belief in the importance of collaboration with like-minded colleagues as a way to continually grow as professionals and develop new ways of thinking, learning from the perspectives of their colleagues.

All of the teachers expressed the value of the inquiry group as a dedicated space to bringing colleagues together in collaboration (Year 1 Individual Exit Interview 5/08; Year 2 Group Exit Interview 5/09). Particularly for Beth, the notion of “camaraderie” that she found within the collaborative inquiry group was distinct from her larger experiences of site context and allowed her to feel more confidence in her practice:

> I think it’s hard at our school, I mean, we all know that it’s hard, because it is so big, that there are lots of different viewpoints and ways of thinking [about equity in classroom practice] –that their way is the best way and all those sorts of ideas, but I think for me, [participating in the inquiry group] gave me a sense of having that camaraderie, like having that confidence to go back out and talk to people about it. I mean, I work, and one of my closest colleagues is in the math department and her and I did a lot of cross-curricular stuff this year, and I took a lot of what I did in [the inquiry group] and we implemented it together,

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28 Part of this disparity in relation to collaboration may have been due to Emily’s location in the portable classroom far from the main building, whereas all the other focal teachers were located in the main building, in relative proximity to one another.
so I have that kind of, but in taking it beyond that, it’s a struggle I think, at our school specifically. (Beth: GHS Group Exit Interview: 74-80)

Beth’s comments about collaboration supported her general notions about a lack of staff support on-site; however, she noted that the inquiry group served as an alternative space promoting collaborative conversation, camaraderie and support. Beth highlighted the space of the inquiry group as one that supported her professional identity in allowing her to feel part of a professional community, gain confidence in herself as a teacher through the practices shared in the group, and sustain her professional commitments. She took this spirit of collaboration into her work with a close colleague, emphasizing the importance of and desire for collaboration as part of Beth’s professional identity.

Finding like-minded individuals on the site with whom they could collaborate was important to focal teachers’ professional identities. The focal teachers each displayed this commitment in their practice by pairing with at least one other teacher on site to collaborate around curriculum and instruction. Collaboration (both inside the inquiry group and in more informal ways) allowed teachers to share and develop ideas and curriculum for classroom practice and reflect on their practice in ways that pushed their growth. Further, collaboration shaped the focal teachers’ practice in that they were sharing and thinking about curriculum together and their professional identities in the workplace.

Goody High provided a particular environment in which teachers needed a strong sense of agency to maintain beliefs in their own professionalism and the importance of their work. The larger site discourse related to teaching at Goody High was one which, for most of the focal teachers, did not correspond to their own beliefs, values, and commitments. However, the focal teachers constituted their identities in response to their site context. For many focal teachers, the site provided a context where they often felt disrespected or somewhat isolated in their practice. Several teachers felt that there were opportunities to collaborate with one or two like-minded colleagues; however, all felt that the majority of their colleagues (and particularly administration) did not share their beliefs about students. In the face of this challenging professional site context, teachers displayed strong agency in initiating programs in their academies or standards in their classrooms that challenged normative views of students. Further, they demonstrated their strong belief in collaborative opportunities by initiating or participating voluntarily in the focal inquiry group, which they characterized as a space for professional interaction and growth. Despite a site context with a teaching-related discourse, which encouraged isolated practice that maintained the status quo, the focal teachers constructed and maintained a strong sense of professional identity which challenged these norms.

**Local context: urbanicity and community shaping perceptions of students and professional identity.**

Another common way in which teachers engaged with external discourse related to teaching and learning was in response to the urban context in which the site was embedded. For many teachers, being in an urban context, particularly teaching in a large urban district like Lawndale, was central in the ways that they constituted their teacher professional identities. Urbanicity was the framework within which teachers shaped the focus of their classroom practice and the urgency with which they approached their commitment and their roles. In several cases, teachers actively worked to challenge dominant paradigms of “urban, underperforming” schools and students through initiating increased access to Advanced
Placement classes and advocating strongly for an academic identity. Further, urbanicity shaped teachers’ senses of themselves as they constituted beliefs, values and certain practices in relation to teaching in an urban school and in contrast to experiences or perceptions of what teaching might mean in non-urban environments. References to being an “urban school teacher” and considerations particular to places “like Lawndale” came up for every teacher in the study in some way. The paradigm of urbanicity was used by teachers as a framework to characterize the beliefs, values and practices important to their identities as being “urban” teachers.

One way in which the importance of being in an urban environment emerged was as a way to understand teachers’ beliefs in the need for advocacy and an active commitment to students. Annie constituted her underlying belief in students’ capacity to be academically successful as particularly important in an environment where teachers and students needed be ready for anything and advocate for themselves if they wanted to be successful. She specifically invoked this belief in relation to teaching in an urban environment, posing the rhetorical question during an interview about her practice, “Why would you want to go and teach in an urban school if you didn’t believe that students could do anything for themselves?” (5/7/09: 8-9). This belief pushed her to join with Isa in creating the Advanced Placement pipeline for her predominantly African American and Latino students who had not traditionally been successful in AP courses when leaving the academy. Annie’s active agency in creating an environment of high expectations for learning, both for herself as a teacher (by bringing Goody High into the teacher inquiry network) and for her students, came, in part, through the way she viewed her role as an “urban teacher” and the ways in which she felt it especially important for students in “urban environments” to have teachers with high expectations for their achievement.

Urbanicity was also a paradigm heavily invoked by Beth in connection with her practice. For Beth, education through sustained relationships was extremely important to “teaching in areas like Lawndale” because students in urban environments “need people who are going to work hard and care about them—build relationships that they’ve never really had before.” (9/22/09: 4-7). In this way, Beth constituted her professional identity as one of being a hard worker who cared about students. Beth later referred to the social issues of Lawndale as an external factor that she could not control, but which made the safety and comfort of her classroom imperative in allowing students “maybe not think about what’s going on outside” (9/22/09: 77-80). In the final inquiry meeting in year 2, Beth’s check-in centered on a student who had shown a lot of progress in the course of her class over the year, who had recently been arrested. Her awareness of the perceptions that would be placed on him and the ramifications were difficult for her to accept in light of her relationship with him as someone who had tried numerous times to not get caught up in the urban environment around him: “I told him, ‘You’re gonna go before them [the court]—they’re not going to see who you are. They’re going to see you as a typical Lawndale, African American male…’” (5/18/09). This sense of the urban environment as one which labeled students and failed to see their potential was central to Beth’s conviction that part of her role as a teacher was to create a distinct classroom environment. In her classroom, Beth worked hard to promote students’ academic identities and demonstrate her belief in their success. She also emphasized the importance of advocating for students outside her classroom as much as possible. As she stated in her professional identity interview:

What I’ve done is just kinda stick my neck out as far as I can to defend and support and help and then also worrying about what happens in my four walls, as much as I can have control
over—making sure that what I believe in is happening in my classroom because that, I feel like, is really what I can control and make sure happens. (9/22/09: 37-41)

In response to both a site and an urban environment that she felt failed to support and validate the potential of students, Beth saw her role as one of advocacy, support and creating a stable classroom environment. Beth used her belief about urban environments to guide her practice, but also attempted through her practice to make a difference for the urban youth she sought to serve. In this way, Beth’s perceptions of urbanicity, and the ways that it impacted her students’ lives, greatly connected to her belief in the importance of her own role as a teacher.

Duc also used urbanicity, particularly in relation to Lawndale itself, to situate his practice and his identity as a teacher professional. Duc felt that to be a successful “urban” teacher, he (and any teacher) needed to have a clear commitment to teaching and students, reflecting that the advice he would give to a new teacher entering Goody High was:

You really need to know [you want to be a teacher] because your resolve, your motivation, your drive is going to be tested maybe on an even daily basis your first year. Because I know myself, I wanted to be a teacher more than anything and I’m as idealistic as they come and I thought I really wanted to be here my first year, no doubt, but I found myself saying, “I’m going to quit” a lot and I thought to myself, “If I’m on the brink of quitting and I know how I am and how motivated I was, man, teachers coming in here with not as much, how are they going to survive and how are they going to be happy?” (10/27/09: 336-342)

In an urban environment, like Beth and Annie, Duc came to realize that he would need to use all of his resolve and passion for teaching in order to impact his students in a positive way. This led him to stay evenings until 7pm planning, investigate how to help students invest in being at school beyond as a place to gain academic skills, and seek to improve his skills of differentiation to give access to curriculum to a greater number of his students. His belief in the full commitment required of urban school teachers clearly shaped his practice as a new teacher professional and solidified his own identity as that of an urban school teacher.

In each of the focal teachers’ individual interviews, teachers referenced the relationship between their classroom practice and the urban environment in which it was embedded. Urbanicity affected how each teacher understood or constructed his/her role as part of teacher professional identity, often prompting teachers to take a more active role of support or advocacy as the perceived needs of their students were greater given the urban environment. In their active response to dominant notions or conditions of urbanicity which portrayed students in problematic ways or provided barriers to student learning, the focal teachers actively attempted to reconstruct the perceptions or environments of students in order to promote their success. In some instances, response to the conditions of urbanicity in Lawndale also required examining one’s own commitment to teaching in such a context. In this way, the relationship between urbanicity and teacher professional identity constituted an ongoing dialogic interaction for focal teachers.

State and national policy context: assessments, instruction and identity.
A final and, in some cases, highly authoritative form of teaching-related discourse that teachers cited as important in their establishment of a professional identity was the discourse related to high-stakes testing and assessment and its accompanying view of teaching and learning. Because teachers were at a Program Improvement site, for which restrictions on
curriculum and instruction were increasingly mandated, standardized testing had a direct impact on instruction and professional development at Goody High. The academic currency of other forms of assessment, such as Advanced Placement exams, was another way in which assessments informed professional identity. Instruction tied to assessment was an extremely complicated aspect of professional identity for the focal teachers. According to the perception of authenticity for teachers and value for students, teachers might constitute their identities in relation to a particular form of assessment and in resistance to another form of assessment. Additionally, instruction informed by assessment could be a reflection of values and beliefs that teachers held in relation to their professional identity or an indication of the impact that teachers were attempting to make through their practice.

The California High School Exit Exam: negotiating student needs and professional identity.

While teachers valued what they perceived to be more authentic forms of assessment that demonstrated student learning relative to their classroom instruction, for many students, particularly in the 10th and 12th grades, the most important assessment was the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE). Because all students are required to pass the CAHSEE in order to graduate, preparation for the exam became central to classroom practice for at least a month prior to its first administration in February of the 10th grade year at the virtual insistence of students. Teachers were explicit about the restrictive but necessary impact that this form of standardized testing had on their practice. While many of the focal teachers were frustrated with the emphasis and accountability pressures placed on them and their students by high stakes standardized tests, they also realized that some of these tests, particularly the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE), were important to and for their students. There was a value placed on instructional practice that prepared students for high stakes tests as a way of honoring what students valued in the classroom.

Annie’s year 1 inquiry project revealed the value which students placed on standardized testing. Students expressed their appreciation of high stakes testing “because it refocus[ed] them on their education and separate[d] those who really take their education seriously from those who [did] not” (Annie Year 1 Final reflection p.5), a finding that shocked Annie. While Annie did not agree with her students that the CAHSEE was an accurate measure of their learning, she did acknowledge its importance to them, celebrating with students when they received passing results (Annie Classroom Observation 3/31/09). Preparing for the CAHSEE also became an integrated part of her practice through daily warm-ups that embedded released test questions with materials directly related to classroom topics of instruction around literature and writing. While Annie felt that she should help students feel confident for a test which they valued highly, she did so, honoring her own beliefs about instruction which extended far beyond the basic skills on the test itself.

Emily noted the more direct ways in which the CAHSEE had affected her instruction and her students:

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29 The CAHSEE was particularly important in the 10th grade because it was first administered in this grade and school improvement data was based on the percentage of students who passed CAHSEE the first time. In the 12th grade, CAHSEE was important to students who had not passed as a major barrier to high school graduation.
With my 10th graders, the CAHSEE is such a big mental block for them that even if I didn’t spend a month or several weeks preparing them for it, I wouldn’t be able to teach much else because they’re so freaked out about it… I’ve had students start saying to me in early December, “What am I going to do about the CAHSEE? What am I going to do?” and “When are we going to start covering CAHSEE? When are we going to get ready for this?” and if I’m not doing that, they’re just thinking about that and resenting that they’re not getting prepared for it because it’s the only standardized test that most of them take in high school that actually matters to them and so being prepared for it is pretty important to them—so that’s definitely a big factor that affects my teaching because that takes a lot of time and I like to teach a lot of the CAHSEE stuff through a poetry unit because I think that’s a way that I can feel like is actually pedagogically sound rather than to spend time just drilling concepts because at the same time, I can have them doing stuff that is really valuable for their creative interaction with writing. (9/18/09: 174-185)

Emily’s students’ obsession with the CAHSEE and inability to focus on anything else but preparation for the CAHSEE made CAHSEE preparation a necessary part of her curriculum. She balanced this necessity by teaching CAHSEE skills through a poetry unit, which still allowed her to meet curricular goals important to her (i.e. authentic creative interaction with writing) while also meeting the needs of her students. While CAHSEE shaped Emily’s practice, she, like Annie, integrated preparation with her practice in a way that honored her own commitment to students and literature. In this way, Emily negotiated her own beliefs in relation to her students’ immediate needs in a way that allowed her to honor them and her love of literature, a theme in her professional identity.

James also noted the way CAHSEE shaped his instruction, particularly in terms of writing. James stated that he spent much of the school year teaching a basic and formulaic CAHSEE style essay in order to prepare students for the written component of the test. He found this to be effective for students on the test, but because he spent so much early instructional time reinforcing this format, he found it difficult to move students beyond this type of essay in his final two marking periods, after the CAHSEE had passed (9/22/09: 103-108).

James felt that the CAHSEE limited the way he taught. In one inquiry meeting, he stated that even though he was committed to using film regularly in his classroom (the subject of his inquiry), he was aware that doing it right before the CAHSEE would hurt his students “because they’re not going to be watching a film on the CAHSEE…[so] with the sophomores it seems like test taking strategies might be more important” (1/8/09: 477-480). James felt a clear sense of responsibility toward his students in helping them to be successful on this exam, despite his own reasons for becoming an English teacher, which largely were incongruous with standardized testing. In James’ case, he was forced to negotiate his own beliefs about the role of an English teacher with the external pressure of high stakes accountability testing and adapted his practice to these particular pressures.

The examples from Annie, Emily and James show ways in which teachers adapted their practice (and, in some cases, their professional identities) to honor the importance of the CAHSEE for students. Although all teachers felt that preparing students for the CAHSEE

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30 All of the teachers who emphasized standardized testing had taught 10th grade at some point, the grade in which the CAHSEE is first given to students. For other teachers, although references may have been made to testing in general, the centrality of testing and test preparation was not as clear.
shaped their practice in some ways, they felt varying degrees of limitation based on the way CAHSEE preparation was integrated into their instruction. For Annie, who embedded CAHSEE preparation as an ongoing warm-up activity that connected to elements of her own literature and writing goals, the CAHSEE seemed the least intrusive. Emily, who integrated CAHSEE preparation into a literature unit, felt that she honored students’ anxiety about test preparation while also honoring her commitment to instruction around literature. James, while feeling that he adequately prepared students for the CAHSEE, communicated the greatest level of restriction based on CAHSEE preparation. He saw the structured 5-paragraph format of CAHSEE writing as limiting for students and felt that he was not able to integrate teaching practices that he was committed to because of the necessity of preparing students for the test itself.

**Advanced Placement testing: educational equity and teacher professional identity.**

In contrast to the CAHSEE, the Advanced Placement examinations in English Language and Literature were held in high regard by certain focal teachers, as a more authentic external assessment which aligned with their own beliefs, values and provided a measure for the effectiveness of their instruction.

For teachers teaching Advanced Placement courses, aligning instruction to the final assessment was critical to ensuring success for students and challenging dominant paradigms of “urban students” and their lack of achievement. Teachers were willing to align their curriculum to the exams because they felt that the Advanced Placement tests followed a rigorous and fairly authentic model of assessment that would prepare students for the expectations of college. Passing the Advanced Placement test was a way for students to bypass remedial English courses in college and often obtain college credit. Traditionally regarded as a marker of college preparedness reserved for “honors” students, teachers were aware that Advanced Placement examinations held a great amount of academic currency for students in their access to college.

The importance of preparing students for the Advanced Placement tests was especially important in the year 2 inquiry projects for Annie and Isa, whose central focus question was: *What activities in English class engage students and prepare them to succeed on academically challenging assignments?* (Annie/Isa Final reflections p.2/p.1). By “academically challenging assignments,” Annie and Isa were referring specifically to Advanced Placement (AP) style essays. They designed and investigated the content and instructional aspects of their curriculum in order to examine how through instruction, they might help students attain the confidence and skills in academic writing necessary to be successful on such an examination. For Isa, this focus on preparing students for the AP exam actually was a factor in expanding her choice of content both in relation to her curriculum and her instructional practice. Isa made direct reference to modifications of curriculum: “I’m only reading these essays because they’re classic authors who would appear on the AP test, but it’s good because it’s opening my eyes to things—like I never read these authors before and probably, if it weren’t for these tests and things, I would probably never assign it.” (9/25/09: 136-138). She and Annie also spent their second year inquiry time focused on instruction and how they might scaffold analytical essay writing around literary theme, working with students to construct arguments with clearly developed thoughts that would align to the final assessment.

The AP test allowed Isa and Annie to look at their teaching through a broader lens. This examination led them to focus their curricular choices around this particular assessment, which they found to be rich and authentic, and shaped their instructional practices. While the AP test impacted Isa and Annie’s practices as teacher professionals, Annie and Isa also sought explicitly
to shape discourse around the possible success of urban students of color on rigorous national exams such as the Advanced Placement tests (5/09: 163-169). The dialogic nature of Annie and Isa’s interaction with the AP exam was important both in shaping practices central to their professional identities and in reflecting the beliefs and values they had in relation to their professional roles in relation to their students.

*Identity negotiated through discourse.*

Interaction with particular external teaching-related discourses was a way in which the focal teachers constituted and constructed their professional identities. Discourses present in theories, models of practice, site, local, state and national contexts in which teachers were embedded connected with how teachers saw themselves and their roles. Focal teachers engaged with these discourses and negotiated their professional identities in light of them. In the focal group, site, local and national contexts provided a way to develop a sense of professional identity in response to larger frameworks that extended beyond classroom practice. The dialogic interaction that took place in relation to external discourses provided opportunities for teachers to identify with or resist particular discourses as they constituted their identities in alignment or opposition to these discourses. Some teachers identified themselves as part of a larger educational community, as Goody High teachers or as urban school teachers, constructing and understanding their sense of their professional identity in relation to the discourses embedded in these contexts. Other teachers distanced themselves from these same discourses and constructed identities in response to discourses that they did not identify with. In either case, interaction with external teaching-related discourses sourced teachers’ perceptions of their professional identities and the expression of the beliefs, values and commitments that constituted them.

**The Complexity of Teacher Professional Identity**

This chapter has considered teacher professional identity construction in relation to three major sources: pre-professional experiences with education; classroom practice; and external teaching-related discourses. Each of these sources was important in informing, reflecting and helping focal teachers to develop aspects of their professional identities. However, each source was not equally important to each teacher. In the next chapter, I explore the way in which areas of emphasis led to distinct identity orientations among the focal teachers. By exploring these identity orientations, I will show that while identity is a complex individual phenomenon, there are also social characteristics of this phenomenon that are generally indicated according to emphasis on particular sources of professional identity.
Chapter 4
Professional Identity Orientations

In the last chapter, I identified three main sources from which teachers drew their professional identities: pre-professional educational experiences, classroom practice and external teaching-related discourses. Pre-professional educational experiences, including experiences as students or teaching experiences prior to entering teaching formally as a profession, provided models of teaching that several focal teachers cited as important to their sense of themselves as teacher professionals. Classroom practice helped teachers ground their identities in their everyday practices, as well as curricular and instructional choices which helped meet classroom-based goals. Finally, external teaching-related discourses, such as those found in theory, in interaction with colleagues, and in surrounding local and policy contexts, provided a framework within which teachers were able to situate their professional choices and professional identities in particular ways.

While each source contributed to each focal teacher’s professional identity, each teacher emphasized one of the three sources as a means of constituting his/her identity. The area of emphasis was the source which an individual teacher referenced most in connection with his/her professional identity during interviews, inquiry presentations and in feedback that he/she gave during inquiry meetings. For some teachers, areas of emphasis were clearly indicated, while others tended slightly toward one area, but placed great importance in a second area as well. According to area of emphasis, recognizable aspects of teacher professional identity emerged. In all, I found three distinct identity orientations: dialogically-oriented teachers; classroom-oriented teachers and individually-oriented teachers.

In this chapter, I describe each orientation by first noting trends among focal teachers in each orientation group. I then focus on the full data set for one teacher within each orientation group to demonstrate how an emphasis on this particular source plays out in developing a professional identity. After presenting each orientation, I argue that dialogically-oriented teachers are unique among the three types of teachers in several important ways: 1) dialogically-oriented teachers engage in bidirectional interactions with teaching-related discourses outside of their own classroom; 2) dialogically-oriented teachers see themselves as agents of change in contexts beyond their own classroom; and 3) dialogically-oriented teachers are able to articulate their thinking behind their practice with reasons that extend beyond experimentation or personal experience. I conclude the chapter by looking at the way in which a dialogically-oriented professional identity stance may be connected to some types of teacher education programs.

Dialogically-oriented Teachers: Professional Identity in Response to External Discourse

I grouped teachers who most often referenced interactions with external teaching-related discourses as the means by which they constituted their professional identities as “dialogically-oriented teachers.” Dialogically-oriented teachers were interested in the way that their teacher professional identities informed and were informed by external discourses related to teaching and education. Rather than focusing solely on concrete aspects of classroom practice in their inquiry investigations, dialogically-oriented teachers tended to look at classroom practice through the lens of analysis, synthesis, and relationship with larger discourses. These larger discourses provided frameworks to which they responded or within which they situated their teaching or their roles as teachers. Dialogically-oriented teachers, in general, described their evolution as a teacher professional in terms of an ongoing, continual development process, often in response to
changing demands of teaching, given discourses particular to the environment in which they were embedded. When asked about inquiry, dialogically-oriented teachers emphasized the collaborative nature of sense-making and understanding one’s own practice in new ways through taking part in a reflective community. This sense of inquiry as collaborative sense-making indicated that dialogically-oriented teacher professionals looked beyond the immediate classroom benefits of inquiry as a professional development activity to focus on the role of inquiry as a professional stance toward growth and professional ways of thinking.

