CHANGING LANGUAGE, CHANGING BELIEFS:

BECOMING REFLEXIVE ABOUT COACHING DISCOURSE

by

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(Under the Direction of Ruth Harman)

ABSTRACT

The discourse used by instructional coaches can have an impact on their relationships with teachers and thus influences their effects on instruction and student achievement within schools. Building on critical theory and Fairclough's (2014) Critical Discourse Analysis, this participatory action research study engaged three coaches and the researcher in collaborative discussions about their videotaped coaching sessions. Participants adopted a reflexive stance to explore the ways teachers and coaches communicated, the effects of specific discursive moves in these interactions, and the ways in which power was shared or withheld among participants.

The author describes the findings of this study in three independent yet inter-related manuscripts. In the first manuscript, *Courage to Love: Coaching Dialogically Toward Teacher Empowerment*, the author and another instructional coach from the study discuss applying Freire's (1993) conditions for dialogue as a tool for creating empowering, effective collaborations between instructional coaches and teachers. They share examples of ways that Freire's conditions of love, humility, faith in humankind, hope, and critical thinking create dialogical spaces in which teachers and coaches can work in partnership. The second manuscript, *Changing Language, Changing Beliefs: A Case Study in Coach Reflexivity*, explores one coach's

reflexivity over three years as she participated in reflective conversations after videotaping her coaching sessions. Findings demonstrate that the conversations supported her in developing more nuanced views of the coaching role and an increased awareness of the impact of her discourse on teachers. As the coach deliberately adjusted her discourse with teachers, her beliefs about teachers' capabilities changed, suggesting that a change in discourse can lead to a change in beliefs. In the third manuscript, *Leading Lesson Study: Navigating Facilitation Roles in Inquiry-Based Professional Learning*, the researcher used Bereiter's (1994) concept of progressive discourse as a framework for examining the role of facilitator during lesson study sessions. Findings demonstrate that the facilitator primarily acted within the roles of Instructor, Questioner, and Participant, each of which provided specific allowances and constraints to the lesson study process. Implications drawn from all three articles point to the importance of community building, discourse strategies, and enhanced reflexivity for instructional coaches in schools.

INDEX WORDS: discourse, critical discourse analysis, systemic functional linguistics, coaching, reflexivity

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

"We are all apprentices in a craft where no one ever becomes a master."

(Ernest Hemingway)

This study evolved, as most things do, from a collection of lived experiences that spans quite a few years. I begin this chapter by describing how my understandings of discourse, coaching, and power developed over the course of my career thus far, and then describe the purpose of the study and the research questions. From there I outline Critical Theory and studies of power as the theoretical framework, and how these relate to the literature on coaching and discourse.

Background

I had been teaching a little over ten years when my perspective on teaching was forever changed by reading Debbie Miller's (2002) "Reading With Meaning." I had already read and been moved by Keene and Zimmerman's (1997) "Mosaic of Thought," which revealed the mystery of reading comprehension in such personal, clear examples that I finally began to find myself able to articulate my role as a teacher of reading. What had been a vague collection of isolated tasks and activities drawn from basal readers soon became a clear landscape with perspective and depth. Keene and Zimmerman gave me the ability to talk about, and therefore think about, the elusive skills and strategies that are involved in comprehending text.

And then I read Debbie Miller. Here was a teacher whose calm presence and intentional classroom language poured from every page and invited me to sit alongside her as she experimented with teaching 6- and 7-year-olds to use the language of reading comprehension. She invited readers to watch as she gave students the words they needed to share their growing ideas and respectfully disagree with each other. She demonstrated the importance of the teacher thanking students for sharing their thoughts, and the power that comes when the teacher acknowledges having learned from her students. She taught me to pause before rushing on, to ask a student, "How do you know?" and then listen, I mean really listen, to the answer. Perhaps it's the listening that really made Debbie Miller stand out. She