In their participation in the inquiry group, dialogically-oriented teachers used data protocols as a way to sort through the sense that they were making of the data that they had. Although not opposed to asking for or offering resources, dialogically-oriented teachers were generally more interested in the perspectives of their colleagues on data that they had collected than they were in resources for their practice. When dialogically-oriented teachers gave feedback on the data protocols of others, they often posed hypothetical situations or wonderings closely related to the inquiry in order to prompt the data presenter to think about his/her inquiry in different ways or to use the data presented as a platform for reflection, connection and articulation of teacher thinking. Dialogically-oriented teachers used the collaborative inquiry group as a space to help them articulate and enact the commitments central to their practice with like-minded colleagues. These teachers were a good fit for collaborative inquiry groups because of their belief in this type of collective sense-making as contributing to their professional practice. Participation in the inquiry group connected with dialogically-oriented teachers’ professional identities by allowing them to position their teaching in relation to the work of their colleagues and other external discourses.

Based on their overall data, I classified five focal teachers as dialogically-oriented: Rosie, Emily, Duc, Annie and Isa. For all five, external theory or expert practice informed their beliefs and commitments as professionals. These teachers engaged in specific investigations of the enactment of these commitments in relation to their classrooms. They recognized the importance of the particular site and urban contexts in which their work was embedded, connecting their practice to these environments directly. For all of the dialogically-oriented teachers, there was a sense that classroom-practice could not occur independently of the context in which it was embedded and that it reflected core professional beliefs and commitments. This sense pushed dialogically-oriented teachers to look outside of their classrooms for ways that they could affect the contexts around them, and to become aware of the ways that their environments shaped their practice and professional identities.

Annie: a case study of a dialogically-oriented teacher.
Annie initiated Goody High’s participation in the collaborative inquiry network in her third year of practice with the explicit goal of creating a professional community of colleagues at her site based around collaboration and professional growth. In year 1, she actively recruited all

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31 The protocol used in inquiry meetings to give feedback on presenter data followed the following format: presenter sharing, examination of data, questions by listeners, group discussion (without presenter input), presenter reflections and was adapted from a protocol developed by the Bay Area Coalition of Essential Schools (Bay Area Coalition of Essential Schools, 2003). During the group discussion time, participants were asked to give feedback on aspects of the project they thought were strong as well as posing reflective questions and offering other directions for inquiry.
other members of the group and requested me as facilitator.32 Annie stated on several occasions that she viewed the collaborative inquiry group as “the only real professional development that we [teachers] had” (5/08: 3-5) in an otherwise very bleak site professional development context (5/09: 73-78; 9/09: 70-71).

Connecting theory to practice and practice to the practice of others.

In many ways, Annie built connections between ideas and issues outside of the classroom and her own professional identity. She used external teaching-related discourses to ground and to position her central beliefs and commitments related to teaching. One way in which this connection was clear was in Annie’s references to teaching-related theory as central to her own beliefs, values and commitments as a teacher professional. In an interview related to her teaching practice, Annie cited theory from her credential program as highly influential on her decision to initiate an “Advanced Placement (AP) for All” pipeline program with Isa. Despite more veteran colleagues’ beliefs in the traditional Advanced Placement system that required a high level of prerequisite skills before entering such a course, Annie invoked Vygotskian learning principles to ground her argument that even students who might not yet have prerequisite skills could develop such skills with scaffolded instruction:

[The university credentialing program] teaches you all about Vygotsky and that students can do it, you know, which is so important to believe going into teaching and especially teaching in an urban school. Why would you want to go and teach in an urban school if you didn’t believe that students could do anything for themselves, and so, [the credential program] really did get us thinking that way. (5/09: 6-9)

Annie drew upon a theoretical framework anchored in Vygotskian theories of learning and apprenticeship that she had encountered in her pre-service program to constitute her identity as an urban school teacher. She centered this identity on a belief in student capacity. In her practice, Annie honored her stated belief in Vygotskian principles, implementing scaffolded curriculum and modeling to help students gain access to advanced stages of writing development (Classroom Observation: 3/31/09). Annie saw a belief in setting high standards for student achievement as central to “teaching in an urban school,” connecting her own beliefs to a more general discourse about what it meant to be an urban school teacher.

Annie further drew upon theory to ground her feedback to colleagues around classroom practice. In an inquiry data protocol response to Emily’s investigation of factors affecting student engagement and participation in beginning of class writing activities, Annie anchored her comments in literary analysis theory, invoking the hierarchy of questions in Bloom’s taxonomy33

32 In beginning the collaborative inquiry group concurrent with my re-entry into a doctoral program, Annie requested of the program director that I facilitate the group because she had worked with me while I was teaching. This is distinct from the normal recruitment of facilitators by the program, which is done through recruitment on graduate school list serves. I did however undergo an interview with the director before my placement at the site.

33 Bloom’s taxonomy is a model of classifying thinking according to levels of cognitive complexity. The levels of cognitive thinking were originally divided into three “lower order thinking skills”: knowledge, comprehension and application and three “higher order thinking skills”: analysis, synthesis and evaluation. These levels were modified in the 1990s (lower order: remembering, understanding, applying; higher order: analyzing, evaluating, creating) and have been used as a tool for questioning to promote higher level thinking, often in relation to text. **Invalid source specified.**
as a beginning point for differentiating prompts for students during the beginning of class writing period (2/28/08: 729-732). Annie suggested that Emily offer a range of questions in her writing prompts, beginning with questions that focused on lower order thinking skills, but then moving students toward higher order thinking skills through instruction. In this way, Emily could, in one period, give students multiple opportunities to approach the text through writing and guiding their interactions with text. Annie’s feedback for Emily was a suggestion for classroom practice which was guided by and grounded in an understanding of learning theory. Annie combined Bloom’s taxonomy of learning with Vygotskian principles of apprenticeship and scaffolding in her suggestion to Emily. Using this theory, Annie sought to engage Emily’s professional thinking around her practice as well as to contribute to Emily’s teaching practice. Annie’s comment acknowledged Emily’s commitment to providing access to writing for all of her students and used a theoretical framework to provide a particular perspective that would forward this commitment that Emily had expressed in relation to her inquiry project.

In both Annie’s references to theory, she revealed her commitment to giving all students access to higher levels of curriculum. She saw herself and her colleagues honoring this commitment by providing opportunities for students to engage at higher levels of thought through scaffolded instruction and differentiated curriculum. She used Vygotskian theory to ground and to illustrate her own commitment to access for students, and she connected this commitment with Emily’s shared belief in this principle through invoking Bloom’s taxonomy from literary theory in response to Emily’s inquiry.

Annie’s connections with like-minded educators extended beyond those she made in the focal group. Annie also cited professional models as important to informing her thinking and the way she was able to envision her practice as honoring her core commitments. Annie’s use of professional models was central to her and Isa’s construction of the “AP for All” pipeline at Goody High. In relation to the “AP for All” pipeline, Annie referred to the instrumental nature of her relationship with mentor teacher, Joan Cone, who had established a local precedence for detracking AP classes and allowed Annie and Isa to adapt a curricular framework that she had used in her own teaching practice. Cone had met with Annie and Isa to share curriculum, including a scope and sequence, in the beginning stages of development of the pipeline (5/7/09: 40-43). Cone’s work (referenced in Cone, 2005), similar to the goals of the “AP for All” pipeline, focused on how she, as a high school teacher, opened access to Advanced Placement courses to any student who wanted to take such courses. Like Annie, Cone believed that all students could be successful in high-level academic settings if they were apprenticed into an academic discourse. Cone’s classroom practice provided a professional model for the work of the “AP for All” pipeline; and Cone herself provided a model of professional identity which honored beliefs and commitments similar to those held by Annie.

Annie and Isa worked to develop and adapt Cone’s curriculum and instructional practices to align to a four-year preparation pipeline. Annie extended the underlying principle of access to high level curriculum for students beyond Cone’s original project, providing access for all students in the academy, not only those who elected to take AP courses. 34 Annie displayed the dialogic nature of her professional identity, building upon and extending models of practice

34 Cone’s project aimed to allow greater access to Advanced Placement courses by offering admission to any student who desired to take such courses, regardless of previous preparation. Annie and Isa’s “AP for All” pipeline aligned all English curriculum in the Visual Arts Academy (where students averaged below the school mean on standardized testing measures) to prepare all students for the Advanced Placement test in their 11th and 12th grade years. In this case, students were not given an alternative option for English unless they left the Academy.
based on her own commitments and beliefs, rather than simply adopting these models with which she identified.

**Dialogic interaction based on site contextual factors.**

Another way in which teaching-related discourses external to her classroom informed Annie’s professional beliefs, values and practices was in relation to site context. Annie expressed a view that many teachers and administrators at her site did not share her conviction or commitment to the achievement of her African American and Latino students. The actions (or inaction) of her colleagues prompted her and Isa to enact their beliefs in practice through the “AP for All” pipeline:

So, [Isa and I have] always been thinking about teaching AP classes and opening it up to everyone and we see what happens when they don’t. They will take recommendations and even the students that we recommend, then they won’t put them in or they’ll put them in and not give our students any support and then our students drop out. So, in the end, they didn’t get anyone that we recommended and then they continue to ask us to write down students’ names, especially African American and Latino students, please recommend them, and there’s nothing that is there to support our students, so, when we realized that it was a possibility that we could do it, then we went for it. (5/09: 9-18)

In this passage, Annie highlighted several site-based discourses to which she responded in her choice to create a fully untracked AP program within the Visual Arts Academy. The first of these site-based discourses centered on the traditional lack of access, particularly for African American and Latino students, to AP courses at the site. Despite repeated requests for referrals of these types of students to AP classes, those who had been recommended in the past were either denied access to courses (i.e. “they won’t put them in”) or had dropped out of classes, because of what Annie perceived as a lack of support. This seemingly systematic denial of African American and Latino students to AP level courses and curriculum (with adequate support that might promote their academic success) reflected a discourse based on the principle that only an elite “advanced” group of students who already possessed academic skills were suitable for Advanced Placement classes. Although they had attempted to work within the system by recommending African American and Latino students for AP classes, the prevalence of this discourse of elitism among Advanced Placement teachers prompted Annie and Isa to investigate the possibility of beginning an “AP for All” pipeline within the Visual Arts Academy. In the passage above, Annie constituted a central aspect of her professional identity, that of her commitment to providing access for all students to rigorous academic curriculum, as a response to an oppositional site discourse that she felt did not serve particular groups of students adequately.

Despite constraints within traditional structures at her site, Annie exercised agency aligned with her own professional identity to institute the “AP for All” pipeline at Goody High. This agency required a strong level of commitment on the parts of Annie and Isa who needed the endorsement of the administration and their colleagues within the academy in order to move forward. Annie and Isa also were required to craft proposals to the College Board to get their course syllabi approved as Advanced Placement courses. These steps to instituting the program required negotiations and interactions which were fueled by belief in student capacity, in equity and a commitment to enacting these beliefs in practice.
Being at Goody High also shaped Annie’s beliefs about “good teaching” and what constituted a good teacher. In discussing her perceptions of “good teaching,” Annie noted the ways in which her perspective had shifted because of her professional experiences:

If you had asked me at the beginning [what made a good teacher], when I first started working, I’d say things like, “You respect the kids; you are a professional.” I’d give you all the things that anyone would say, and I still believe those now, it’s just—it seems so much more complicated, because the things that I would have listed my first year of teaching, I can say that all the teachers on my staff have those qualities, but then you look at it, and why are some students failing those classes or being kicked out of those classes and passing your classes and not getting kicked out of your class. Because you can still say that they care about the students, that they know their content matter, that they have structures, so, there’s something going on there. Just because you have all those qualities….I used to say, “Oh, if you’re young, students would respect you more.” But then there are young teachers and the kids walk all over them, so I think it’s more complicated for me now. (9/12/09; 141-151)

Previous to this passage, Annie had begun defining good teaching with qualities based in classroom practice, including subject/ content knowledge and instructional practice that conveys material appropriately to students, and alluding to relationships through her reference to “someone who know how to relate to kids or has kids.” However, as Annie continued to reflect and drew upon her experiences at Goody High, she began to question and complicate her definition based on what this particular discourse meant when enacted at a site level.

Annie contrasted her initial notion of “good teaching” with a revised notion influenced by her four years of professional practice. Her revised perception had been informed by encounters with teachers on her site that she characterized as genuinely possessing ideal qualities, but that she could not truly consider “good teachers” as they had “students failing…or being kicked out.” In contrasting these teachers with others who were able to engage the same students, help them pass and keep them in class, Annie saw an inconsistency that she could not fully articulate. Annie’s own professional identity and her central belief in all students’ gaining access to curriculum seemed to underlie her difficulty in classifying teachers as “good teachers” if they were not reaching difficult students that other teachers had been able to reach. Annie’s statement about good teaching reflected the way that she had negotiated her stance based on her commitment to enacting a professional identity consistent with one’s beliefs. This negotiation took place in response to a site environment where she did not feel that all teachers shared this commitment, even if they possessed other characteristics of being a “good teacher.”

Toward the end of the excerpted passage, Annie highlighted another former belief that she held about younger teachers gaining more respect. Annie again questioned her original generalization based on her experiences at Goody High, ending her response with an open reference to the complicated nature of defining good teaching without clear resolution as to a set of general characteristics. Annie’s process of answering what initially seemed to be a simple question revealed the complexity of defining good teaching for Annie when she considered her responses in terms of particular manifestations of teaching at her site.

*The importance of local context, community and informing national conversations.*
In relation to local context, Annie referenced how being an “urban teacher” and the larger context of urbanicity interacted with and informed the beliefs, values and practices that she had as a teacher professional. Annie’s earlier referenced statement about the Vygotskian principles which she learned in her credential program were specifically assigned importance in relation to “teaching in an urban school” (5/7/09: 8). Annie’s connection of urban school teaching to her belief in students’ capacity to “do anything for themselves” through rigorous academic expectations was central to Annie’s beliefs as a teacher professional. Local context also informed Annie’s professional identity through her belief in the importance of interacting and drawing in the community surrounding students into the classroom in order to promote greater academic and personal success.

Annie perceived her professional identity to extend beyond academic preparation to include a personal and moral investment in students. For Annie, this required communication and alignment with parents in their goals for students:

> You definitely want the students to come into your class being able to pass those tests and write those papers and demonstrate all those things that it’s your job to have them show that they can do, but more importantly, you want them to be good people and their parents are trusting you to help raise them, you know? And that’s why it’s so important to communicate with parents. And that’s made a lot of difference this year for me. Yeah, it was hard. I look back at my calendar for the whole year and some weeks, I’ve got parent meetings scheduled every day; sometimes 3 a day, I don’t know why I did it. But, to be able to tell a student, like, “Your mother would want the same for you,” or “Don’t make me call your mom” [laughs] Having that community just suddenly changed, it changed a lot for me this year.

(5/7/09: 303-311)

Annie believed that part of her responsibility as a teacher was to support the roles of parents in helping their children to be both academically successful and “good people.” By maintaining strong relationships with parents, Annie felt that she was supporting their work, but also used this relationship to support the work of the classroom. Annie noted how she might refer to calling students’ mothers or aligning her position with that of a student’s mother as a means of supporting classroom work. She felt able to do this because of the close contact she maintained with parents, as noted above by Annie’s references to multiple parent meetings that she might schedule for herself in a single week. For Annie, her commitment to working with parents such that their relationship could be mutually supportive of students, both academically and personally was a strong component of her professional identity. I consider this an example of an external teaching-related discourse because it relies upon a commitment not based on internal classroom practice, but on the involvement of others as part of constructing professional identity.

A second way in which a community-based discourse came into the classroom was in Annie’s belief around the uses of “Community” and Standard English in her classroom. Annie referred to the language used informally in the community of Lawndale as Community English. While Community English could be characterized as mainly a regional dialect of African American Vernacular English, it also incorporated elements of language that were particular to the mix of English Language Learners who spoke non-standard forms of English and elements of written language which were used to communicate with others in text-messaging and on-line forms (ex. u, meeh, lol). Annie first referenced her teaching around the subject of Community
and Standard English in a text-based discussion on cultural modeling as tool to bridge academic achievement gaps (Risko & Walker-Dalhouse, 2007). In connecting her practice to the idea of cultural modeling, she said:

I see [cultural modeling] happening in my class—I spend a lot of time talking about…. Sharroky Hollie was talking about “what’s the difference between Community English and Standard English” so once I lay that foundation down, it’s so easy for the rest of the school year to flow, so applied to their writing, they may brainstorm a few ideas, and I’ll be like, “This, I love this idea, how can we say this in Standard English, so then they find synonyms and they’re like, ‘I use this too and it sounds more like community,’” So, they’re able to still put down their ideas, but then, they know, they go back and forth between two different ways of expressing themselves—both are fine, but just one is appropriate in a certain time…. You see it in literature circles too—they’ll know what they want to say, and then they back track and then they rephrase it and they feel so powerful, just that they can do that—that they can switch back and forth whenever they want. (11/13/08: 92-109)

Annie began her response to the article by referencing Sharroky Hollie, a scholar whose work with African American students had informed much of the professional development around culturally responsive teaching given by the district. Through referencing Hollie’s work, Annie established a common framework for her colleagues. She then gave an example from her own classroom practice based on discussing the differences between Community and Standard English. In her classroom instruction, Community English was not characterized as a lesser form of the language; however, Standard English was “the language of the classroom.” Annie’s students saw Academic or Standard English as a powerful tool in certain situations, whereas Community English was “fine,” but simply appropriate at a different time. This particular example that Annie shared from her practice reflected her core belief that the language (and culture) students brought into the classroom was valuable. Through explicitly discussing the value of both languages, Annie saw her role as providing a bridge for students to see and use the power of Standard English in the classroom without denigrating their use of Community English in other settings.

Annie’s commitment to the academic success of her students as well as their success as human beings was foundational in her integration of both their families and their language into her classroom. She also made this connection a priority when asked about areas for improvement in her practice:

I want to be able to get students to take their analyses that they bring up in discussions and be able to put it into writing, so that has a little bit to do with grammar, it has a little bit to do with being able to build your vocabulary, use more academic English, but they say such intelligent things and then either forget what they’ve just said or they’ve said it, maybe in Community English, during a classroom discussion but when it comes time to put it down on paper for an AP essay then either they say it the same way, or they forgot, so, I don’t know, that’s the hard part, the analysis. They don’t realize when they’ve said something fabulous, yeah, that’s always been the problem. Because they can find—they’re so proud of the fact that they can find quotes to back up an idea but explaining
what that quote says or why that quote proves that point, that’s where they can get stuck (5/7/09: 140-148)

Annie, in characterizing areas she wished to develop professionally, focused on helping students to take their strong oral analysis skills, including the use of supporting evidence to support their assertions, into their formal writing. In this reference, she noted the importance of transitioning students from oral analysis, often done in Community English, to written analysis done in Standard English. Annie felt that this was central to her role of preparing students for academically rigorous written assignments such as the AP essay. The problem for Annie was not that students were incapable of sophisticated literary analysis, but that their ability to express their thinking was not yet fully developed, particularly in their writing. When brilliant points of analysis were made orally in Community English, these points were often lost or lost in translation when transferred to written Standard English. Annie’s focus on bridging students’ abilities with academic demands underscored her fundamental belief that students were not only capable of, but already engaged in, powerful forms of literary analysis that often went unrecognized. She perceived her role as one of helping her students communicate their understandings in ways that powerfully spoke to a different community than the one in which they were embedded. This would enable students to take on an additional identity as academically minded young people who were aware of their own intellect and ability. Annie used scaffolded instruction and developed written models of strong essays with each of her classes to support student transitions from oral to written analysis and from Community to Standard English (3/31/09). These practices hearken back to Vygotskian principles of apprenticeship which were foundational to Annie’s teacher professional identity.

Finally, Annie constructed a part of her professional identity through challenging disempowering discourses around access, particularly access to Advanced Placement courses. This was important to her both on a site level and more broadly as a means for her to interrogate a national discourse that represented the expansion of AP courses negatively and failed to acknowledge the capacity of a great number of students to be successful in such classes. In reflecting on this in her individual interview, she noted:

I was reading this article about [the expansion of AP and the article] was criticizing why the number of AP classes has gone up and the survey [given to AP teachers and administrators] came back with: Large percentage is because the school wants to improve their reputation; kids want to have a great resume, or 30% only wanted to be challenged, and there was no percentage that said, “Because the teachers know that they can do it,” you know, because teachers believe every student can do it. That’s why there’s been an increase. So that’s sad because that’s the place where Isa and I are coming from, and it seems like there are very few other people coming from that place. [5/7/09: 163-169]

Annie distinguished between her (and Isa’s) beliefs about increased accessed to Advanced Placement courses and the beliefs recorded in the article to which she referred. Although Annie was required to tailor her curriculum and syllabus to meet the requirements of an Advanced Placement course according to the national College Board standards, Annie did not do so because she bought into a discourse of elitism that the test had traditionally represented. Rather, Annie challenged this discourse in situating her practice in her belief and commitment in all students being able to meet the rigorous demands of AP courses.
Enacting beliefs in practice: Annie’s classroom practice.

In her interview, Annie referenced classroom practices that illustrated or were rooted in the commitments and beliefs that she had created through dialogic interaction with theories, practical models and external contexts. In my observations of Annie’s practice, I also found evidence that the theoretical frameworks, professional models and contextual factors that Annie interacted with and invoked throughout her interview data informed her classroom practice as a teacher professional.

I observed Annie preparing both her 9th and 10th grade classes for a semester final, for which she used a former Advanced Placement test prompt. In all of her classes, Annie began with a warm-up activity which was a scaffold to help students prepare for their upcoming marking period final examination. For her 9th grade students, Annie asked students to choose from information previously brainstormed in class to develop into a thesis for an essay based on Romeo and Juliet. For her 10th grade students, Annie asked students to look for passages from the text that they could use as evidence for their arguments. In both cases, Annie used questioning as a strategy to push students to consider new possibilities, elaborate on their thinking and clarify their understandings of the text (similar to the method she suggested to Emily during her protocol, referring to Bloom’s taxonomy as a means of pushing students’ thinking) (3/31/09).

Annie’s interaction with her students during this initial warm-up period reflected her grounding in Vygotskian learning theory, based on an active apprenticeship of analytical thinking. Annie guided students through a process of thinking and reasoning designed to scaffold the analysis and essay writing process for them. She provided models of questioning and reasoning, which helped students arrive at deeper levels of thinking through expert guidance. Annie’s practice of focusing her warm-up on helping to scaffold an Advanced Placement (AP) essay question also reflected her commitment to increasing access to the AP examination for all students, which she stated was grounded in Vygotsky’s theories and in the practice of professional model, Joan Cone.

After guiding students through a warm-up activity, designed to scaffold students’ use of evidence for their essays, provide a review of literary devices (foreshadowing for 9th graders; transition words for 10th graders), and look at a released state test question, Annie allowed her students time to work independently with books to gather evidence for their upcoming AP style essay in-class. For 9th grade students, she provided a worksheet which had boxes in which students could write out their thesis or topic statements, their evidence and their analysis. The 10th grade students used a semi-structured outline format for their essays, which was done on their own notebook paper. When asked about this difference, Annie stated that she had initially structured essays using a more formal format in 9th grade, but by 10th grade, she wanted students to move away from dependence on a graphic organizer and think about organizing their thoughts without a formatted worksheet.

Connections between Annie’s practice in structuring the essay and Vygotskian learning theory can again be drawn. Annie showed an understanding of the principles of scaffolding for students through her professional choices to structure the essay in different ways for her different groups of students. Annie moved from a more formally structured worksheet to a format that still emphasized structure and organization of the essay, but moved students toward greater
Annie allowed her students to work independently, while making herself available to students who sought or required help. This choice showed her respect for students and her belief that students, if given the proper tools, support and classroom environment, could be successful in navigating high-level curriculum.

For Annie, the core commitment of her professional identity, increasing access to college for all students, was inseparable from the world outside of her classroom. This mission was founded upon Annie’s belief that all students were capable of academic success, a belief that itself was grounded in developmental learning theory. Annie drew upon the work of others as frameworks or lenses through which she could make key beliefs and practices more understandable and clear, both for herself and others. Annie also showed a keen awareness of her environment at her site and an ability to negotiate the discourses environment in ways that allowed for enacting her beliefs, values and practices as a teacher professional. Annie saw herself as an urban school teacher and a member of students’ communities. As such, she drew upon resources in the community, including students’ language outside of the classroom and their parents to support classroom learning. Finally, Annie acknowledged and felt that while her core beliefs as a professional often stood in opposition to site and national discourse, it was her responsibility to her students and to herself to do all within her power to honor her professional identity. In this way, Annie sought to impact a conversation around student achievement that extended far beyond her own classroom. Annie’s discourse and her classroom practice both powerfully reflected her professional identity. Her case provides a strong example of a dialogically-oriented teacher professional whose practice is fully embedded and connected with surrounding discourses from theory, practice and context.

Classroom-oriented Teachers: Professional Identity in the Domain of the Classroom

Classroom-oriented teachers were distinct from dialogically-oriented teachers in their focus the classroom as a distinct space and central source of their professional identity. In contrast to dialogically-oriented teachers who regularly referenced the ways in which their practice was situated within larger frameworks or contexts, classroom-oriented teachers tended to focus on the distinct nature of the classroom as a privileged space of teacher-student interaction.

In their interview data, classroom-oriented teachers highlighted how the “doing” of classroom teaching embodied the principles of their practice-based identity. They focused on concrete practices, knowledge and types of relationships that embodied teacher professionalism within the classroom. Classroom-oriented teachers also emphasized the importance of planning and curriculum as essential to success and focused on the particular learning environments created in their classrooms in relation to their goals for student learning. When asked about inquiry and its benefits, classroom-oriented teachers underscored inquiry’s direct relationship to classroom practice and the ways in which they gained practical ideas for curriculum or resources from their collaboration with colleagues. Classroom-oriented teachers regularly gave feedback in the form of resources from practice when participating in the inquiry protocols of their

35 Annie emphasized to students that outlines should be helpful to students themselves as they would be allowed to be used for this particular final exam, encouraging students to think about the format that would most assist them. Her only requirement of the outline was that it not be in paragraph form so that students did not copy an already written essay as their final exam.
colleagues and were drawn to the collaborative inquiry group as a space to share resources and gain new ideas directly related to classroom practice from a number of colleagues.

In the focal group, Beth and Molly emerged as classroom-oriented teachers. Both were strongly focused on their classrooms as distinct spaces of teacher-student interaction and the central component through which they constituted their professional identities. Both saw inquiry as a space to gain ideas from colleagues about practice and to gain understandings about their own practice that would translate directly into their classroom. Both focused on student achievement, a strong sense of planning and organization, and high expectations for students as essential components of good teaching. Both also participated in inquiry protocols through invoking their own classroom practices, offering feedback anchored in resources or classroom-based ideas.

Molly: a case study of a classroom-oriented teacher.

Throughout Molly’s data, there were numerous examples of the ways that classroom practice was central to her identity as a teacher professional. Molly’s responses to interview questions and in inquiry meetings drew from and focused on her professional experiences related to her classroom. When asked, Molly could not recall any external factors which had influenced her teaching practice (9/09; 33-35).

Professional identity centered in classroom practice.

Molly’s belief about her professional identity, even before entering her own classroom was based around a sense of the classroom as a distinct space, with particular responsibilities. When asked why she entered teaching, Molly stated, that when approached by Teach for America upon finishing college, she was intrigued, and drew upon a classroom-based business model of teaching: “I liked that you are your own CEO of your classroom and the responsibility that comes with the job. [Teaching is] meaningful and significant work.” (9/09: 2-4). In this passage, Molly invoked a business metaphor in describing her approach to teaching. She characterized her teaching role as one full of responsibility, meaning and significance. Central to Molly’s professional identity was her view of her classroom as a space for which she was primarily responsible for the work of teaching and the learning of her students.

The centrality of classroom practice to Molly’s teacher professional identity was also clear in her characterization of herself as a teacher: “I would say I am a positive, hard working teacher who sets high expectations and works relentlessly at keeping students engaged and learning in the most effective ways” (9/09; 21-23). In her self-description, Molly saw herself as a “positive” and “hard working” teacher, aspects that described a personal disposition and a way of approaching her professional identity. This supported Molly’s sense of responsibility in relation to her classroom. Molly further focused on her relationship with students, a relationship built upon high expectations, engaging curriculum and instructional practice that allowed students to learn “in the most effective ways.” Molly emphasized a connection between effectiveness and student engagement in promoting “lasting” learning.

In other sections of Molly’s interview data, she reinforced her notion of teaching as centered upon the hard work that teachers invested in the classroom in order to promote student learning. For Molly, good teaching was indicated by a commitment to student learning which could be achieved through strong goal oriented planning (9/09: 37-39). Molly characterized her areas of improvement as providing more engaging curriculum and new instructional practices that would promote student learning, both of which were consistent with her sense of
responsibility for promoting student learning (9/09; 24-26). When asked about advice that she would give to new teachers at Goody High, she said, “The students are great. Hold them to high expectations and they will meet them. Don’t make excuses” (9/09; 45-46).

A final component that Molly characterized as important to being a good teacher was the idea of being reflective or looking to constantly improve one’s practice (9/09: 40). Molly felt that she herself was a reflective teacher (9/09: 22) and referred to her belief in the importance of finding ways to improve through examining one’s practice honestly with a desire to continue developing as a professional (5/08: 57-60).

In all of Molly’s references to teaching in her individual interview data, she focused on student learning and achievement as outcomes of the classroom dependent upon a teacher’s high expectations and commitment to engaging their students through curriculum and instruction. Molly centered her teacher professional identity on what she could do to for students to promote this outcome in her classroom. Her view of the teacher’s role as central to student development and success was evident as a core component of her professional identity that focused on her classroom practice.

**Professional learning through classroom practice.**

In addition to Molly’s self-description, which focused on how she as a teacher could promote and enable student success in her classroom, Molly explicitly stated that her own classroom practice was essential to her development as a teacher and to developing aspects of her teacher professional identity. When asked what from her experiences at Goody High had shaped “the teacher you are today,” Molly responded, “Just being in the classroom and learning by making mistakes was huge. I learned what not to do in many situations.” (9/09: 67-68).

Although this question focused on the site context generally, Molly emphasized her classroom practice as a central feature of who she was as a teacher, by helping her to learn “what not to do.”

Molly also used her inquiry project to focus on a practically implementable classroom-based investigation, a system of assessment based on visual tracking of student performance, a process she connected to the way the coverage of essential standards was tracked on a chart within Teach for America. In discussing her project, she showed how her particular investigation of her practice supported her classroom-based identity:

My project...was definitely a learning experience and really thinking, ‘how do you motivate kids and how do you do it in a way that’s sustainable as a teacher, that’s something that and it’s helped me for the future, in doing this process, I wanted to do something really practical, something that I could implement in my classroom, like an activity based thing or a classroom procedure. (5/08; 32-37)

In this passage, Molly expressed her desire for inquiry to be practically-based and focused on her instructional practice. She clearly emphasized the applicability of the process to her classroom, wanting her investigation to be constructed around “an activity based thing or a classroom procedure.” Molly used her inquiry to support her view of teaching as outcome based and student centered. Because Molly saw part of being a teacher as “hard work” but also characterized the teacher as fundamentally important in the classroom, she sought to use inquiry to investigate ways of making her practice more sustainable to maintain the core commitments of her professional identity without burning herself out as a teacher.
Molly also saw inquiry as a systematic form of deepening her reflection on her practice. In her year one exit interview, she stated:

I think I’m someone who likes feedback and I am, as a person, really reflective, and if something goes poorly, I don’t lie and say it didn’t; I’m like, ‘Oh, that lesson sucked’ or that unit wasn’t as good or I didn’t plan well and my class flopped, and I liked the insight; I want to know what my students think and this only made that experience, even took it to a more, deeper level where you’re using numbers, you’re using numbers, you’re using data, you’re using surveys, even more than just the informal feedback of students, you’re doing it in a more strategic way, which I liked. (5/08: 44-50)

Molly’s view of inquiry supported her view of her classroom as an organization of which she was the CEO. Molly felt that the systematic use of “numbers” or data about one’s classroom to help with reflection and assessment of practice was “strategic” and helped support her own commitment to reflection, that in turn helped her development as a teacher. For Molly, if the outcome of the classroom was student learning through teacher practice, the outcome of professional development was teacher learning through reflection on classroom-based data. Molly’s professional identity was embedded in her commitment to her classroom, the value she placed on learning and her belief in the centrality of the role of the teacher in promoting student achievement.

Molly’s participation in the inquiry protocols of others reflected her professional identity. One example of feedback that reflected Molly’s belief in the centrality of the teacher’s role in the classroom came during an inquiry data protocol around Emily’s work on investigating beginning-of-class writing prompts:

For the students who don’t write, it might be helpful when they do write to know why they participate, what about that particular topic or day had them participate in the writing. Was it you [Emily] standing over their shoulder reminding them to write or something about the topic? (12/13/07: 192-195)

In this excerpt, Molly situated her feedback clearly within Emily’s classroom practice, offering comments that highlighted Emily’s role either as instructor or as curriculum designer. In pushing Emily’s thinking around her central inquiry investigation of beginning of class writing, Molly suggested that Emily think about how her instructional practice (standing over their shoulders reminding them to write) or her curriculum (something about the topic) prompted students who did not typically write to engage with beginning of class writing prompts when they did. This feedback comment reflected Molly’s central belief in the importance of the teacher within the classroom to promote student learning and engagement.

Molly also drew upon her image of the classroom as outcome-based and the teacher as responsible for helping students invest in the classroom. An example of this image was in feedback given to Annie during her first data protocol. Annie’s inquiry question focused on students developing the “will, skill and capacity to reflect on their own practice as students” and a hypothesis (modeled after the inquiry group itself) that this type of reflection would help them invest more in their own learning. For this data protocol, Annie specifically requested feedback from the group on the tools of measurement related to her inquiry question (particularly pre and post surveys given to students before a curricular unit) rather than her classroom practice itself.
Molly honored this request, but tied her suggestions for inquiry to a proposal related to Annie’s instructional practice:

For the pre-surveys and question 3: “How do I increase the value students find in these assignments?” like if you know you’re doing curriculum even around a novel, in your pre-surveys, there could be, maybe you could give them a choice, like what are things that you’d find helpful, like giving them options or a choice in their surveys, or asking, “What do you want to get out of this unit?” I guess, that could be a way, I don’t know, of maybe increasing the value and investment, if they have a sense of what you do with the data piece of it. (1/24/08; 227-233)

In this comment, Molly suggested to Annie that she be explicit with students about the goals and value related to instructional practices in order to produce her desired outcome. Molly tied the tool of measurement (pre-surveys in several areas given to students at the beginning of Annie’s data collection, before she made any changes to her practice) to instruction, suggesting that Annie tie her pre-survey questions in with her instruction and giving students a clear sense of how their assignments were linked to learning goals for a particular unit. Molly’s comments, drawing from Annie’s data, reflected her belief in the importance of thinking about outcomes and aligning one’s planning (whether in inquiry or classroom practice) to one’s professional goals. She also highlighted her belief in being explicit about goals in order to promote student learning and engagement.

Constantly seeking engagement: Molly’s classroom practice.

Molly’s practice was reflective of her goal-orientation, particularly in terms of her focus on student engagement. In my observations of Molly’s practice, she continually sought new ways to keep her students engaged. The walls of Molly’s classroom reflected her commitment to incentive systems as ways to keep students engaged. In addition to the visual tracking system based on standards mastery and stickers on her back wall, she also had a “100s, 90s, 80s” club for students that achieved particular benchmarks on exams and walls displaying strong examples of student work.

Molly expressed a willingness to try new ideas and a desire to integrate new ideas to avoid falling into a “teaching rut” (9/09: 25). She also discussed how the curricular ideas of others, from colleagues, to professional development setting to coaching influenced her thinking about her practice. While Molly’s practices in her classroom were varied, they did not reflect a consistency based on a larger framework, aside from the idea that engagement was important. Molly found it difficult to maintain any practice (including that at the center of her inquiry) over time if she thought that the practice was not going well and often was not sure how to modify practices that she thought might be successful for others, but had not been successful for her.

Molly’s classroom practice reflected many of the aspects of her interview data. She worked hard to engage her students by varying her classroom practices in ways that she thought might encourage and promote the achievement of her students. She emphasized the importance of new ideas for practice as something which reflected professional development. In Molly’s reflection on practice, however, she lacked a clear understanding of how the strategies she implemented for engagement actually worked to promote the success of her students and why she chose particular strategies in her classroom. While Molly was extremely dedicated to her
Throughout her participation in the focal collaborative inquiry group, Molly focused on improving her classroom practice in ways directly aligned to her professional goals and her professional identity. Molly’s belief in the importance of student achievement through effective teacher practice was central to how she saw her own teacher professional identity. Molly’s core beliefs in student achievement and teacher responsibility emanated from a view of the central role of teachers in relation to student learning. Molly’s inquiry project and her feedback to others reflected these beliefs. By learning more and trying new things, Molly felt that she could improve her classroom practice and do a more effective job of teaching. This sense of the emphasis on what each teacher as an individual could do within her own particular classroom context underscored Molly’s teacher professional identity as a classroom-oriented teacher and illustrated her strong commitment to doing her best for her students through her classroom practice.

**The Individually-oriented Teacher: Identity Anchored in a Personal Image of Teaching**

I define an individually-oriented teacher as a teacher professional focused on a personal image of teaching which drives his practice and the enactment of his beliefs and values. There was only one example of a teacher whom I classified as individually-oriented in the focal group. However, I devote an entire identity category to this particular teacher because his emphasis on his image of teaching, drawn from an apprenticeship of observation, informed his professional identity in very different ways from teachers in the other two identity categories, making necessary this third orientation. The individually-oriented teacher in the study based his professional identity on a personal image of teaching which mitigated some of his experiences, beliefs and values while emphasizing others. When theory or the practice of colleagues was brought up for consideration, this teacher was dismissive of any framework or practice that did not support his personal image of teaching. Understanding the beliefs, values and commitments inherent in the individually-oriented teacher’s personal image of teaching creates coherence for a professional identity in which stated beliefs in one situation might not otherwise intersect consistently with expressed beliefs in another context.

**James: a case study of an individually-oriented teacher.**

In this discussion of James as an individually-oriented teacher, I first give evidence for the personal image of teaching central to James’s professional identity. James constructed this central image by observing teachers throughout his time as a student. When confronted with the realities of early professional practice that did not correspond to his personal image of teaching, James negotiated this image by maintaining as much of it as possible and justifying any changes he was not able to make based on student characteristics or grade level characteristics. Although James drew from experiences and expressed beliefs that seemed inconsistent with his practice,

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36 Although James was the only focal teacher in the group who displayed this type of identity, his practice mirrored closely the description of practice of Jake, a focal teacher in Grossman’s study of the construction of teacher knowledge among new teachers **Invalid source specified**. The parallels between James and Jake help me to position James’ identity as a type of identity rather than an individual anomaly.
his decisions not to act upon particular stated beliefs were consistent with and justified by his image of teaching, the central aspect of his teacher professional identity.

**The construction of a personal image of teaching that drives professional identity.**

Like many of the teachers in the focal group, James drew upon his early educational experiences as a student to construct models of teacher practice. However, James was distinct from the other teachers in the study in that the personal image of teaching that he derived from his student experiences became central to his professional identity and drove much of his professional practice. James based his personal image of teaching on a seminar style classroom with a teacher presenting ideas and questions based in literature and facilitating discussion among students. James believed that, given highly motivated or highly skilled students, this environment would foster success and love of literature without great effort on the part of the teacher. Finally, James believed in his own capacity to excel at this style of teaching. These factors accounted for the bulk of James’s professional identity and shaped his professional choices.

James repeatedly anchored his personal image of teaching in his early observations of his own teachers as a student. When asked why he went into teaching, James said:

> I graduated from college, and I think the real reason [I became a teacher] was because I always observed my teachers and I always felt like, “I could do it better” than them, like in high school, not the good teachers—the good teachers I was always impressed with, but the ones who weren’t that good, I always felt like, “Man, I could make this presentation so much better.” And I felt the same way in college—as a matter of fact, I felt it even more strongly in college because they didn’t teach that well in college, they just sat there and lectured at you. (9/22/09: 2-7)

In introducing his reasons for becoming a teacher, James also introduced many of the central aspects of his personal image of teaching. James highlighted that, according to his observation, effectiveness meant student engagement in teacher presentation. If teachers were interesting or presented well, they were good teachers, or teachers that impressed James. While James distinguished teacher presentation from when a teacher “sat there and lectured you,” he did not fully develop the difference between presentation and lecture. James also expressed his confidence that he could “do better” than many of his former teachers, indicating a belief in his own teaching capacity as well as a sense that teaching was not such a difficult task, as even a student could imagine doing it better than many mediocre teachers he encountered.

When the sentiment of “doing better” than former teachers arose later in the interview, James elaborated on his image of good teaching. In referring to the experiences that had made him into “the teacher he was today,” James said:

> I think, being a very introspective and…critical person—watching other teachers when I was in high school and seeing what they did well, but really I remember more…picking out what they weren’t doing well—it seemed so obvious—“Don’t do that! Look at all the people who have their heads down. Nobody’s listening to you. Or, you could just say this a different way”—I don’t remember, every teacher, not every teacher, but my really bad teachers, I thought, “Wow, I could do better than that.” So, I think, thinking that I could do better than my teachers started it off. (9/22/09: 128-135)
James again anchored his image of teaching in observation, saying that he watched teachers in high school through an “introspective” and “critical” lens. Similar to his prior statement, James framed teacher effectiveness in terms of teacher presentation. He elaborated on this by discussing student engagement, particularly in terms of students’ listening to what a teacher had to say. He also re-emphasized that his decision to pursue teaching was based on showing that he “could do better” than his former teachers. To James, the faults of his “really bad teachers” seemed obvious to see and simple to correct. The image of a teacher as a charismatic presenter who engaged students emerged clearly from James’ negative characterizations of his former teachers. The image of this process as evident or obvious also emerged from James’ discourse.

An even clearer version of James’s personal image of teaching was presented as James discussed his positive student experience with engaging classroom teaching. In the following description of his personal growth with literary analysis during high school, James reconstructed the image of the classroom that was central to his professional identity:

Well, the style [that was most effective for me as a student] was that the teacher would sit up in the front of the class with a book and just ask us questions, right? And, it was up to us to be interested and not to fall asleep because I mean you could fall asleep and there wasn’t any written work—it was all, and it was the same thing in the seminar at college—the teacher, you would open up your book and talk about the book and I always worked really hard; I was really interested; I wanted to be able to answer the questions that I couldn’t always answer in high school. So I worked really hard and I grew a lot as a student, just trying to figure out the answers and share something meaningful in class and be able to be like the other students who were sharing meaningful stuff. And I remember, I had one semester my junior year where my ability to analyze literature just grew exponentially, but yeah, the seminar style is not an effective way to teach in Lawndale. (9/22/09: 55-65)

In this excerpt, James noted how, in his experience as a student, the practice that most engaged him with literature was a literary discussion or seminar based analysis (distinct from a teacher sitting in the front of the room and “lecturing at” students). In this illustration from his past experiences, James noted that the teacher’s role was to foster discussion by asking interesting questions about the text itself that challenged students to refer back to the text and think critically about hard questions. In this environment as James portrayed it, students were motivated and engaged and did not need the accountability of written work. Rather, students chose to participate out of interest. James highlighted his own growth in terms of literary analysis and the importance of having peers around him “who were sharing meaningful stuff” that then pushed him to work hard. It was this type of environment that James had felt, as a student caused him to develop his love for literature. As a teacher, James sought to emulate the style of presenting ideas and facilitating discussion. He sought to promote literary analysis through discussion as a means of engaging his students. However, at the end of this passage he noted that he found, “the seminar style is not an effective way to teach in Lawndale.”

James’s sense that the image of teaching at the core of his professional identity was not compatible with his current teaching situation (and previous teaching experiences) caused him to adapt his professional goals based on his desire to recreate the environment of teaching central to his professional identity:
Well, I mean, I would like being a college professor—I think basically there’s four different types of being an English teacher—you can be a 7th grade English teacher and you have to work your tail off every day, of course you get better at it, but to me, when I envision that, I see a lifetime of toil. As a high school teacher, it’s like working, maybe working in construction. You’re a laborer as a 7th grade teacher; as a high school teacher, you’re the truck driver. So, I worked as a laborer and I know all we would do is envy the truck drivers—they get paid three times as much as us and they didn’t have to shovel dirt, they’d just drive a truck all the time. And then as a community college teacher, you’re better than a truck driver, maybe you are a manager or something like that, and then as a college professor, it seems like it’s even better than that, but that’s in terms of how much work I would have to put into the teaching itself and how much I would get to do what I really want to do, which is discuss and analyze literature. (9/22/09: 330-340)

In this passage, James drew upon his personal experience, his personal notions of good teaching and his personal perceptions of the level of responsibility needed at each level of English instruction, through invoking an extended metaphor of construction labor. Through this metaphor, he highlighted the different levels of investment in “teaching itself” versus discussion and analysis of literature. James drew upon his experience as “a laborer” and his envy of higher levels of employees who were better compensated for less work. He interwove this metaphor with four “types” of English teachers at the middle school, high school, community college and university levels, noting that in order to be able to attain the maximal satisfaction for the minimal effort, he hoped to someday become a university professor, which would allow him to invest less in instruction of English and engage more in the discussion and analysis of literature: “what I really want to do” (340). He continued, after the excerpt above, to stress that the level of responsibility on the part of the teacher was higher the younger the students they instructed. In order to make this assertion, James drew from a larger set of pre-professional teaching and student experiences, at various levels of instruction. These experiences had informed his perceptions of what it meant to be a teacher at these different levels and the amount of stress and responsibility for student success that teachers had at each level. At the time of his last interview, James admitted to investigating graduate programs that would allow him to instruct at the community college or university level because he sought the opportunity to engage in more high level discussions of literary texts with motivated students in a way that required significantly less (perceived) effort on the part of the teacher.

**Confronting a non-conforming professional environment: negotiations of professional practice based on a personal image of teaching.**

James derived his personal image of teaching from his love of literature and literary discussion rather than from an investment in the processes of teaching and professional growth. This personal image of teaching, constructed largely based on observation of teachers as a student, was not always supported by James’s professional teaching experiences. James addressed challenges to his professional identity that arose from his teaching experiences to maintain an identity centered upon his personal image of teaching.

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37 James had engaged in pre-professional experiences teaching high school and continuation high school and early professional experiences teaching middle school, however, he had only engaged with college professors as a student.
James noted several times in interview data that the seminar style of teaching central to his model of good teaching was not “effective” in Lawndale. James, however, showed his commitment to this model of teaching through adapting his practice in a way which still allowed for some literary discussion to take place:

[When I entered teaching,] I expected to be able to have a class discussion style of teaching—a seminar style of discussion in teaching, but I learned pretty quickly that that’s not an effective way to teach in Lawndale. So, I knew that coming into Goody High; that’s still my preferred style of teaching and something I try to get away with as much as I can, you know, like a class discussion where everybody’s interested, everybody’s constantly looking for quotes to share in the discussion—I try to structure it much more with actual written assignments than just sharing out loud because not all the students will do it. So, I mean that was a big shock for me—not being able to teach the way my best teachers had taught me—the way that I learned the best at University High School, was not the style that I should teach at Goody High and probably not even the style that I should teach at University High School to be honest, unless I had a super motivated class. (9/22/09: 45-54)

James maintained his personal image of teaching as engaging students in active discussions and analysis of literature, what he termed “my preferred style of teaching.” Despite a lack of success with this model at Goody High, he still tried to “get away with it” as much as possible by structuring the discussion with written assignments to account for students who would not otherwise participate. Although James had encountered difficulty in implementing discussion-based analysis in his classroom “effectively,” he still believed in the process of discussion and a seminar-style classroom, which had proven so successful for him as a student. While “not being able to teach the way my best teachers had taught me” shocked James, he had adapted his classroom practice in a way that allowed him to reconstruct his central image of teaching as much as he could. Further, James attributed his inability to teach in the way that he had best learned to a difference in student motivation. He noted that even students at his alma mater who were not “super motivated” might not learn effectively through his preferred style of teaching.

James’s attribution of differences in effective instructional methods to differences between himself and his students allowed me to consider James’s perspective on teacher-student relationships in light of his personal image of teaching and professional identity. James characterized relationships as central to his professional identity, particularly as a teacher in Lawndale. When asked to describe himself as a teacher, James responded:

I think the most important thing for me to do as a teacher is make relationships with my students—to make strong relationships, and I think, especially in Lawndale, that’s the most important thing you can do. (9/22/09:84-86)

James highlighted the importance of relationships and the centrality of relationships to his professional identity. He continued on in his discussion of relationships to talk about how establishing relationships built on trust in the classroom allowed students to feel safe and support one another’s development. This would be an important component related to James’s central image of teaching, since in James’s student experience the importance of highly motivated peers around him allowed for his own growth in literary analysis. James’s emphasis on relationships
seemed consistent with his desire to foster an intellectual community based upon discussion and analysis in his classroom.

While James emphasized the importance of teacher-student relationships to his professional identity, he also acknowledged the challenges of forming such relationships based on his sense of cultural differences which existed between himself and his students. In the following passage, taken from a text-based discussion on using student “cultural funds of knowledge” to inform instruction (11/13/08), James used an example from his prior teaching experience to highlight a sense of his own cultural location in relation to that of his students:

In my culture, and the way that I was brought up in interacting with students wasn’t always their culture—that was all my students—it wasn’t just my African American kids, so it goes beyond reading and writing to relationships as well. I had a girl, a 10th grader at Susan B Anthony [continuation high school] that was throwing a temper tantrum, and I was very passive, very calm about it, and I told her, “You can’t do that in here. You have to go.” And she turned around and said, “I hate it when you do that. I hate, hate, hate that”—she hated it so much and I was like, “You want me to yell at you?” and she said, “Yes”—she didn’t actually say that—that would have been nice, but I can imagine she’d say that. (11/13/08: 128-142)

The discussion and the text itself were focused on the use of “cultural funds of knowledge” that students possessed to support their development of academic skills in reading and writing. James shifted the conversation to focus on teacher-student relationships by drawing upon an experience that he had had with a student at a previous school which he felt was reflective of the cultural distance between him and his students. James’ cultural background had emphasized a calm response to escalating conditions; however, when James enacted this type of response toward an angry student, she became angrier at his behavior. James used this example to illustrate that what he might perceive as appropriate because of his background was not always perceived in positive ways by his students, based on cultural differences. This explanation was consistent with the reason James gave for his preferred style of teaching not being effective in his professional environment.

James elaborated upon the same belief and sense of perceived distance between himself and his students later in this same conversation in response to the question, “In what ways can cultural modeling be powerful and/or problematic for either teachers or students?”:

Well it’s problematic for me when I want to teach in a way that’s culturally comprehensible [sic] to students, so sometimes, my vocabulary or what’s in my mind, when I’m trying to be nice or I’m really doing a good job to control my anger or frustration, that’s actually backwards for the student—that’s actually opposite for the student, but I’m not about to start yelling at them or something—that’s something I’ve been working on—that’s classroom management. (11/13/08: 242-247)

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38 Cultural modeling as discussed in the article at the center for the text based discussion (Risko & Walker-Dalhouse, 2007) referred to specific practices in relation to literature and academic instruction, although James chose to respond to cultural issues affecting classroom management rather than academic instruction during the discussion.
James, in his statement, reflected his commitment to his personal beliefs about classroom management despite the cultural incongruence that he perceived between himself and his students. He acknowledged that he attempted to consider cultural differences in his approach to teaching, but, if student perception did not match his own, he was not willing to yield to a perspective that was not true to his own identity.

Both James’s perspectives on instructional approach and teacher-student relationships were informed by his personal image of teaching. However, James recognized that his personal image of teaching was, at many times, incompatible with his professional teaching experiences. He attributed this difference to differences between himself and his students. These differences prompted James to adapt his practice and relationships in ways which allowed him to honor his commitment to his central image of teaching while also responding to the perceived differences he saw between himself and his students.

**Confronted by colleague commitments: is this what teaching is supposed to be?**

For James, the space of the inquiry group presented different perspectives of teacher professional identity from that which James himself possessed. One of the central differences between James and his colleagues in the inquiry group was that James believed in teaching based on doing what one loved with as little effort or compromise as possible. While James supported the work of his colleagues, he saw their commitments and priorities as distinct from his own. He wondered why colleagues struggled with projects or issues that he felt could be simplified or dismissed. As he was in his observation of teachers as a student, James in his observation of his colleagues through their inquiry projects could often be critical, particularly in instances when the stance or commitments of his colleagues were not congruent with his own professional identity.

One example of critical response to a colleague was James’s response to Emily’s project based on a personally reflective writing curriculum. James’s own practice, based heavily on discussion and literary analysis, strongly deemphasized writing, particularly non-expository writing. In responding to Emily, James stated:

One thing that really stands out to me is that I just can’t see myself giving one day a week of my class time to do [the Personal Creed project], right? It seems like too much to sacrifice. It also seems like that’d be difficult to do one day a week in creative writing and do expository writing, although I’m sure that Emily probably scales it back when she has an essay due. This sounds like such a fun project, if we can get them to do it for homework. I don’t see how, well, personally, it seems really difficult to get it in, and spend that much class time on it. (3/12/09: 310-315)

In his critique of the project, James drew upon the notion of time “sacrificed” to personal (or what he calls “creative”) writing. Although acknowledging that the project sounded “fun,” he characterized it as only applicable “if we can get them to do it for homework,” and then immediately afterward seemed dismissive of the project saying, “I don’t see how, well, personally, it seems really difficult to get it in, and spend that much class time on it.” Given James’s emphasis on a discussion-based classroom focused on literary analysis, time spent on writing seemed to sacrifice the time needed to have students engage with literature. Emily had presented her project in the context of her professional commitment to engaging students’ personal beliefs and values in connection with their study of literature. In his comment, James
failed to recognize or acknowledge the professional thinking with which Emily approached her project, dismissing the curriculum as something fun which would necessarily be scaled back when expository writing or other more important demands took precedence.

A second example of a belief which contrasted with James’s own professional identity and prompted him to question a colleague was in relation to a check-in by Beth. At the last meeting of the inquiry group, Beth’s initial teacher check-in expressed her discouragement and upset over a student’s arrest. Beth had worked closely with this student over two years and felt both concerned and demoralized at his difficulties with law enforcement. This check-in prompted James to ask, “Are we supposed to be that tight with our students where we get depressed about what happens to them?” (5/18/09; 62-63). While James believed in the importance of teacher-student relationships in the classroom, he did not perceive the role of a teacher as encompassing personal investment outside of the classroom space. His personal image of teaching focused only on teachers as classroom presenters who directed discussion from the front of a classroom with a book. Personal investment in the lives of students outside of the classroom required teachers to take on a very different stance in relation to their professional identities, one which did not correspond to James’s personal image of teaching, causing him to question Beth’s personal investment as conveyed through her check-in.

A final example of James remarking on the professional commitments of his colleagues can be seen in his response to Duc’s first data presentation during which he outlined his project. James commented:

“I was struck by Duc’s eagerness to meet with up to three students every week—that seems kind of crazy to me, why would I want to do that? Duc must be extremely dedicated. I’m saying this as a positive, like wow. (1/8/09: 251-253)

While James admired Duc’s level of dedication in this statement, he again saw a disconnect between Duc’s practice and his personal image of teaching. James questioned Duc’s investment in his three focal students, including weekly lunchtime meetings centered on strategies for their academic success. Similar to his questioning of Beth, although James had cited relationships as central to his professional identity, he did not see the need to extend relationships in a way that required an ongoing commitment to students outside of class. Duc and Beth’s vision of teacher-student relationships differed from James’ personal image of teaching, and, while James was not openly critical of their efforts, his comments seemed to indicate his surprise at the level of personal investment by his colleagues.

These three examples demonstrated the way that James responded to the practices of his colleagues based on their perceived distance from his own personal image of teaching. James expressed a strong sense of respect for his colleagues in the inquiry group, and his comments, while evaluative, were not necessarily meant to be critical. Rather, James made these comments in a way that seemed to highlight his own distinct teacher professional identity. James did not view the collaborative inquiry group as a space for professional growth so much as a positive way to spend time with colleagues and hear what others were doing in their classroom. While he enjoyed his time in the group, he did not see the particular professional benefits for himself, stating, “I reflect so much already, like why, how necessary is this program for me, if I look at another teacher or something?” (GHS Group Exit Interview 5/09: 197-200). This statement reflected James’ belief in the highly individual nature of teaching, his own professional development, and his teacher professional identity.
Enacting a personal image of teaching: James’s classroom practice.

In my coaching interactions with James and my observations of his practice, James consistently enacted practices grounded in his personal image of teaching. In my coaching role, I was able to observe James teach several times and help him to develop lesson plans for instruction. In all cases of observation, James had an answer that he felt was correct. His goal in his instruction was to move students toward this answer through his instruction. In coaching, James focused on embedding suggested strategies in ways that aligned with his goals of moving students toward particular interpretations of literature or forms of writing, even when these suggestions were made to expand his practice to allow for more authentic student participation.

When James’s instruction was focused on film or literature, he had a particular literary interpretation that he wanted students to arrive at. If students offered alternative analyses of a passage, he might acknowledge their responses in cursory ways, but he would move on until a student volunteered the interpretation that he had made of the literature. If no student arrived at James’s interpretation, one of two things would occur. Either, James would ask leading questions which would move students toward his interpretation or he would volunteer the answer himself and ask students to write his response down in their notes. When I observed James’s teaching in the second half of both school years, students rarely volunteered responses, perhaps waiting for James to give the “correct” interpretation. Although this frustrated James, he continued to reinforce this pattern by emphasizing particular interpretations that he found compelling from the literature.

James’s instruction of writing relied on highly structured and formulaic writing formats. Like many teachers preparing students for the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE), James taught the five-paragraph essay. However, beyond giving students the basic format of the essay (i.e. introduction, three body paragraphs, conclusion), James also wrote out each sentence of the opening and closing paragraphs and the topic sentence of each body paragraph for students, having students fill in the blanks with their ideas. When asked about this, James stated that he had been disappointed with the quality of essays without such explicit structuring and was not sure that students would be able to do the quality of work that he hoped for if he took away such support.

In my coaching, I encouraged James to consider and work with students’ interpretations of literature and encourage student voice in writing, rather than a highly formulaic structure for writing. One specific suggestion that I had for James’s writing instruction was that he move from a rubric that was designed to correlate with his essay format toward a standards aligned rubric. I presented an example for James to consider. James agreed to consider the rubric and a less structured form of essay instruction, but when the next essay came, he used his original format and rubric, stating that he didn’t have enough time to teach or work on the writing necessary for the standards-based rubric. This example represents the way that James and I interacted in coaching sessions. While James actively sought my input on his practice and agreed with many of my ideas in coaching sessions, his practice modified these suggestions to suit his individual professional identity and goals of aligning student literacy practices to his own thinking.

James’s professional identity, in many ways, was the most difficult for me to understand and theorize. However, through understanding James’s personal image of teaching, created through teacher observation as a student, an individually-oriented framework for professional
identity emerged. James showed a strong commitment to his personal image of teaching, even in professional situations that were distinct from the learning situations he encountered as a student. For James, teacher professional identity was a highly individual phenomenon based in his own experiences and negotiated on his own. Any differences between himself and his colleagues were not perceived as impetus to rethink elements of his practice, but as individual differences based on different commitments as teacher professionals.

The Distinct Nature of Dialogically-oriented Teacher Professionals

In this chapter, I have presented evidence of three distinct identity orientations that emerged in the discourse and practice of the teachers in the Goody High focal inquiry group: dialogic, classroom and individual orientations. While all of the focal teachers, according to their interview data, considered themselves to be teacher professionals, their notions of what it meant to be a teacher professional, as reflected in their discourse and enacted in their practice, were characterized by a focus on one of three main sources of identity (individual experiences, classroom practices and external discourses related to teaching and learning). In this discussion of the three professional identity orientations, there were three characteristics of the dialogically-oriented teacher professionals which distinguished them from their classroom and individually-oriented counterparts in ways that had important implications for their professional identities and their practice: 1) bidirectional relationships with external discourses of teaching and learning; 2) a view of oneself as an institutional or systematic agent of change and 3) the ability to make professional choices based on reasoning that extended beyond one’s own experience and influenced classroom practice.

Dialogically-oriented teachers engaged in bidirectional interactions with teaching related discourses outside of their own classroom. I use the term bidirectional here to emphasize that dialogically-oriented teachers drew upon and responded to external frameworks from theory, and local and policy contexts. These teachers also sought to negotiate and influence external discourses through their classroom practice and professional discourse. While classroom and individually-oriented teachers showed an awareness of theory and referred to local and policy contexts related to their professional practice, they rarely did so in a way that responded to or acknowledged these frameworks with a sense that they themselves could influence discourses related to theory and policy through their professional practice or as professionals themselves.

If non-dialogically-oriented teachers indicated that they might make a difference in particular discourses around teaching and learning, their perceived sphere of influence was limited to their own classrooms. Beth provides an example of a classroom-oriented teacher focused on her classroom separate from a site and societal context. While Beth believed that the views of students held by some of her colleagues and in the surrounding community were problematic, she addressed this issue by “worrying about what happens in my four walls…making sure that what I believe in is happening in my classroom because that, I feel like, is really what I can control” (9/09; 39-41). Beth’s response of focusing on her own practice rather than engaging to change the ideas of others indicated her classroom orientation. While Beth worked hard to counter a normative view of students by providing a distinct environment for students, she noted that her influence (“what she could control”) was largely limited to what took place within her own classroom walls.

Dialogically-oriented teachers, in contrast, saw themselves as agents of change in contexts beyond their own classroom, and felt it was their responsibility to change discourses about students and teachers, both at a site level and beyond. An example of active agency to
change discourses around student achievement was evidenced by Annie and Isa’s initiation of the “AP for All” pipeline at Goody High. Through shaping English instruction within their highly heterogeneous visual arts academy into an Advanced Placement pipeline for all students, they challenged normative thinking about skill and motivational prerequisites for entering such advanced classes. Annie and Isa began this program to impact the site discourse and as a means of challenging national norms of exclusion in Advanced Placement classes. Another indication of agency to affect site discourse was Annie’s initiation of the voluntary collaborative inquiry group at Goody High. By starting the inquiry group, Annie shifted the structure, purpose and previous discourse around professional development at the site. The shift in professional development discourse, started by Annie through the focal group, was continued and expanded by Annie and Emily, both dialogically-oriented focal teachers, who successfully motioned their department chair for time during mandatory weekly English department collaboration for cycles of inquiry based on the collaborative inquiry group structure of the parent project. The agency of dialogically-oriented teachers affected their understanding of themselves as teacher professionals, their own classroom practice and larger contexts beyond their classrooms.

Dialogically-oriented teachers were distinct from non-dialogically-oriented teachers in their view of collaboration as a way to strengthen and develop their professional thinking. This view of collaboration allowed dialogically-oriented teachers to articulate reasoning behind their professional choices that moved beyond experience or experimentation. In relating to the classroom practice of others, non-dialogically-oriented teachers tended to take or try resources or practices that fit their professional goals and ignore those that did not, rather than using the models of others as a way to interrogate their professional thinking and push their professional growth. While classroom and individually-oriented teachers appreciated gaining new practices that corresponded to their initial views of teaching, they did not relate to collaboration with colleagues as something necessary for their own professional development or central to their professional identity. Conversely, dialogically-oriented teachers found the exchange of ideas and professional dialogue inherent in collaboration as a necessary part of challenging their professional thinking and pushing them to consider their practice from alternative perspectives. Dialogically-oriented teachers rarely looked for resources or practices divorced from the professional thinking behind these practices. If a strategy were taken from a colleague or professional model, the thinking that made this practice effective was emphasized over the strategy itself. Through engaging with the thinking behind strategies and practice, dialogically-oriented teachers developed a capacity to ground their professional choices in light of the beliefs and commitments central to their professional identity. Given their grounding in theory and position in relation to colleagues, policy and context, dialogically-oriented teachers were able to make professional choices which allowed them to develop, deepen and sustain consistent and coherent classroom practices focused on student achievement.

Teachers of all three orientations were committed to doing what they thought was best for students in their classrooms. Both classroom-oriented and dialogically-oriented teachers thought deeply about their classroom practice and the ways in which their choices related to curriculum and instruction affected their students. However, dialogically-oriented teachers were distinct from their classroom and individually-oriented counterparts in that their professional identities were deeply connected with making a difference for students in discourses that extended beyond their own classrooms, were expressed through their committed acts of agency in relation to these discourses, and were embodied in professional thinking inseparable from professional practice.
Exploring a Connection between Professional Identity and Teacher Education

While the focus of this study is on teacher professional identity as it emerged in early professional practice, the emergence of these three distinct identity orientations leads to questions about how teachers establish an area of emphasis. One relationship that arose from the data, and deserves further investigation, was a link between professional identity orientation and professional pathways into teaching. Table 4.1 shows the areas of emphasis of the focal teachers according to their professional entry pathways.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Professional entry pathway</th>
<th>Professional Identity Orientation</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beth</td>
<td>Teach for America</td>
<td>Classroom Practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molly</td>
<td>Teach for America</td>
<td>Classroom Practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosie</td>
<td>Credential/MAT Program</td>
<td>Dialogic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duc</td>
<td>Credential/MAT Program—Research University</td>
<td>Dialogic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emily</td>
<td>Credential/MA Program—Research University</td>
<td>Dialogic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annie</td>
<td>Credential/MA Program—Research University</td>
<td>Dialogic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isa</td>
<td>Credential/MA Program—Research University</td>
<td>Dialogic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>District Internship Program</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1: Matrix of Professional Entry Pathways/ Sphere of Emphasis

As the table indicates, the two teachers, Molly and Beth, who, based on the data, were classified as classroom-oriented teachers, both entered teaching through Teach for America. The five teachers who entered teaching through a traditional pre-service program at a research university (four of whom were participated in the credentialing program through the research university where the collaborative inquiry group parent project was housed) were dialogically-oriented. The four teachers from the program at the parent university all noted that the collaborative inquiry group was an extension of the reflective practice that they had engaged in as part of their Masters/Credential program. James, classified as an individually-oriented teacher, entered teaching through a district internship program. Given the implications of each identity orientation for classroom practice and understanding of teacher professionalism, these initial correlations are important to note.

While the correlation indicated by Table 4.1 gives evidence of a possible relationship between preservice teacher education and professional identity orientation, the link between professional entry pathways and professional identity was not the focus of this particular study. However, the connection between ongoing teacher education (or professional development) and teacher professional identity as structured through professional development activities was a central lens of this research. In the next chapter, I explore the relationship between particular

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39 Rosie, the teacher who obtained her MAT/Credential from a different graduate Education program in a different state did not see the group as an extension of her teacher education program. Rosie entered teaching through a traditional pre-service program, but concurrently worked full time as part of a separate internship program with local schools. In her year 1 exit interview data, Rosie indicated that teacher research was not a part of her credentialing program and in Inquiry meeting data (5/08: 45-54), she similarly stated that the group was her first introduction to collaborative inquiry (10/4/07: 10-20). Although I was unable to conduct a follow-up interview with Rosie, her inquiry based data and exit interview data from year 1 indicated a dialogic orientation.

40 District internship program refers to a non-traditional form of professional entry into teaching in which teachers are sponsored by a district to obtain their credential while full-time teaching in the district. The district sponsors the teacher to complete credentialing requirements while the teacher works. Teach for America is also an internship program, as teachers work full time while obtaining their teaching credential, however TFA is distinct from most internship programs because of its intense recruitment among highly competitive undergraduate institutions.
structures of professional development in the collaborative inquiry group and the professional identity of the focal teachers, as expressed in the inquiry group setting.
Chapter 5
Professional Identity in Interaction

In this final results chapter, I show how identity is influenced in non-neutral spaces. Individuals exist in social spaces which often encourage emphasis on a particular type of identity. I focus here on the professional identity environment of the collaborative inquiry group meetings as a setting designed to promote dialogue among new teachers. Within this space, I found that teachers of all three orientations engaged in forms of dialogic interaction; however, the extent of these interactions related to their general orientations outside the professional development setting.  

I begin this chapter by examining the various ways in which dialogic interactions occurred among all teachers during inquiry meetings. Following my analysis of trends in the overall meeting data related to dialogic interaction, I focus on specific examples of dialogic interaction in inquiry-based discussions by Molly and James, focal teachers who emphasized other areas of their professional identities outside of inquiry group meetings. I then consider the way that text-based discussions, in explicitly providing a theoretical or practical framework for professional practice, engendered dialogically-oriented discussion on the part of all participating teachers. Additionally, I discuss meeting structures and the roles of other discussion participants (including colleagues and the facilitator) as factors which promoted the dialogic interaction that occurred throughout group meetings.

Dialogic Emphasis in Meetings

Before examining the ways in which inquiry meetings provided opportunities for dialogic interaction among focal teachers in the group, I will briefly remind the reader of the main categories of responses given during inquiry data protocols, as these responses constitute one of the central data sources used for analysis in the chapter. Practice-based comments refer to classroom resources offered in relation to inquiry topics. Internally dialogic comments were broken into two subcategories based on emphasis: classroom-based dialogic comments were comments which were classroom strategies that could also provide project-related data; inquiry-based dialogic comments were suggestions for inquiry data collection that relied on or incorporated existing elements of classroom practice. I labeled both types of internally dialogic comments as such because they relied upon the relationship between inquiry and classroom practice to inform one another, making them internally dialogic in nature. Finally, inquiry-based comments were feedback that focused exclusively on inquiry. Generally these comments were made in reference to a specific piece of data or data collection artifact.

Of the three types of comments, practice-based comments were the least likely to promote dialogic interaction because they consisted of offering classroom resources to the inquirer. While these resources were appreciated by presenters and sometimes integrated into classroom practice, resource-based comments were generally unidirectional. In contrast, dialogic and inquiry-based feedback, whether based in instruction or investigation, provided opportunities for ongoing reflection through the introduction of a new perspective contributed by a colleague or

41 Dialogic interaction is used here as an umbrella term to discuss bi-directional forms of communication. When this communication was between colleagues, it was a dialogue. However, teachers often responded to texts or data in a way that informed their thinking about their practice, but in ways that also challenged the ideas of the text or questioned the data. These types of interactions were also considered to be dialogic in nature.

42 A full discussion of coding categories is included in the data analysis section of chapter 2
through the lens of inquiry itself. Because of the tendency for internally dialogic and inquiry-based feedback to promote ongoing opportunities for dialogic interaction, both these types of comments are referred to as dialogically-oriented comments.

Table 5.1 indicates the general breakdown by comment type of responses during inquiry protocols over the two years of the focal group:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Practice-Based Feedback</th>
<th>Internally Dialogic Feedback: Classroom-based</th>
<th>Internally Dialogic Feedback: Inquiry-based</th>
<th>Inquiry-based Feedback</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of comments</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of comments</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 Breakdown of Data Protocol Feedback Comments by Category

As the table demonstrates, dialogically-oriented comments were dominant in inquiry-based data protocols. While 13% of feedback was specifically practice-based, 50% of feedback was internally dialogic and another 30% was inquiry-based. In other words, 80% of comments during inquiry protocol time were dialogically-oriented. This initial breakdown of feedback responses given by focal teachers seemed to indicate a strong pull toward dialogic interaction in the data portions of meetings. Additionally, when the breakdown of feedback comments during data protocols was done by individual, all teachers tended toward dialogically-oriented responses, regardless of their general identity orientation (see Table 5.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Practice-Based Feedback</th>
<th>Dialogic Feedback</th>
<th>Inquiry-based Feedback</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Dialogically-oriented</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Molly</td>
<td>14:42%</td>
<td>8: 24%</td>
<td>5:15%</td>
<td>4:12%</td>
<td>2:6%</td>
<td>17:51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosie</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10:45%</td>
<td>5:23%</td>
<td>7:32%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22:100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isa</td>
<td>Yr 1: 1:5% Yr 2: 5:20%</td>
<td>Yr 1:8:38%</td>
<td>Yr 1: 4:19%</td>
<td>Yr 1:8:38%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20:95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yr 2:10:40%</td>
<td>Yr 2: 2:8%</td>
<td>Yr 2:8:32%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20:80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emily</td>
<td>Yr 1: 1:6% Yr 2: 2:6%</td>
<td>Yr 1: 5:31%</td>
<td>Yr 1:3:19%</td>
<td>Yr 1:7:44%</td>
<td>Yr 2:14:43%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yr 2: 6:18%</td>
<td>Yr 2: 11:33%</td>
<td>Yr 2: 2:8%</td>
<td>Yr 2:5:22%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annie</td>
<td>Yr 1: 1:5% Yr 2: 5:22%</td>
<td>Yr 1:11:52%</td>
<td>Yr 1:2:10%</td>
<td>Yr 1:7:33%</td>
<td>Yr 2: 2:9%</td>
<td>20:95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yr 2: 7:30%</td>
<td>Yr 2: 4:17%</td>
<td>Yr 2: 5:22%</td>
<td>Yr 2: 2:9%</td>
<td>16:69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beth</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3:37.5%</td>
<td>1: 12.5%</td>
<td>4:50%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8:100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duc</td>
<td>2: 12%</td>
<td>10: 58%</td>
<td>2:12%</td>
<td>2:12%</td>
<td>1:6%</td>
<td>14:82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>1: 5%</td>
<td>6:26%</td>
<td>2:9%</td>
<td>7:30%</td>
<td>7:30%</td>
<td>15:65%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 Breakdown of Data Protocol Feedback Comments by Individual

The tendency of all teachers toward dialogically-oriented feedback during data protocols, indicated by Table 5.2, again is consistent with the nature of the professional development

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43 As noted in Table 5.3, the four main category codes allowed me to code nearly 95% of the comments made by teachers in the focal group during data protocol sessions. A few comments, however, fell outside of these four larger categories into an “other” category which encompassed evaluative comments as well as comments that were not related specifically to giving feedback to the presenter him/herself. The creation of the “other” category allowed for all the data responses by all the case-study teachers to be coded for accurately.

44 Total dialogically-oriented comments were calculated by totaling the number and percentage of internally dialogic feedback comments and inquiry-based feedback comments.

45 The data in the table is recorded as number of responses followed by percentage of total responses for each category. For example, in the first cell of the table (Molly) 14:42% means that 14 of Molly’s comments or 42% of her overall total comments were in the category “practice-based feedback.”
setting as one which promoted dialogic interaction. I will now look more closely at the nature of the dialogic interactions which took place during data-based protocols, focusing on James and Molly, the two teachers who were cited as examples of individually-oriented and classroom-oriented professionals in the last chapter. By focusing on these two teachers, I will show that dialogic interaction was often nuanced according to particular emphases of the teacher professional participating in the interaction. Analyzing the interactions of these two teachers also allows me to connect particular dialogically-oriented comments to evidence of professional growth for each teacher.

**Dialogic Interaction in Data-Based Protocols**

Although Molly and James generally emphasized the classroom practice or individual aspects of their professional identities, both teachers participated in regular forms of dialogic interaction during inquiry group meetings. For Molly, dialogic interaction was most apparent in her feedback responses to colleagues when participating in their data protocols. In contrast, James’s participation in dialogic interaction seemed to occur more regularly when the group was looking at the data around his inquiry specifically. While both teachers participated in dialogic interactions during meetings, both also drew from their areas of professional emphasis (classroom-oriented and individually-oriented, respectively) in these interactions, demonstrating the enduring nature of their identity orientations even within a space which provided structures that privileged a more dialogic orientation.

**Molly: the emergence of dialogic interaction in protocol participation.**

Although she was the teacher who by far offered the most practice-based feedback during inquiry protocols, Molly’s participation in the focal collaborative inquiry group was never purely classroom-oriented. As indicated in the breakdown of practice-based v. dialogically-oriented comments, her participation in inquiry protocols indicated a slight tendency toward dialogically-oriented comments. In looking carefully at Molly’s feedback, I found that the nature of her comments matched the types of feedback requested by presenters. In early data protocols which centered on data collection and preliminary analysis, presenters often requested both practice-based resources and inquiry-based suggestions. The nature of presenter requests for feedback allowed Molly to ground her comments in classroom-practice as she learned the process of inquiry; however, even in early meetings Molly made comments which connected inquiry and practice. Further, I found that Molly tended to build upon or connect to the comments made just previous to hers. In this way, the orientation of Molly’s comments shifted according to the types of comments made during protocols, demonstrating the importance of the dialogue and context itself to Molly’s meeting participation.

**Connecting with others: dialogic interaction with dialogically-oriented colleagues.**

In the year one group in which Molly participated, she was the only teacher who was not described as dialogically-oriented based on her overall data set. This group composition, with a predominance of dialogically-oriented teachers, was important in the way that presenters often framed their requests for feedback and thought about the data presented. Molly, in her protocol

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46 This pattern of building upon and extending previous comments was not uncommon in the focal group, as will be apparent in several of the citations in this section. I examined this pattern itself in a previous study based on the year 1 group **Invalid source specified**, but for the sake of this analysis, it is examined for the ways in which it influenced Molly’s participation in respect to the orientation of her comments.
responses, tended both to honor the feedback requests of presenters and to build upon the comments of her colleagues in the inquiry group. This meant that the nature of these requests and the nature of the dialogue in meetings were particularly important to Molly’s participation.

My first example of Molly’s pattern of building upon the comments of others to ground her own participation in dialogic interactions comes from Rosie’s first data protocol. For her inquiry protocol, Rosie framed the discussion by asking for both practice-based and inquiry-based feedback. Rosie asked for both resources related to vocabulary assessment and alternate lenses with which she might examine her preliminary data. One example of a dialogic interaction in which Molly participated during this protocol came at the end of a series of comments made by Annie and me:

Annie: [Referring to vocabulary instruction sheet with boxes for various activities: drawing, synonyms, definition, sentences, etc.] I’m wondering, if they’re [students] using this to study, let’s say you’re quizzing them on a word, and they don’t know it, so it’s like a call a friend, you can have them give them one part of the vocabulary card as a hint. So if they say they’d like the image, you show them the image. That might help see, what is most useful for students about this vocabulary method.

Betina: Yeah, and that might even be able to be done by students, in partners, like give your partner a word and if they don’t know it, ask them one part that you’d want them to tell you.

Annie: Yeah, and that could be used as a form of research—like having students collect research; asking them to write down or check off which pieces of information their partner asked for each time and keeping track; and having students focus on that part of the box when studying.

Molly: Yeah, like there are certain words that students always seem to remember and I’m not sure why. Like loquacious. Students always seem to remember and I wonder if you can transfer the way those words stay with students to other words. It would be cool to be able to find out what it is about those words that stay with students and how you could harness that and apply that. (1/11/08: 172-189)

In this set of responses, Annie and I both began with practice-based feedback based on Rosie’s existing vocabulary instructional practices, which Annie then extended to connect with inquiry-based feedback, in tying the practice of quizzing students to a suggestion for research or data collection. Molly used Annie’s comment as a starting point for her own thinking, that led to another suggestion for inquiry related to investigating how students learned and remembered particular words, the knowledge of which could then be applied to future instruction.

In the passage above, Molly offered internally-dialogic feedback in response to Rosie’s inquiry. Molly built upon previous practice-related comments to develop a line of thinking from Rosie’s inquiry that could both contribute to Rosie’s thinking about her inquiry and more broadly impact a general understanding of students’ retention of vocabulary. Molly drew upon her own classroom practice, but extended her thinking to offer inquiry related feedback as well.

As the inquiry process of the group moved through data collection to focus more on data analysis, the framing of discussions became more explicitly centered on interpretation,
promoting a more inquiry-focused type of dialogic interaction. Molly’s comments also tended to shift accordingly. An example of Molly’s shift toward inquiry-focused interaction can be seen in looking at a comment made during Isa’s second inquiry protocol (3/6/08). Isa had collected much of her classroom-based data on the topic of promoting resilience among a lower-achieving senior English class, and was looking for particular inquiry-based feedback. Isa framed the discussion by asking for inquiry-based feedback: “Are there any other trends I should be looking for in the students’ writing assignments? Are there any findings in the survey summaries? And, what students should I interview and what questions should I ask in the interviews?” (459-462).

In response to Isa’s request for inquiry-based feedback, Molly began the discussion time with a possible interpretation for Isa’s data:

I just had a quick thought that maybe came to mind, because these are seniors, and this was done, the more and more we get toward the end of the year, with senioritis and having things change. Like, if you [Isa] notice, maybe they're more concerned about graduating so 21% said that they’d study hard if they got an F on a test in the beginning and 43% said it now, so maybe they're realizing that their grades really do count, but if you look at the essay due and 17% they don't care, where 3% say they do, maybe you could say that senioritis is playing a role in their changing, some of these scores, how they’re changing, maybe they’re more excited about the end and not caring as much, that could be a possible finding. (3/6/08: 565-573)

Molly’s comment here was one of the few examples of purely inquiry-based feedback that she gave during her participation in the group. Her feedback was given in direct response to Isa’s framing questions about findings and directions for interview questions. Molly referred solely to the data Isa had presented to the group and did not refer to classroom instruction or suggestions for practice. Instead Molly offered a possible interpretation for the data changes over time. Molly sought to inform Isa’s thinking around her inquiry, not in a way that connected directly with Isa’s classroom practice, but in a way that allowed Isa to consider external contextual factors as important to affecting her data. Molly’s comment was highly dialogic in nature in that it considered an external discourse around being a senior at the end of the school year and the way that discourse could affect students’ perceptions of classroom learning.

Molly’s final comment during the same protocol discussion came at the very end of the discussion after a series of comments. Previous to Molly’s final comment, Annie had questioned whether Isa’s goal was for students to demonstrate resilience or to demonstrate an understanding or perspective about resilience and wondered how this might be measured. Rosie had followed Annie’s comment with further suggestions about how Isa might measure resilience. In this context, Molly made the final feedback response of the protocol:

Yeah, it's just like the UBD [Understanding by Design] design, and the essential design question, like your whole class is supposed to be driven by one question and every unit has sub-questions related to that, like everything you read, and everything you write always ties back to it and that's like every teacher's hope is that whatever your big, big goal is, based on whatever you do in class, if you want to change the world, or if they want to be compassionate, they actually have to see it in writing—I really like Annie's idea a lot (3/6/08: 695-700)
Molly then extended Rosie’s previous comment about measurement to discuss the principle of backwards unit design according to an essential question or goal, referring both back to Annie’s original idea of the underlying principle of resilience and aligning questions, readings and writing activities to this single goal and invoking an external framework, the Understanding by Design backwards planning model. Molly’s comment was based in classroom practice and anchored in unit design. In this way, her comment reflected her classroom-oriented professional identity including a central belief in measurable outcomes for student development. However, her comment also connected to an external framework with a particular teaching-related discourse (UBD model) and the comment of a colleague (Annie), making it another example of dialogic interaction. Molly’s comment suggested a way that Isa’s project could help push her thinking about her classroom in the future, similar to the purpose of her earlier inquiry-based response to Isa. Throughout this protocol, Molly’s comments both supported her own classroom-oriented identity that relied strongly on classroom data as a measure of teacher effectiveness and allowed her to engage in particular types of dialogic interaction to push the thinking of her colleagues.

In these examples from both protocols, Molly’s feedback comments built upon the comments or questions immediately preceding hers. With the exception of the comment that she began the discussion with in Isa’s protocol, all of Molly’s feedback comments were extensions of previous comments made by her colleagues or the facilitator. The nature of these comments by her colleagues affected the nature of the comments that Molly made in connection with them. Molly’s comments were most often related to classroom practice, reflecting her general identity orientation; however, her feedback also integrated inquiry-based connections according to the nature of the discussion in which she participated. Further, Molly’s comments were dialogic in that they drew from inquiry and classroom practice to inform the thinking of the data presenter, and often also helped Molly to reconsider her own practice in some way. Molly stated that learning from her participation in the inquiry processes of her colleagues was one of the main benefits of collaborative inquiry in terms of her own teaching practice (5/08: 31-32). Within inquiry meetings, while Molly’s participation (particularly in relation to her own inquiry) was deeply rooted in classroom practice and her own beliefs in data outcomes as reflective of teacher effectiveness, she also grew to regularly integrate dialogic aspects of her identity, particularly in her feedback to colleagues.

James: to be or not to be dialogic—the pull of an individual identity orientation.

For James, moments of dialogic interaction also occurred during inquiry protocols. However, the nature of James’s participation in these interactions was different from that of Molly. During the inquiry protocols of his colleagues, James often tried to connect his own practice or his personal image of teaching with that of others in the group. James’s comments did not necessarily honor the feedback framing given by presenters, but they connected to the topic of investigation in a way that allowed him to introduce aspects of his personal image of teaching or connect his own goals.

A second form of dialogic interaction also arose for James in data protocols around his own inquiry project, particularly in his first data protocol. In his response to the discussion of his

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47 Backwards unit design or backwards planning is based on a model proposed by Wiggins and McTighe (2005) in which teachers begin their planning by thinking about short and longer term instructional goals and assessments, designing their lessons to meet those objectives.
colleagues, James made several references to the ways in which feedback from the group allowed him to view his classroom practice in new and compelling ways. Based on this feedback, in the inquiry meeting, James stated that rather than simply going through the motions of inquiry, he would, from that point, reframe his question to authentically investigate his practice in a way that would push him to grow professionally. However, between James’s first and second data protocols, there was no indication of such a shift. James’s general approach to the process of inquiry was consistent with his individually-oriented professional identity, despite moments of dialogic interactions that he engaged in within meetings themselves.

**Examples of dialogic interaction during participation in the data protocols of others.**

James’s participation in the inquiry protocols of others was interesting because of the variation of types of comment across categories, including the “other” category (cf. Table 5.2). These “other” comments mainly referred to comments which evaluated the work of his colleagues according to James’s personal image of teaching, but did not offer a resource for practice nor a suggestion for inquiry. An example of this type of feedback came in response to Isa’s first data protocol, during which she requested both classroom based ideas for thematic activities related to her next unit and feedback related to patterns in the data. Instead, James began the comments by stating, “I’m definitely interested to see the outcome of this project. I wanted to do basically this same thing—trying to get students to write essays and stuff for me, at least, or be engaged in that sense” (11/13/08: 484-486). James, in this comment, aligned his classroom goals to those of Isa’s inquiry in a way which evaluated Isa’s project positively, but did not respond to her feedback requests or contribute to professional thinking. James, in each of his colleagues’ protocols in which he participated, gave some sort of evaluation of their project which spoke explicitly to the relevance of the project in relation to some aspect of his practice. These comments were “pseudo-dialogic” in nature because they attempted to connect James’s discourse about teaching to that of his colleagues; however, they were classified as “other” because truly dialogic comments included an aspect of bi-directionality and ongoing discourse or opportunities for further professional thinking. 48

While there were an unusually large percentage of comments that were coded “other” in James’s feedback response data, approximately 2/3 of James’s comments mirrored the types of comments that his colleagues made, fitting into the four categories based on response to practice and inquiry. These more common types of comments made by James often were dialogically-oriented. James made one such comment in response to Isa’s first data protocol, in which he had a suggestion for practice, inquiry and professional development:

I’m sure it won’t work, but I think it’d be really, really fun, if instead of interviewing students after they did the assignment, if you could present different assignments to them and have them choose the assignments beforehand and what would be even cooler is if we could get all of us teaching different assignments that we’re good at on videotape and we could put that all together and then we could show that to the students and have them choose which one, I don’t know, I think that would be—I’m sure that’s not going to work, but that would be really fun. I’m sure we all do, even, if not for Isa, but for me and for us, I’m sure that we all—I’m sure that you all do fantastic things with essays that I

48 Further examples of James’s evaluative comments are discussed as a way that he constructed his own professional identity as distinct from those of his colleagues in chapter 4.
have no idea and I struggle with it every marking period, trying to find an effective way to teach an essay (11/13/08: 732-740)

Here, James began with a hypothetical practice-based suggestion that he was not fully confident about (“I’m sure it won’t work, but…”) and then moved quickly into a suggestion for both investigation and practice connected to building a greater site discourse of collaboration. James sought here to share with students what colleagues in the department felt were their strengths and have students choose lessons based on viewing a teacher teach in their area of strength. This proposal was grounded in James’s belief in the competence of his colleagues in the English department at Goody High. Particularly in the last four lines of the excerpt (beginning with “I’m sure we all do…”), James attempted to connect his practice with the practice of his colleagues as a way to promote his own professional growth, in this case, in teaching the essay. In this passage, James referred to the expertise of the group at the site and how through sharing actual “best practices” (not simply resource-based, but in the context of practice), his own practice might grow. He also added that this would benefit student engagement, giving them a choice of assignments based on the instructional practices beyond one’s own classroom.

James’s suggestion was an example of dialogic interaction on several levels. First, James attempted to connect the practice of others to his own practice in a way that would potentially shape and improve it by stating one of his own perceived weaknesses (teaching the essay) and referring the collective knowledge and strengths within the focal group to help balance respective strengths and weaknesses amongst them. James’s comment also integrated the idea of using videotape as a way for classroom practice to inform later classroom practice. Finally, in his proposed model, the classroom practices of colleagues would inform one another’s practices and understandings of engagement as students chose particularly interesting activities from the teacher models presented to them.

James’s response to Beth’s second data protocol was a second example of a dialogically-oriented comment. Referring to the portfolio project that Beth had constructed as a way to empower students, James commented:

I was struck by looking at the different portfolios how similar the different assignments seem and I'm wondering if [Beth] could vary the types of assignments, if possible, because are there other ways they can write or accumulate information that would empower them as much as writing about their second and third most influential people in their lives? Are there other ways for them to write a narrative piece or something else? I always thought writing a resume was really empowering for students and it's not that hard if you get a good resume and use that as a template. (3/5/09: 653-659)

In this comment, a practice-based suggestion based on the project data that Beth had presented, James used his observation of the similarity of assignment types within the portfolio to anchor his thoughts about an expanded notion of “empowering” forms of writing that included a narrative piece or a workplace document, such as a resume. James partially based his comments in his own practice in reference to resume writing that he had found to be empowering for students, but he drew upon his practice, similar to the ways in which Molly did in her group participation, to push the thinking of the presenter about her own practice. In this way, James’s
comment was dialogically-oriented in that it presented an external perspective on inquiry-based data as a way to affect classroom practice of the inquirer.

James’s comments during data protocols drew from the area of dialogic interaction in both a similar and different way from those of Molly, and in a way that, I argue, is consistent with his individual identity. James, like Molly, drew upon his own practice at times, to push the thinking of his colleagues. He also expressed a willingness to draw from his strengths to contribute to colleagues and allow them to contribute to his areas for improvement. Unlike Molly, however, James’s comments did not tend to build upon those of his colleagues. Nor was James’s participation in the data protocols of his colleagues always grounded in their questions about their practice or their inquiry. In fact, James often began responding to protocols through an individually-oriented evaluation, before moving to more dialogically-oriented feedback.

The dialogic nature of self-inquiry in group meetings.

What was particularly interesting in James’s data was the way in which his thinking during his first inquiry protocol displayed a strong sense of dialogic interaction. In my analysis of this inquiry protocol, I have chosen to proceed chronologically through the protocol in order to demonstrate the dialogic interaction as it developed during the meeting. While within the meeting, there is a clear shift in James’s orientation toward his inquiry, this shift is not maintained outside of the meetings between his first and second data protocols, as evidenced by James’s participation in his second inquiry protocol. Following my discussion of both protocols, I argue that James’s participation, while indicating a dialogic aspect of his professional identity, was consistent with his emphasis on the individual source of his professional identity.

James began his first protocol around his data by introducing what he had brought and his hope that the group would contribute directly to his inquiry: “I gave these surveys….So, now what you’re going to do is you’re going to help me decipher this writing. You’re going to help me figure out…..I mean, compile, so I don’t have to do it myself‖ (1/8/09: 454-462). Although James had participated in two data protocols prior to his own, he began his data protocol completely deviating from the stated protocol in which the presenter is supposed to share: “his/her inquiry-in-progress [including] research question/focus; context; overview of his/her inquiry process; question, struggle-what he/she wants group to think about when looking at the data” (BAYCES Inquiry Protocol). James provided the group no context for his research question or the lens with which we were to regard the data. In James’s view, the inquiry protocol was designed to help him and he requested help was through an initial perspective on the data. Similar to his personal image of teaching, James’s view of inquiry, seemed based on maximizing personal satisfaction and benefit (in gaining resources and help from colleagues) with minimal investment.

As facilitator, I asked James to return to the protocol and provide context for the survey, the research question and the way that the project fit into the larger framework of his instruction. James did so, beginning by stating his question as, “If I replace 1/3 of the text in my classroom that we read, with film, are my students, am I helping or hurting my students academically?” (1/8/09: 474-477). I then prompted James to give some classroom context, after which he explained the unit in which the data was embedded in and plans for future curriculum. At the

49 Although James used the word “compile,” he had already done an initial compilation of data and had survey results in aggregate form for teachers to examine as well as written responses on surveys which was the data that he hoped teachers would help him “compile” or understand.
end of the introduction, I asked James to tell the group the type of feedback he would like in terms of the data he was presenting to the group. He did not have a clear sense of the feedback he might like at this initial point, saying:

I don’t know. I haven’t really had much time to look at the results. I just finished putting them together today because I gave out the surveys this week and the unit concluded last Thursday, the Thursday before the break. I think that these results are biased based on the students’ desire to watch as much movies as possible….I have tests here that I haven’t looked at and if I have a hypothesis, or if I have a theory, I think that they’re going to score better on the movie quizzes than they did on the previous tests. Also, if you guys feel like it, you guys can give me some feedback on my tests, which I’ve struggled with for a year and a half. I will give you a group that will have two or three students and you’ll have their previous tests and you can take a look and check them out. (1/8/09: 498-510)

James handed out to the group two sets of tests (one on literature and one on his prior movie unit) and aggregated data from the initial surveys on film. In James’s presentation of the data, he had some initial ideas, but lacked a cohesive framework in relation to his “inquiry question” which was also not fully formulated despite the fact that he had begun collecting initial data. 50 Because James himself was not certain what he was looking at, his initial request of the group was to make sense of the data for him. In his presentation, he pointed to an initial hypothesis (or data hunch) that he had before looking at his evidence and noted the limitations of his data (“I think that these results are biased based on the students’ desire to watch as much movies as possible”). He also requested feedback on the format of tests, a second element of his practice only somewhat related to his actual inquiry question. Again, although James did not know what to think about his data and had not fully examined it, he hoped that the group discussion would help him to understand his results, his practice or his inquiry in different ways.

During the questioning period, the five questions that teachers had for James had elements of both clarifying and probing. Despite James’s very broad introduction to the data, the questions asked by group members were focused specifically on James’s inquiry and the connection between film and promoting academic and analytic skills traditionally associated with written texts. These questions were all also asked by group participants who came from a dialogically-oriented framework of inquiry. 51 In this initial questioning period, James began to establish a clearer framework for his inquiry, and an explicit hypothesis around the use of film as a tool for engagement and a text for analysis. Three key questions and James’s response to these questions are excerpted below to demonstrate this shift.

50 James was not unusual in not having a clearly formed question at this stage in the inquiry process, but was unusual in asking the group to interpret data without an initial hypothesis. Questions evolved throughout data collection and through issues which arose in inquiry protocols for many participants.
51 During this particular meeting, Kelly, one of the Assistant Principals at the site, who was an alumna of the inquiry group’s parent project from another site where she participated as a teacher, was invited to sit-in and participate in the meeting. She is described as coming from a teacher praxis-oriented framework because, although I do not have extended evidence of her particular teacher identity orientation, she had previously completed the same credential program as the 4 praxis-oriented teachers in the group in addition to participating in the praxis-oriented parent project.
Annie began the questioning period by asking James for clarification specifically in relation to a survey question which stated, “Rate the academic skills that you learned while watching film in the Disney unit, as compared to what you would’ve learned in a two-week short story unit”.

Annie: On your film survey results for number 6, do you have an idea of, where students rate the academic skills, do you have a list of the academic skills, like your objectives or what you want them to learn?

James: No, well, I told them what the objectives were before hand, but it was more to socially educate you and media literacy, I said something about that, and also to learn how to study a film like a short story [pause] but as far as academic skills, they should, if they’re being honest, I feel like that answer should be much lower because, I don’t know, maybe not. I know that an observer who came in for 5 minutes and watched us watching a film would probably think, “What are we learning in this class?” not that I just sit there and play a film and sit in a chair. (1/8/09: 516-525)

In this first question, Annie began by asking whether students were clear on specific academic objectives which James had for them in relation to the film unit, pushing James to think about how transparent his goals were for his students. James addressed this by noting that while he gave students “general” objectives related to social education and media literacy as well as “to learn how to study a film like a short story,” he did not give them specific academic skills and he did not feel that students were clear on the academic skills covered in the unit. He also noted that these skills would not be transparent to an observer entering the class. James indicated that he had objectives and did not just “play a film and sit in a chair,” but he was not clear in this first question as to what his specific goals were in relation to his use of film as opposed to text. This question-answer interaction began to help James think about these objectives more explicitly.

James was then asked about the relation and transference of academic goals for short stories and films in the unit by Isa, to which he responded that film had been the only text in the unit and there hadn’t been a basis for analysis of such transference. Following Isa’s question, James was asked directly by Kelly for any hypotheses he might have about how the use of film might help students:

Kelly: So, the question, if I replace 1/3 of the text, the big picture question, would it hurt, and so do you have any hypotheses around how it would help?

James: Yeah, I got a lot. I think that just—I’m not surprised at all by these results. I mean, look at number 2, how would you rate the quality of your class work for the Disney film unit, 33, 33, 33 very high, whereas number 4 [the same question for their “normal” stuff], we got a little high with 43, but high and very high are much lower and I think the students are being biased for number 2, but I do think that’s an accurate reflection of their work and how attentive they’re being—it’s not hard to tell. Every time I teach a unit, I ask myself, “Why don’t I only do movies?” because it seems that they

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52 Academic skills were distinguished from “general skills” which were asked about in the subsequent question and defined as “knowledge that would not help you on a district test”.

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learn so much, they gain so much. You know when you teach a short story to students and there’s something basic that they really need to understand and they just miss it, and you try to point it out and you try to help them—maybe it’s just a bad class day, sometimes they can get it, but they weren’t missing it with the movie—I’d ask a question and I’d have 10 responses and that’s always the case with the film. The only problem I ever have with the film is at the beginning they give me some flack about stopping the movie—they want to sit back and have popcorn time, but once it’s established that that’s not going to happen and they understand they have to watch this—they have to spend just as much, if not more, effort studying this, as with a short story, then that works out pretty well and I say more, because they can get better and deeper into the movie, however, they’re better at watching movies—they’re really good at watching movies and they’re not really good at reading stories. (1/8/09: 537-557)

In this passage, when asked directly for his hypothesis about the effects of the use of film for students, James responded that, based on both anecdotal evidence from his experience (i.e. his perceptions of engagement, attentiveness and quality of work) and the initial survey evidence (despite possible student biases), he felt film was both an effective tool for engagement. More importantly, students were able to analyze the basic elements common to text in film, which they commonly missed with written text. James also emphasized the eagerness of students to participate in discussions regarding film as opposed to text: “I’d ask a question and I’d have 10 responses and that’s always the case with film.” Finally, James noted that because students had more skills at movie watching, he was able to “get better and deeper into the movie,” indicating a deeper level of analytical capacity because of students’ greater facility with film as opposed to traditional texts, of which James noted, “they’re not really good at reading stories.”

James, while drawing upon his own experiences in the classroom to address Kelly’s question, did so to begin to construct a practically based framework within which he could situate his inquiry. This framework was consistent with his professional identity that privileged a personal image of teaching based on discussion and analysis. Through interaction, James began to clarify the ways in which his classroom practices reflected the beliefs and values he had in relation to students’ skills of analysis. In this sense, James actively constructed through interaction his professional identity related to the practice of showing film in class and was able to communicate it to his colleagues.

In response to Kelly’s question, James began to address more specifically his rationale behind using film in his classroom. While this rationale strongly tied to his personal image of teaching, it also situated James’s classroom instructional choices within a larger framework of promoting engagement and analytical skills to which colleagues could connect. This larger framework allowed his colleagues to offer support to James through his inquiry. James began to think about using his study as a means to investigate this initial connection he perceived between analytical skills in response to film and those necessary for text.

Isa continued to probe James on his goals, based on the connection of film with text, allowing James to clarify his thinking further to the group:

Isa: So, do you want to look more at, if, because it seems like you already have a hunch that they learn more or better through film, but do you want to look more at if it translates to short stories, or ways to translate it, if that same skill transfers?
James: Right, if the skills they pick up from watching a movie, if they can then use those on a CAHSEE test, the same analytical skills they’ll use in other, yeah definitely—I mean, if they can’t transfer them, clearly I shouldn’t be showing movies—I’m not trying to train them to do well in a college movie class that they might take—I want them to be using these skills, be able to transfer these skills to other, so that is a main question.

(1/8/09: 560-567)

James, in response to Isa’s question, further specified his goals and clarified the relationship that he saw between text-based and film-based skills, saying that he hoped that these analytical skills would be more transferrable, not to a “college movie class that they might take,” but in relation to the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) and the analytical skills required of students in relation to reading comprehension and analysis. James saw analytical skills as important for his students’ success and sought to use film as a means of transferring these skills to his students, and in this way, justified his use of film in the classroom. This final response during the questioning time moved James away from the experience-based practice of showing film and how students responded or were successful in that particular genre of interpretation or analysis toward the implications of using these skills to transfer to more academic or traditional texts.

In this short three question excerpt, James moved from handing data to the group with no clear framework for analysis to articulating the theory behind his use of film in the classroom through dialogic interaction. Using James’s practice of showing film in class as a starting point, his colleagues’ questions began to help James deconstruct the underlying values and goals of his instruction and his inquiry participation. At the end of the 7-minute question section of the protocol, James had articulated all of the key points associated with his personal image of teaching to his colleagues. He had also distinguished how his inquiry could support establishing this type of classroom by connecting the skills necessary in film analysis to those important to literary analysis. James had seen students’ willingness to engage in the discussion of thematic ideas and interpretations around film. If students could transfer these skills to text, James could enact the literary discussion environment that he sought to emulate.

From the questioning period, James’s colleagues moved to discuss James’s inquiry project without James’s participation, as expected in the protocol. At the end of the discussion time, James was given the opportunity to respond to the discussion that had taken place, as the presenter. The excerpts below are taken from James’s response to his colleagues’ discussion, during which he referred back to several of their comments:

I like the idea about changing my question. I feel like my question is easy. I feel like for me, the answer is yes, and I know it’s going to be yes and I don’t feel like I’m asking the question for myself, I felt like I was asking it more to justify the practice of showing film in my class. Changing the question to something that is going to challenge me and is something that I need to work on anyways is a really interesting idea and I’ll be thinking about that. (1/8/09: 693-698)

James, here, explicitly addressed the authenticity of his original question and his inquiry process. He indicated that his question as he had approached it was “easy” and one which he already could answer “yes” based on his understanding of his own experience. Further he stated that he was “asking it more to justify the practice of showing film in my class” rather than to conduct an actual inquiry into his practice. Referring to feedback given to him by Isa, Emily, and me
regarding the actual goal of his study and the phrasing of his question in relation to that goal, his stance toward inquiry began to shift from justification to investigation. James’s stated desire to teach analysis through film and connect these skills to text-based analysis led the three of us to encourage a reframing of his question focused on particular skills that could be taught through film and transferred to literature. James responded that he saw this as an interesting challenge and something that he both needed to “work on anyways” and that he planned to “think about.” James used the comments of his colleagues to push his own thinking about the inquiry process and its purpose in relation to his teaching, evidence of dialogic interaction with the ideas brought forth in the discussion.

Later in his response, James continued to discuss the importance of integrating film and text, and he spoke of the ways in which his practice might be affected by the discussion which took place in the group:

Bringing in the text with the film, that’s a high priority for me, so I might change the films I show—the Friday film that I show, I did have stuff that I read, but I don’t know—I’ll be looking really closely at how I can study—in my teaching, I haven’t been very good at connecting one unit to the next, I always go over my time and I’m always running out of time, the marking period’s over, the students are tired, they’re tired of the subject and I’m tired of it too, a little bit—the last week or so, I feel like I’m forcing it on them, and I’d like to get a lot better at connecting, and that’s something I’d like to get a lot better at and I think that’d be something that would be really valuable with them.

In this excerpt, James examined his practice, in ways that revealed to himself and his colleagues previous inconsistencies between his beliefs and his actual practices. While James did believe that film analysis was a tool to bridge an understanding of text, he realized his need to “look really closely” at his practice in this area. James sought to more closely connect his instruction around film with his instruction around text to increase the value for students, the measure of which would be connected to his inquiry itself. This demonstrated dialogic interaction in that James used his thinking about his inquiry to re-examine the alignment of his beliefs and values with his classroom practices, prompting an expanded reconsideration of his practice. In contrast to James’s general practice of simplifying issues of practice to minimize personal investment, this statement indicates a commitment to a cohesive practice that connected literature and film.

Following this comment, at the end of his response, James explicitly connected increased value to his inquiry itself in recalling a talk that occurred between himself and a student who had given a surprising response to his survey:

I actually had a talk with one of the students who gave [the use of film in the classroom] a 1 and she’s a really bright student and I was a little hurt or annoyed because I felt like she was so bright, she should have been able to see how to connect the skills that we did to other parts… I should probably revisit that and instead of lecturing her…I should find out what she honestly thinks. (1/8/09: 720-729)

In this final excerpt from his presenter response, James revisited his prior inquiry process and his goals in inquiry. James’s original goal of justifying his use of film in the classroom led him to “lecture” a bright student when she failed to see the importance of this instructional practice and
ranked it as having little value for her. With a reframed question that examined the value of film instruction for students and their understanding of the explicit academic skills James was attempting to embed in this instruction, this data actually presented an avenue for further exploration into “what [the student] honestly thinks”. James, here, shifted his view of inquiry from a process designed to prove something that he already had individually decided was right to an investigation of how he could best enact his professional beliefs and connect them to his classroom practice. In this way, James engaged in dialogically-oriented thinking throughout this first protocol which allowed him to conceptualize his practice beyond his own experiences to create a study that aligned with practice-based theory.

At the end of the first data protocol, James seemed poised, based on his interaction with his colleagues, to conduct an authentic inquiry investigation based on connecting the skills of literary and film analysis in his classroom. As a group facilitator, I was initially heartened by this seeming shift in James’s focus toward his inquiry. However, there was little to no indication of this shift by the time of James’s second data protocol. 53

In many ways, James’s initial approach to his second protocol paralleled his initial approach to the inquiry process in the first protocol. James began his second protocol by handing out materials with very little context. The materials presented were handouts or outlines of James’s upcoming unit on the Heroic Journey. James did give a brief background to the group about the heroic journey then asked for feedback on his specific worksheets, movie suggestions that might be better than his original option, and possible short stories which might be taught in conjunction with the film.

While James’s initial approach to the protocol process was similar in both of his data protocols, there were important contextual differences between the two protocols. In James’s first protocol, after his initial presentation, I heavily guided and structured the protocol. I was not present during James’s second protocol. Although Isa, who facilitated the protocol in my absence, attempted to walk James through a similar process, James was not as receptive to the structure of the protocol in his second round. Also, in contrast to his first protocol in which James brought data and asked the group to help him understand how that data might have implications for his practice, in his second presentation to the group, James was firmly grounded in his request for resources related to his inquiry topic. Although James still sought to draw upon the expertise of his colleagues, he did so in a way that was purely curriculum based and not designed to engage their thinking in relation to the larger framework in which his question was situated.

Duc explicitly addressed this disconnect between James’s revised inquiry question which was, “How can I more effectively use or teach film in the classroom?” and the type of feedback he was soliciting during the question segment of the protocol:

Duc: So, I guess I’m a little bit confused, looking at your question. Because your question is…How do I more effectively teach/use film in the classroom? And I’m taking a look at the questions and the things that you’re saying and…

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53 Because of illness, I missed one inquiry group meeting during which Emily and James presented, and which Annie and Isa co-facilitated in my absence. The meeting was audio-recorded and I later transcribed the meeting as a field note record.
James: This is more like a unit, you’re right. For today, it’s more like, how can I more effectively teach this unit?

Duc: Yeah, I guess that’s what I want clarification on, because last time, you talked, you were talking about actual methods that you could employ to better teach film, in what you were doing, like, “Should I have them analyze the mood and how do I do that using the film?” but here, it’s like/

James: //I feel like it’s already—like here the analyzing the film part, in this worksheet, it will be simple—they’ll just write down the stages—I’ll probably do something else, but it will be really simple—I’ll probably have them write down quotes or at least events—that’s what they’re doing—they’re writing an essay based on events—I mean, it will be a really simple final project for them. I don’t feel like I have so much questions about how to teach the film, but what do I do with the unit? Or even the worksheet itself? I mean, I’m going to be using this two times, so if there’s any misspelled words or anything stupid or if you think there’d be a better format than just one box—we could have lines instead of boxes or we could just move on to the next, the next. (3/12/09: 571-592)

Duc asked James twice to clarify the goals of his question in an attempt to move James back toward the larger framework of inquiry and instruction and away from a simplified resource-based discussion. Whereas James’s inquiry question seemed large and focused on instructional practice and the use of film generally, he solicited very specific feedback from the group in relation to one upcoming unit. James confirmed that his question in terms of that day’s protocol was based specifically on teaching this particular unit. When Duc probed further about whether James was concerned with possible methods or simply implementing the curriculum he handed out, James again narrowed his focus from his larger question on how to more effectively teach film to a question about the particular unit that was approaching, reducing his question to one about format or layout of the worksheet and misspellings. Duc attempted actively to connect James’s protocol back to larger framework, but in contrast to the first data protocol, James did not engage with efforts to promote a deeper understanding of his beliefs, values and sustained practice around the teaching of film. Instead, he remained firm in seeking practically-based resources from his colleagues.

James’s resistance to engaging in authentic inquiry during his second protocol persisted throughout his participation. When Emily brought to James’s attention that the timing of the unit he had brought to the group would mean that he would not be able to collect further data on his inquiry given that he planned to teach his film unit after the final reflection for the inquiry group was due, James persisted in a singular focus on resources for this unit, dismissing the necessity of the protocol connecting to his inquiry project itself. Throughout the question period, Duc, Isa and Emily attempted to move James back toward an integrated model of film and literature, an investigation related to his inquiry and a broader consideration of his question. However, James maintained his request for specific feedback in relation to the heroic journey materials he had presented. James also indicated that he had returned to a model of a film-centered or literature-centered curriculum, abandoning the idea of integration of film with text and focusing on either a central work of film during a single marking period or a major piece of literature.
While James engaged with his colleagues, the interaction during this questioning period was solely resource-based and connected directly to upcoming classroom instruction, rather than a deeper understanding about the nature of practice itself. Given this framing, the discussion period focused on resources, although the group participants did attempt several times to move the discussion again toward integrating film and literature. In his response, James acknowledged the group’s suggestions for resources, but rather than reflecting, asked the group for a final opinion on assessment. Despite similar moves by dialogically-oriented focal teachers in the group in both protocols, James did not draw from a dialogic stance in his second protocol.

One possible explanation for the discrepancy between James’s responses in the first and second data protocols around his inquiry was my absence at the second meeting. James, himself, seemed to reference me as a “voice of authority,” noting at one point that while he had originally proposed to end the heroic journey unit with students authoring a heroic journey (an idea that Duc proposed during the “discussion”), I had vetoed this idea and advocated for an essay instead (3/12/09: 822-823). James referred to my feedback specifically in asking for the advice of his colleagues: “I have one more question, brought up by Duc. I know what Betina thinks—Betina wants me to write an essay, but what do you guys say, essay or writing at the end of this?” (828-830). This invocation in my absence indicated that while James knew what I (as his coach) thought was the right thing to do, this was not necessarily what he thought was most helpful. While I was not there, James took advantage of the opportunity to solicit the advice and support of his colleagues which he may not have felt as comfortable doing in my presence. This is one possible explanation for James’s changed attitude toward his entire second data protocol.

A second, equally plausible, explanation for the difference in James’s behavior between the two meetings was the difference in the nature of the data that he brought to the two protocols and the response that he sought from the group. While James, in the first data protocol brought survey results which were related to curriculum that had already been implemented and sought interpretations of the data, in the second data protocol, James brought a prospective unit plan and sought practical resources for enactment of this unit in his classroom. These two very distinct types of data and requests for feedback led to two very different types of discussion. The first discussion, although framed very vaguely because of James’s lack of interaction with the data itself, was still framed in a way that encouraged dialogic interactions in which teachers were asked to consider how the data might inform James’s understanding of his practice. The second discussion, however, was approached from a narrower classroom-based approach which did not seek to improve practice generally but sought practical resources with urgency to prepare for an upcoming unit. Although James was still pushed to consider his instruction and use of film in broader ways by the group, his continual redirection of the group toward resources in this meeting engendered a very different conversation than those typical in most inquiry meetings.

The reason for James’s shift away from dialogic interaction in his second data protocol is not conclusively indicated by the data and can only be hypothesized given the differences between the two situations. However, James’s participation in both protocols was consistent with his individually-oriented identity in different ways. In the first protocol, James articulated and aligned his inquiry with his personal image of teaching. In the second protocol, James

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54 This was only partially true. While I had, in fact, advocated for a more traditional analytical essay, this was not necessarily to replace a creative piece. Rather, I wanted to emphasize to James, in my role as literacy coach, the importance of analysis and academic writing and opportunities for students to engage in that type of writing that would prepare them for other academically rigorous settings.
focused on the greatest value that he felt he could immediately receive from the group without a large investment on his part, choosing to focus on resources which he could immediately use in his practice without having to reconsider larger notions of pedagogy.

In a professional development environment designed to emphasize dialogic interaction, both Molly and James engaged in these types of interaction to some extent. For both teachers, dialogic interaction was connected with their professional identities and both integrated aspects of their professional identities into their dialogic interactions during inquiry meetings. Dialogic interactions were a tool of inquiry which pushed both of these teachers’ thinking, at least temporarily. Both teachers also made comments that were dialogically-based to push the thinking of colleagues in relation to practice. While both teachers employed dialogic interaction in meetings, neither referenced ongoing dialogic interaction as significantly impacting their professional identities more generally outside of an inquiry-based setting.

**Text-Based Discussions: Providing a Dialogically-oriented Framework for Identity**

I have discussed the use of dialogic interaction by Molly and James as a means of interrogating aspects of their professional identities within the inquiry protocol structure of meetings. Text-based discussions provided a second forum designed to promote dialogic interaction. The text-based discussion was, by its nature, based in dialogic interaction, attempting to have teachers relate their ideas and practice to a common framework (in this case, the text) provided by the facilitator. The structure of text-based discussions introduced an external teaching-related discourse through ideas from the text and encouraged dialogue in response to this discourse. This type of structure provided an opportunity for dialogic interaction for participants that was distinct from data protocols which were heavily situated in particular classroom contexts. Focal teachers had a less common understanding of one another’s individual classroom contexts and were often hesitant to interact critically in response to their colleague’s practices; however, the distance of the texts from individual practice allowed more critical interactions to take place in relation to texts themselves.

While the ways teachers with particular identity orientations approached texts were often different, responses were almost always anchored in text itself, connecting practice-based or research-based theory with practice. Dialogically-oriented participants used these texts as ways to push their thinking further in response to the ideas in the texts. In these discussions, both classroom-oriented participants (Molly and Beth) also used the common framework provided by the text to draw upon the theory informing their practice and engage in dialogic interaction, relating their comments to points that they connected to within the text itself and looking at the ways in which common understandings could inform professional growth and practice. James, despite his skepticism as to the utility of the texts brought to the group, still engaged with the text in a pseudo-dialogic way. Similar to his pattern of evaluation in interaction with colleagues and observation of former teachers, James attempted to connect texts to aspects of his practice or to his personal image of teaching. When texts brought up perspectives not aligned with his personal image of teaching, however, James dismissed the notions of the text as irrelevant, rather than considering the perspective of his text to look at possible implications for his practice.

**Year one text based discussion: inquiry into social justice teaching.**

The first text-based discussion, designed to introduce an alternative model of a teacher research group formed around social justice (Rogers, et al., 2005), took place mid-year in year
one of the collaborative inquiry group. In my field notes, I noted that the purpose behind the introduction of the article was “to bring up some of the social justice element of Project IMPACT” (2/7/08: 90). The article focused on a four-year group of teachers (not related to the parent project) explicitly designed to address issues around social justice. In reading and discussing the text, I asked teachers to compare and contrast the group in the article to the group in which they were participating; look for any elements of the group/article that struck them in terms of their own research or the group itself and to think specifically about situating the work of the group within a social justice framework. Dialogically-oriented teachers, Rosie and Isa, used the common text to push their own thinking. The integration of the text also prompted classroom-oriented Molly toward connecting with a larger framework in a dialogic manner.

The group began the discussion with an analysis of the group described in the article itself, noting the importance of development over time of an inquiry group. The group continued to focus their discussion on composition of the article group and feedback given in the group until Rosie brought up an important distinction that she perceived between theory and action as it related to social justice:

I’m not quite sure what to make of, I mean the social justice, I know you wanted us to think more about our own social justice focus and I definitely appreciate that just by having a collaborative, on-going, reflective process of teacher inquiry, that, by nature, is a social justice mission—definitely agree with that. It just seems like, the, emphasis on social justice that these teachers, I think, it seems like they’re coming at the issue of social justice from a different place than we are here, because it sounds like their school population is different from our school population, so that social justice is more something that they’re like analyzing with their students and we’re more like implementing, you know, we’re not like, it’s not so much a curriculum of social justice that we do here, but like curriculum for social justice, more, and I sort of think that’s, I don’t know that frames our question (2/7/08: 235-244)

Rosie referred back to my initial prompt asking the group to examine the ways in which the teachers in the article looked at social justice and the ways that this was similar or different to the examination of social justice in the focal group itself and, more broadly, at Goody High as a site. Rosie drew a distinction between two discourses of social justice. The first was what she saw as a theoretical discourse of social justice, embedding social justice themes into curriculum and teaching “about social justice.” The second was a more practical discourse of teaching “for social justice,” embedding questions in a social justice framework that actively sought to transform the environment at a site. Rosie inferred that the latter, practice-based discourse of social justice was necessary given the setting and population of students at Goody High, whereas the former seemed to be something appropriate for the student population of teachers in the article group. For Rosie, social justice was not simply an aspect of curriculum, but a process of ongoing reflective engagement that examined not just what teachers were doing, but the ways in which social justice could be used to transform student environments. In this way, Rosie was able to critique the text by closely connecting the discourse of social justice with the discourse of particular communities. Rosie used the model inquiry group to push her thinking in relation to what it meant to be a teacher professional committed to social justice, given a particular local discourse, revealing underlying beliefs and values important to her professional identity. This was an example of dialogic interaction in that Rosie took ideas from the text, pushed upon them,
and extended them through connecting with her own practice and discourses associated with her professional identity and environment.

In her response to the text, Isa emphasized both the importance of theory as a component of dialogic interaction and the ways that the teachers in the text used their understanding of theory to inform their practice and their response to the practice of their colleagues:

I think one thing that was different about this [group] that I actually liked, in this, that they started with, but they had a whole year to do that, but they started with theory, and developing like a group, they called it group assumptions, like um, starting off with everybody on the same understanding of what it means to reach a certain goal, and then from there they can have, when they’re talking about the book, like how to engage the students, with this book about Italy, like everybody was kind of already on the same page of where they wanted, where this teacher wanted to go with it, because that’s what they started on with this assumption, so everything they were saying was comp…like relevant to what she wanted to do in her classroom…. I was blown away by their understanding of visionary pragmatism and, I don’t know, it sort of made me think of all this stuff that I forgot, when I was in my credential program, things like in our ELL class…that students, they can develop English better, if they have a better understanding of their own home language (2/7/09: 251-273)

In the above excerpt, Isa emphasized the importance of a common framework for the group that allowed teachers to come to common understandings and support the goals and development of one another in ways that were relevant to the individual teachers in the group. She noted that this happened through common readings: beginning with theory, discussing it, and then moving toward how this theory was important to informing practice and feedback around practice. Isa then connected this to theory which she had previously learned in her credential program, situating her understanding in both the theory of the text and the way it related to past theory that she had read. She connected both theories to the particular practice that teachers were examining in the text and noted that this type of theory-grounded inquiry could shape the inquiry process in powerful ways. Isa, like Rosie, used the text as a departure point from which to examine the intersections of theory to inform practice and develop a professional community. This dialogic interaction revealed Isa’s belief in the importance of theory as a common framework in which professional communities could be situated. Further, this text allowed Isa to discuss how a common framework would allow for increased levels of support among teachers in an inquiry group through providing a model of this type of group in practice.

While this particular text-based discussion pushed Rosie and Isa, both dialogically-oriented teachers toward deeper understandings of their own teacher professional identities and the inquiry process, the discussion also allowed Molly to participate in a different form of dialogic interaction, connecting her practice to the practice of others:

Just speaking off of what [Isa] said, like No Disrespect one girl said that she had read that book, and then if they could all read it, so they all read the book, they all bought it, then gave it to one lady, who put it in her classroom because the students were doing a project with the book, but I do like the idea, still, of like, cuz I’m always, I’m someone who always values resources, good ideas, and good books, and the latest research so I think just like sharing with each other, like if anyone knows of anything really good out there,
just like, I like that idea, you know, of sharing resources and you know, discussing and….especially if we see things related to other topics or ideas, like making sure that we share with each other, it’s nice. (2/7/08: 274-282)

In this passage, as in her protocol participation, Molly again framed her comments by connecting them to those made just previously by Isa. Molly extended Isa’s comments about a common theoretical framework which facilitated collaboration to the way a common contextual framework based on classroom practice also served to inform the practice of the group. Molly cited from the article the ways in which the teachers used their common reading of a classroom text used in one teacher’s classroom to inform their feedback to that teacher about her classroom practice and eventually provided the resources for the use of the particular curriculum. Molly emphasized the importance of a common understanding of the context within which teacher practice occurred in order to give more informed feedback. In this way, although Molly’s comment seemed largely resource based, she engaged in dialogic interaction through her recognition of the importance of classroom context and the ways that shared context (i.e. knowing what was happening in the classrooms of other group members) served to shape teacher practice by allowing teachers to push one another’s thinking more in relation to a shared understanding or common framework. This type of dialogic interaction was similar to the type that Molly engaged in during data protocols, using the models of others’ classroom practice to shape her own thinking about her teaching as well as her thinking about her practice as a teacher professional in inquiry group. In these comments during data protocols and the text-based discussion, Molly revealed the importance of collaboration and collegial sharing as a value central to informing her classroom-based professional identity.

The comments highlighted above were representative of the larger text-based discussion which drew from very specific elements of the text to inform the teachers’ thinking about their practice of participating in the inquiry group itself. The year one text focused on the professional role of teachers in collaborative inquiry settings around issues of social justice and allowed teachers to engage in dialogic interaction with this aspect of their professional lives. In introducing the year one text, I provided a professional model with which to engage that allowed teachers to push their thinking about the inquiry group before it entered its second year.

**Year two text based discussion: frameworks for equitable pedagogy.**

In the two text-based discussions in the second year of the group, teachers also drew from text as it related to their practice. However, because I chose texts for year two that focused on equity in terms of classroom practice and pedagogy, participants drew upon connections to their classroom practice and inquiry, bi-directionally linking practice to the theory informing practice, rather than focusing on their practice as teacher-researchers. In discussing the first text, I looked at the way that the introduction of a common text informed the contributions of Isa and Rosie two dialogically-oriented teachers as well as Molly, the only non-dialogically-oriented teacher in the year one group. In this discussion, I focus on the two teachers who were not predominantly dialogically-oriented, Beth and James to look at the specific ways that texts informed their participation in these conversations. For Beth, interacting with the text provided a framework for her practice and encouraged the development of dialogically-oriented thinking. For James, however, engagement with texts was “pseudo-dialogic” in that texts were interpreted only in ways that supported his personal image of teaching, or dismissed as unnecessary to his practice.
The first text-based discussion in year two (11/13/08) centered around “Tapping Students’ Cultural Funds of Knowledge to Address the Achievement Gap” (Risko & Walker-Dalhouse, 2007). In this article, the authors argued that teachers could address differences in achievement through their classroom practice. They proposed that by using academic scaffolds, teachers could draw upon the knowledge that students brought from their experiences outside the classroom and bridge these experiences with academic literacy based activities. Beth, a predominantly classroom-oriented teacher, began the discussion by relating her inquiry to the theory in the text:

I can start [the discussion]—[The article] actually related a lot to my question because empowering students to realize the power of education has to do with them seeing themselves in education and seeing themselves successful in education and I think one of the ways to do that is through this “cultural modeling” as they called it in just bringing in what they already know from their lives and their everyday experiences into the classroom, so I’ve been trying to do that a lot more this year and I’ve been starting to see success a little bit, in letting them teach me a little bit as well as me teaching them. (11/13/08: 63-69)

In this passage, Beth appropriated the term “cultural modeling” and connected this theory to her practice of bringing in the experiences of students to the classroom in order to empower them in their own education. This idea was central to Beth’s inquiry project and her professional identity, which were based on the Beth’s commitment to helping students to realize the power of education and to allow them to take a more active role in the classroom by integrating the knowledge they already possessed from their non-classroom experiences. Beth referred specifically to the central principle in the text, that of “cultural modeling” and related it to both her inquiry and practice, noting that she had begun to see some success in implementing this type of practice. Beth’s comment was an example of dialogic interaction in that it drew from the theories in the article as a way to situate both her inquiry and practice in a larger framework. Further, Beth used her experiences in the classroom and her own inquiry process to inform her understanding of the concept of “cultural modeling” as expressed by the text.

Later in the discussion, Beth had the following response to the question, “In what ways can cultural modeling be powerful and problematic?”:

I think I see a difference when I do something with my regular junior students v. my honors junior students, because they’re like night and day in terms of student make-up in both, in ethnicity mostly—it’s like all African American and Hispanic v. all of my students in my honors class [who are mostly Asian], so right now, I think that’s the problem—a lot of the time the honors students do want the culturally relevant stuff, but they are really confused because for them, they want to get to college, so for them, in their mind, they know a lot of times that the literature of color—of any ethnicity, whether it’s Hispanic or Asian or whatever it is, that it’s not necessarily the ones that are the hardest texts, so I find it challenging because I want to incorporate it to all of them, but they’re more resistant to it, whereas my regular junior students love it and if I try to give them something that’s the opposite, they’re more resistant to that. So, I find it a struggle between the different types of classes that I have v. the make-up of the students. (11/13/08: 216-226)
In this excerpt, Beth displayed a conflict which she had in relation to the idea of cultural modeling and the integration of culturally relevant curriculum. For her, depending on the ethnic make-up of her classes and the post-high school goals of her students, both she and her students were torn between wanting to read literature by authors of color (which they saw as “not the hardest texts”) and the importance of reading traditional canonical texts which they found more challenging and crucial to giving them access to college. This struggle problematized the ideas found in the text as they had arisen in Beth’s own experience and again reflected issues of dialogic interaction through the acknowledgement that these curricular choices affected different groups of students differently. The text affected Beth’s thinking about her own practice in relation to her two classes and the student composition of them, while Beth interrogated the text based on her experiences. Although the authors had posited that cultural modeling and the integration of “cultural funds of knowledge” could be powerful ways to address the achievement gap, Beth expressed concern that a lack of balance between literature by authors of color and canonical texts actually could increase the achievement gap, rather than address it. The text engaged and pushed Beth’s thinking about her practice and the implications of literature choice on student success and Beth’s experience similarly pushed back somewhat on the texts’ assertion of bridging cultural funds of knowledge based on her own experience. Beth’s interaction with the text was consistent with her professional identity which privileged the role of the teacher in the classroom, prompting her to take on great responsibility as to her professional choices and the effects of these choices on students.

In Beth’s final comment in relation to the text, she also grounded her practice in relation to the text and the way that the text gave her a way to understand particular situations related to her own instruction:

I was just thinking; I’m doing this [tapping prior knowledge to connect to academic curriculum]; I did something today, just in terms of connecting the literature with something they know—we’re doing Always Running which is not a standardized text obviously; I’m doing it with my regular juniors, and we did a pre-lesson about the Lawndale environment because it’s about the LA environment. And the one comment a student had made was, “Well, we don’t really have gangs, we don’t use the word gang to refer to…it’s all about cliques—you’re in a clique” and right through chapter 2, he says, “We didn’t call ourselves gangs, we called ourselves cliques,” and one student brought it up and then we got into this discussion about word choice and tone, and we could take what they knew—they had done the same thing, and they’re like, “Oh yeah, but our intent is the same, the way that we say it” and they were able to bring in a literary device. A lot of it was them doing it on their own, once they were able to engage in the text at first, but I think they had to be able to engage in it to really move beyond that. (11/13/08: 303-314)

Here, Beth used the framework of the text to analyze a particular moment in her instructional practice, when students not only used their background knowledge to engage with the text as a way to ground their analysis of the text using the literary device of intent. Beth had built upon students’ background knowledge of gangs in their surrounding community as a lead-in to the text (thus invoking urbanicity as a dialogic aspect of her curriculum as well). Students then drew from this knowledge, when similar vocabulary arose in the text to engage in discussion around word choice, tone and intent, moving beyond a surface level connection to delve into deeper
literary analysis of the text. Although *Always Running* was “not a standardized text,” the conversation taking place in Beth’s class of non-honors 11th grade students was based on detailed literary analysis. Here, again, Beth drew from the text and its central notion of integrating the students’ cultural funds of knowledge (particularly in relation to underperforming students of color) with academic curriculum as a scaffold for more academically based goals and to promote more equitable achievement outcomes. She then connected this idea with her own shared commitments. Beth used the discourse of the text as a way to inform her thinking about this specific incident in her classroom.

In all of Beth’s comments during the first text-based discussion, she clearly emphasized the intersection between her own professional identity, as illustrated through key aspects of her classroom practice, and the theory or discourse found in the text. Beth used the text as a way to think about her own practice, both in positive ways and in ways that considered the complexity of the ideas of the text in practice. In this discussion, she engaged in several forms of dialogic interaction. While Beth took from the text frameworks in which to situate her understanding of her own practice, she also brought rich classroom experiences that illustrated and challenged key aspects of the underlying theory of the text.

Because she did not fully read the second article, in the text based discussion, this pattern was not as clear in the second text-based discussion, although Beth’s one comment during this discussion was similarly dialogic, drawing from her understanding of the article from skimming it before the meeting. Beth’s overall data indicated a classroom orientation, particularly in her characterization of the classroom as a distinct space for students to enact particular academic identities and her emphasis on the importance of her role as a teacher. However, Beth’s participation in inquiry meetings and particularly in text-based discussions demonstrated Beth’s use of dialogic interaction as a tool to contextualize her own professional identity based on central beliefs of empowering and supporting students of color toward greater academic achievement. Beth’s classroom-oriented professional identity was thereby strengthened through the dialogic interaction in which she engaged during inquiry meetings.

The second text-based discussion was centered on the article “Equity Pedagogy: An Essential Component of Multicultural Education” (Banks & Banks, 1995). In this article, Banks and Banks advocate for the importance of equity pedagogy, which they define as “teaching strategies and classroom environments that help students from diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural groups attain the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to function effectively within and help create and perpetuate a just, humane and democratic society” (152). Isa began the text-based discussion by briefly summarizing the tenets of equity pedagogy for participants who hadn’t read the article, after which James responded:

James: I felt like instead of calling it equity pedagogy, they could have just called this good teaching practice.

Isa: The assumption here is that equity [pedagogy is good teaching]

James: [I didn’t see anything here] that was; it kept on referring to the equity pedagogy itself, but to me, it seemed like yeah, this is stuff you want to do as a new teacher. There’s a lot of stuff about having them reflect and basically, lecturing students probably isn’t the best way to teach them, and when students
learn in groups, they learn more—it felt to me, like good teaching practices. (1/22/09: 64-71)

In this excerpt, James engaged with the text in a way that simplified its message and took away the explicit focus on race, ethnicity, and culture. While not engaging fully with the central premise and focus on the text, he did still interact with the text connecting practice to beliefs, values and practices central to those that corresponded with his own experiences, including not lecturing to students and placing them in groups to discuss. James emphasized that while the ideas addressed by the text reflected “good teaching practice,” the categorization of these practices as “equity pedagogy” seemed unnecessary and basic. James’s initial interaction with the text was consistent with his professional identity in that he focused on elements of the text that connected with his personal image of teaching while disregarding other central elements.

In response to James’s initial assessment, I attempted to push James to consider the ways the text might inform his practice. Upon being challenged, James made connections between his own practice and the texts themselves; however, he maintained his position that the text did not offer ideas that he could not have established through individual experience. In this particular discussion, following his opening comments, James and I had the following interaction:

Betina: I think the difference for me between straight out good teaching practices and equity pedagogy is the focus on social justice and the focus on being explicit about the hidden curriculum. There are good teaching strategies and then there are ways that students understand that in the world, they’re going to need different things, or that different literature may connect to them in different ways. I agree that it’s part of good teaching, but I think, what they’re saying is that it’s really explicitly focused on promoting equity—on really looking at our students who are lower performing or are from historically underrepresented groups in higher education and really address that group. It’s more explicit. I think I agree with you that it’s good teaching, but it’s not just good teaching, blanket good teaching—it’s good teaching...

James: You know, you’re right and I think I realized this as I was reading it as well. But, I feel like that’s a particular focus of mine, growing up in University City and teaching in Lawndale so, I don’t really feel like I need to be taught how to do that, and I don’t really feel like it’s such a big deal for us. We probably all do it anyways, but for maybe some of these older teachers, that would be something they need to look at a little bit more. (1/22/09: 72-85)

In this excerpt, I first attempted to distinguish equity pedagogy from “good teaching practices” in general, particularly noting the focus on social justice and being explicit about the “hidden curriculum” in schooling, or underlying aspects of the curriculum which may be evident to students from the dominant culture in a society but “hidden” or based on assumptions or cultural values which other cultures might not share. While I acknowledged that equity pedagogy was based on “good teaching,” I directed James’s focus toward the equity aspects of the article itself. In response to my comment, James acknowledged this difference, but again distanced his own need for this type of framework since his individual experiences of growing up in a diverse local community and teaching in Lawndale provided him a personal image of teaching that already included an awareness of diversity. James, for a second time, dismissed the importance of the
particular framework espoused by the text to inform his practice although he acknowledged it might have meaning for another group of teachers.

I followed this comment by redirecting the conversation toward the focal questions for discussion, prompting the group, including James to connect practice to a specific aspect of equity pedagogy found in the text, an explicitly dialogically-oriented question:

Betina: So, I think the focal question was: How does this connect to your own pedagogy? So, how do you guys feel like, in your own practice, it reflects this type of equity pedagogy? If you feel like your practice does reflect that, how?

James: Well, one of the main things the article talked about. It seemed to say at the end that if you try and you reflect on that question and you’re constantly thinking about it, then maybe I’m just making this conclusion on my own, but things will work themselves out alright in the end—teacher characteristics, that that is equity pedagogy. (1/22/09: 89-96)

James responded here by referring to the emphasis in the article on the importance of modeling critically reflective practice as a teacher, constantly thinking about one’s practice and then concluded that, if one is consistently reflective on his/her practice, “things will work themselves alright in the end,” again reducing equity pedagogy, in this case summarizing equity pedagogy as “teacher characteristics.” James did attempt here to connect elements of his practice (reflection and a focus on individual characteristics) to the larger framework of equity pedagogy. James did not engage with the article in a way that shaped or informed his practice; however, he did connect his practice to the text and the ways being embedded in an urban environment and at a site with competent colleagues had previously informed his understanding of many of the central points of the text. James, like Beth, brought his practice and professional identity to the text, but unlike Beth, he rejected the text as a framework within which to situate his practice, simplifying central ideas to simply “good teaching practices” and “teacher characteristics”. As in his interactions with colleagues and observations of former teachers, if James evaluated a particular model negatively, he saw it as not useful for him or something that was painfully obvious and unnecessary to discuss.

James had similar interactions with both texts brought to the group. In his first text-based discussion, he questioned the utility of examining the use of culturally relevant literature and academic practices that built on students’ culture when cultural understanding in the classroom, for him, was about relationships. In both cases, James connected the texts or ideas related to the texts in relation to his practice; however, he did so to illustrate the lack of relevance of these texts to his practice. James did not use the texts to reconsider or push his perspectives or personal image of teaching based on observation. Rather, James drew from his own experiences to create an individual framework within which he situated his understanding of his teaching practice and referenced situations in which other less informed teachers might have benefited from theory. James, within this particular structure explicitly designed to promote dialogic interaction, only actually engaged in a type of evaluative interaction in which he connected practice to texts, but disregarded frameworks as a way for him to alternatively consider his own practice or professional identity. For this reason, I describe James’s interaction with texts to be pseudo-dialogic in nature.
Common texts played an interesting and particular role in the focal inquiry group. For the dialogically-oriented and classroom-oriented teachers in the study, text-based discussions provided a framework with which to connect their practice and a lens through which to consider their practice in expanded ways. For these teachers, even when the theory or practice presented by the text was not entirely new or was problematic in some way, the text allowed them to consider their practices as classroom teachers and teacher-researchers in new ways and discuss these notions with their colleagues. For, James, the individually-oriented teacher, however, the reading and discussion of common texts seemed unnecessary and irrelevant. Although there were elements of his practice which he connected to the texts in both cases, James did not develop these connections in a way that led him to consider his practice in new or alternative ways, but instead used these connections as evidence that his individually based experiential framework was sufficient to inform his teacher professional identity. Like his approach to the inquiry group itself, he found the texts to be possibly helpful to other teachers, but not particularly necessary for him.

What’s Environment Got to Do with It?

The analysis in this chapter indicated that the explicitly dialogically-oriented structures present in the data protocol and text-based discussion portions of inquiry meetings allowed for active interaction on the part of all teachers during these segments of meetings. Although the data are not completely consistent in terms of the dialogic nature of interactions, these two structures introduced common external discourses for consideration, creating an environment designed to encourage dialogic interaction. Even among teachers who generally emphasized other sources of professional identity, during these particular segments of inquiry meetings, all teachers engaged in interactions connected to their practice, many of which were dialogic in nature. These dialogic interactions generally served as tools to help push teachers’ thinking around their professional practice in various ways. The professional development setting was important to the interactions connected to professional identity in the focal group. The findings in this chapter speak to the importance of considering the professional development environments in which teachers participate as a central factor in the ongoing development of teachers’ professional identities.
Chapter 6
Professional Identity, Professional Community, and Professional Development

It is 5:45 pm, and I am preparing to facilitate a collaborative inquiry group meeting. Although the teachers attending this meeting teach a variety of grade levels and subjects at different schools throughout the Bay Area, they are like the Goody High group in that they are teachers engaging in a year-long study of their practice. They come on a voluntary basis, after long school days, some commuting up to 50 miles to meet with their colleagues and discuss issues of importance that arise from their work in the classroom. I am tired; I have just arrived home from lobbying on Capitol Hill for federal funding to support the National Writing Project and its work in professional development for teachers of writing across the nation. The teachers in the group begin to arrive, also tired and seeming downtrodden. The news of the day is not encouraging. Despite recent protests statewide in which students and teachers joined voices, lobbying state policy makers to maintain funding for public education, colleagues at their sites, and 23,000 others like them across the state, have just received lay-off notices. Teachers who still have jobs have been informed that their pay will be frozen because of the budget crisis.

We share a bit of food together then begin teacher check-ins, giving space for these frustrations, but also opportunities to share success stories. A teacher shares the irony plaguing him at that moment. While last year his school was featured in the local paper as a “school on the rise” based on improving standardized test scores, the same school is now on the “continual failure to improve” list released by the state, threatened with impending sanctions or reconstitution. After venting his frustration, he shifts his focus to his students’ community-based persuasive essay project, inviting all of us to visit his classroom to see students engage in authentic attempts to persuade community members, through their writing, to support the cause they have researched. He is excited to have seen students’ growth on this project that involves issues from their surrounding community. He shares that they have developed both research and writing skills that will prepare them for high school and beyond. As other teachers likewise begin to share about successful lessons, the progress of their students and ways they themselves are growing, the energy and discourse begin to shift in the space.

By the time teachers leave for home at 8:30, they have examined their own classroom practice, engaged in active discussion with colleagues about their inquiry projects, and reflected on the way that conversations during the meeting helped shape their thinking about their own teaching. I leave the meeting inspired and excited about the work that the teachers are doing and the change that is being affected in their classrooms. In spite of a lack of external investment in supporting teachers, these teachers recognize the importance of investing in themselves professionally. It is a unique space and I feel grateful to play a small part in their ongoing work.

Arriving home, ready to share with my entire social network about the amazing dedication of these professionals, I am confronted by a response to a posting about the recent educational protests: “I don’t know why teachers are protesting. If I got off at three, didn’t work all summer, and was guaranteed a job, I would be happy, not taking more time off to whine and cry in the streets. Maybe they should spend more time teaching and they’d make more money”.

I pause.

I think back on the misunderstandings, the contradictions, the battles, the victories, and the work, not only of that day, but that have been a part of my professional life since the day I entered the classroom myself as a teacher. The struggle I have faced throughout the many seasons of my career in education has essentially been an ongoing struggle to engage with the
complexity of what it means to be a teacher professional—beyond external popular discourses of teachers as martyred saviors of poor urban youth or as lazy, complaining overpaid tenured babysitters; beyond simplified definitions of quality measured solely by standardized test scores; beyond the daily frustrations and obstacles that confront us. There is something more that has caused teachers persist in the face of these difficult educational times in which our profession has been defined for us, not by us, and many times in simplified ways. There is something more that draws us to enter the classroom each day, come home and grade until all hours of the night, plan or attend professional development workshops over our summers, and spend time with other educators engaging in professional conversations, despite low compensation and the fact that some think we can be replaced by “teacher-proof curriculum.” Quite simply, I believe that it is because teaching is not a series of actions executed in the right order according to a script. Rather, for teacher professionals, teaching is a part of who we are. It is our professional identity.

After all, I am a teacher.

The Importance of Teacher Professional Identity

It is no surprise that interest in the field of teacher professional identity has paralleled the movement toward increased educational accountability. Policy on accountability, while touting the need for “highly qualified teachers,” has reduced the definition of teacher quality to an ability to prove subject area competence on a standardized test. Further, these same policies have reduced teacher efficacy to a set of test scores measured on a norm-referenced scale without taking into account student improvement over time. The proposed solution to our current educational inequities has not been to invest in teacher education, but to divest in it and spend energy on developing “what works,” a proven set of strategies that can be effective for any teacher in any situation. And, there has been a growing need for “what works” given that more and more teachers are leaving the profession within their first five years of professional practice (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005). At this moment in history when teacher professionalism is being assaulted by educational policy makers who do not understand the nature of teaching, studies like this one are imperative to lend voice to the complexity of teacher professional identity.

I am not claiming that content area knowledge, student achievement and instructional strategies are unimportant to teacher professionalism. All of these areas figure prominently into an understanding of classroom practice, a crucial part of teacher professional identity. Teachers are professionals charged with delivering curriculum through instruction to students each day. Clearly, this means that what teachers know (in terms of content, pedagogy and students) informs their professional identities. But, teacher professional identity is not only about what happens in the classroom. Teachers are individuals, with diverse experiences and understandings of themselves, who come into the classroom with beliefs, values and commitments shaped by personal experiences and roles outside of the classroom. We must acknowledge that who teachers are informs how they teach. Further, teaching does not occur in a vacuum with robotic teachers and students. Teachers and their students are embedded in socio-political and site discourses which affect teaching and learning. The classroom itself is a complex ecosystem based upon many different factors and interactions that occur inside its four walls as well as interactions that take place with external discourses that impact teaching and learning. Teachers must be able to engage dialogically with and within these discourses. They must have other professional models of practice and theoretical frameworks in order to understand practices that are most effective for their students. Teachers must be seen as and treated as professionals and
teacher professional identity must be understood as a complex intersection of a multiplicity of discourses.

At the present time, scholars, legislators, and administrators too seldom engage with teachers as professionals. In many cases, popular discourse assigns them “semi-professional status,” with accompanying wages, to the point that this identity and attitude toward the profession has been internalized by teachers. Teachers may get by for a time by using “what works,” but if they are not helped to think professionally, what happens the first time something doesn’t work? What some researchers and many policy makers have failed to understand is that “what works” can only work consistently when teachers understand why it works, how it works in their particular context and what it is working toward (their curricular goals). These understandings come through engagement on a professional level and professional expectations, which are backed by investments of time, energy and resources.

**Investing in dialogically-oriented teachers.**

Developing a dialogically-oriented teacher professional identity moves teachers beyond the doing of teaching to develop engaged forms of thinking that underlie professional commitments, professional practice and professional investment. While classroom-oriented and individually-oriented teachers may have strongly rooted images of what it means to be a teacher, these identities are focused on what works or what has worked for students, rather than why particular methods and strategies work well consistently. Non-dialogically-oriented teacher professionals miss powerful ways to deepen and strengthen their practice by not engaging with external frameworks. Teachers themselves must seize opportunities that promote engagement with external discourses, seeing them as opportunities to invest in their own practice in powerful ways that affect teaching and learning and foster a sense of professionalism.

However, teacher investment is only one form of investment that must take place in order for change to occur. Investment on local, state and federal levels that supports teachers’ professional identity and professional development must be made. A shift in the discourse and an accompanying investment in teachers’ initial and ongoing development would allow us to reconceptualize the notion of a “highly qualified teacher” in a way that acknowledges the numerous and complex factors that intersect to constitute professional identity. Investment must be made by academics as well. Schools of education must acknowledge that much of work of teaching and learning is in the hands of teachers and must begin to actively focus and support the development of a dialogically-oriented teacher professional identity as a way to support teacher development. As teachers develop habits of interacting with and connecting to important frameworks outside of their classrooms, academics in education may also begin to increase the frequency and level of discourse taking place between teacher professionals at the K-12 levels and those in higher education. There is much to be learned by teachers and by academics from increased interaction between K-12 teachers and researchers in education, but both sides must begin to see this interaction as an important and fruitful one and approach one another with professional respect and consideration.

**Implications of the Study**

This study has illuminated the complexity of teacher professional identity. The findings of this study support many of the previously conducted studies in the field, particularly those that have noted factors such as pre-service experiences, professional competency, learning contexts and policy contexts as important to professional identity. However, my research also contributes
to the literature by setting forth a theoretical framework that emerged through exploring the beliefs, values and commitments expressed by teachers that underlie their professional choices and are developed through interactions with particular discourses about teaching.

I have found that teacher professional identity is an active process of negotiating multiple discourses, arising from three main sources: pre-professional educational experiences; classroom practice; and interaction with external teaching-related discourses. All three sources are negotiated in each focal teacher’s process of creating a professional identity. As individual teachers create their professional identities, they emphasized a particular source of identity which led to an identity orientation. Teachers with shared identity orientations had shared features of professional identity, allowing identity to be seen as both an individual and socially recognizable phenomenon. While all three identities are built upon strong senses of commitment and core beliefs, only dialogically-oriented teachers emphasized developing professional thinking through engaging with external factors (including theory, practical models and external context) and discourses in a way critical to promoting student achievement and teacher success. In examining the particular professional development setting of the focal collaborative inquiry group meetings, I found that while context could promote more dialogic interactions, participation in inquiry meetings was also strongly informed by a participating teacher’s professional identity orientation. Although all teachers seemed to adapt their discourse patterns within the structure of inquiry meetings, the impact of inquiry group participation on the focal teachers’ general sense of professional identity was not cited as particularly significant for focal teachers. These main findings and my research related to this study have led me to several implications for teacher educators and researchers interested in teacher development and teacher education.

**Implications for future research.**

There are many opportunities for further research that arise from this study. There is still more to learn about the multiple factors that contribute to developing a teacher professional identity and how identity orientations relate to classroom practice. Longitudinal studies on how and how professional identity shifts in particular professional environments and across professional careers might also develop ideas introduced in this work. Additionally, research following dialogically-oriented teachers in settings not set up to support ongoing dialogic interaction might also illuminate ways in which context and identity interact and affect one another.

Another way in which research can affect change is in further investigations of the link between pre-service education and teacher professional identity. While the data set from this study indicate a relationship between professional entry pathway and professional identity orientation of the focal teachers in their first five years, it leaves many unanswered questions about what accounted for this correlation. Do certain individuals choose professional entry pathways that match their own internally persuasive discourses around professional identity, reinforcing predispositions for particular professional identity orientations? Or do certain professional entry pathways promote the development of particular identity orientations for teachers in their early careers? Do teachers’ personal experiences (positive or negative) with their professional entry pathway influence their receptiveness to the identity orientation advocated by that model of professional entry? In order to answer such questions, a subsequent longitudinal study would need to follow prospective teachers from the time they were choosing professional entry pathways through their pre-service or internship training and into their early professional practice. The initial correlations in this study indicate the importance of further investigation into the nature of teacher preparation pathways to see if the nature of programs
influences the ways that teachers perceive their professional identities or whether particular types
of teacher professionals are drawn to particular professional entry pathways. Conjecture related
to this trend in the data is beyond the scope of the present study.

Future research might also explore the implications of ongoing professional development
models on professional identity over longer periods of time to investigate what happens to
identity orientations when the professional development setting represents a central authoritative
discourse that is maintained over time. While the professional development model investigated
in this study did seem to influence teachers’ interactions within the inquiry group setting, this
increased tendency for dialogic interaction in meetings was not largely reflected in the interview
data of teachers in relation to their professional identities. Teachers who were identified as
dialogically-oriented made references to external discourses in their interview data, but the
sources of the identity disposition seemed to emerge before participation in the inquiry group.
Teachers identified as classroom-oriented or individually-oriented did not cite their participation
in inquiry group as particularly foundational to their professional identities, despite indications of
shifting focus within inquiry-related data. Given my stance that identity is practiced and
continually constructed over time, it would be important to investigate whether continued
participation in this type of professional development setting actually impacted teachers’
evolving sense of themselves and their practice over time. This type of research on the effects
of professional development on professional identity over time could contribute to research and
policy conversations around the goals of ongoing professional development and its importance,
particularly given the other types of research I have proposed in the area of teacher professional
identity.

**Implication for practice in the field of teacher education.**

While it is essential to have strong advocates for teacher professionalism in the research
community, it is equally essential for those who work most directly with teachers through
teacher education programs and ongoing professional development to consider the implications
of this study for their professional practice. In my own professional work with teachers outside
of an inquiry setting, the understandings I have reached through this study have allowed me to
shape my practice to encourage dialogic interaction among teachers. While I acknowledge all
three sources important to teacher professional identity by integrating instructional practices and
strategies and giving space for individuals to share their experiences, concerns and frustrations, I
do so using structures to explicitly promote dialogic interaction throughout the professional
development session in ways designed to engage and demonstrate professional thinking. These
structures of dialogic interaction allow teacher professionals with whom I work to connect newly
introduced practices with their existing classroom practice, beliefs and commitments and to
consider alternative paradigms in ways that inform their ability to reflect professionally.

I see these same principles as applicable to professional development at the pre-service
level. Given that pre-professional teaching experiences and external discourses of teaching were
both found to be influential in establishing teacher professional identity, pre-service programs
that promote an awareness of all three main sources of identity would allow entering teachers to
consider multiple discourses important to their professional identities and negotiate them in
explicit ways. While programs must help teachers to develop practical methods through courses
that support their classroom practice, they must also emphasize the importance of developing
professional thinking through helping teachers to engage in ongoing dialogue with theory that
can inform their professional choice and various models of practice which are actively and
critically deconstructed, analyzed and discussed. Teacher education programs can provide teachers with an introduction to the professional complexity of the field by using theory as an important tool that allows teachers to understand their professional practice through particular lenses. An engagement between practice and the discourses present in theory, as indicated in this study, is completely possible at the pre-service level and can provide a powerful framework within which teachers can situate their practice. The process of considering all aspects of professional identity through teacher education would promote a stronger and clearer sense of incoming professional identity and the many aspects inherent to the profession, better preparing prospective teachers for the workplace.

**Implications for ongoing teacher support by schools of education.**

This study also has implications for partnerships between schools of education and their pre-service alumni to help support the professional growth of those alumni as well as their site colleagues. In both years of the study, a majority of participants hailed from the pre-service credential/Masters program at the university that sponsored the inquiry-based induction support program. This overlap was intentional. New teachers from these university credential programs looked to create environments that supported the growth of their own professional identities within particular contexts and were provided that opportunity through the outreach of the induction program toward alumni of the credential programs. Their participation in the group supported their own dialogically based identity orientations, but their embedded practice in their site context allowed them to draw teachers in with dissimilar identity orientations who had a willingness to engage in this ongoing form of professional development. This was particularly important in this study, given the authoritative accountability discourse at the site, which may have otherwise pulled teachers to adapt their identities in alternative ways without the support of fellow critically minded colleagues.

Even after eventual support from the parent project was withdrawn in year 3 of the study, the Goody High group, led by Emily and Annie, continued to engage in inquiry-based professional development during department meeting time. Over time, the participation of teacher educators moved from active instruction (in pre-service) to facilitation (in the focal inquiry group) and then was completely removed as teachers undertook the role of facilitators. As program involvement decreased, teacher agency increased. However, this changeover of responsibility was done gradually, through teachers’ intermediary participation in an externally facilitated inquiry group which allowed them to develop the tools to foster this type of professional development for themselves and add this aspect of collegial support as an aspect of their teacher professional identities. Increased support for pre-service teachers by schools of education through these types of early career partnerships that integrate other teachers at the site would allow for the similar leadership and agency of individual teachers to emerge in more active and compelling ways.

**Reaching Beyond the Classroom**

When I first left classroom teaching to fully immerse myself in the worlds of professional development and educational research, I experienced a huge professional identity shift based on a conviction that has fueled this work. While I loved being a classroom teacher and was strongly committed to it, I was frustrated by the fact that so much of the good work done in classrooms was not being seen, talked about or studied. I felt that there was a gulf between the work of teachers in classrooms and the field of educational research. And yet, I knew that all were
committed to similar issues and had perspectives that could be valuable to one another. The gulf between teaching practice and university research has been not only unnecessary, but detrimental to the change both parties wish to see with students.

At a recent gathering of the American Educational Research Association, Anthony Bryk, current head of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, spoke similarly of this gulf. Responding to a symposium on teacher research, Bryk agreed that it was important for teachers to have more of a voice in educational research and policy, but noted that this could not happen without a clearer understanding of teacher professionalism. Unlike other fields like medicine and law, in education, Bryk argued, there has not yet been a clear understanding or consensus of what it means to “think like a teacher,” a barrier to acknowledging the professionalism of teachers and giving them the professional credentials to contribute to the field itself Invalid source specified..

Bryk’s comments to a room full of people interested in practitioner research seemed, at first, misplaced. Weren’t those in the room interested in highlighting the professionalism of teachers and teacher researchers? And yet, as I reflected more upon his words, I realized that his words were not meant to critique or attack the professional nature of teaching. Rather, they were an attempt to call upon all of us in the room to reach beyond those interested in teacher research to begin to construct a more general understanding of the complexities of “thinking like a teacher.” Only through broadening the discourse on teacher professional thinking outside of those drawn to this symposium could teacher research actually occupy a more widely respected place in the larger educational research community.

A few weeks later, my brother, an engineer, came to hear me speak about my dissertation. After hearing about my own research and that of some of my colleagues, he thanked me for the opportunity to be there, saying, “Before I always wondered, ‘What is there to research about education?’ but now that I see what you guys do, I think it’s really important work.”

Both Bryk’s comments and those of my brother highlighted for me the importance of bringing studies of teacher professionalism into a broader discourse community, whether the research community, the community of teacher education or the general population.

Teachers are instrumental in fostering or denying educational opportunities to students of all ages. They are powerful individuals who have the potential to make significant differences in the lives of those they educate. Their beliefs, values and commitments are central to their ongoing work with students. Understanding who teachers are, and how they become who they are, helps society, researchers and even teachers themselves to better understand the important work teachers do each day and, even more essentially, what is behind that work. By bringing teachers into a professional conversation with one another through professional communities, with researchers and with teacher educators, the academic community can actively show respect for the complexities of teachers’ working lives and identities which is often missing from current discourse. As a society, if we engage in conversations around the greater purpose of education, we respect the complexity of learning. Society, scholars, and policy makers can no longer ignore or deemphasize the role of teachers in education. To help students develop as learners, thinkers and citizens, teachers must be encouraged to develop as professionals. Through fostering teacher professional identity and professional growth, 21st century America can begin moving toward our greater educational goals as a society.
Works Cited


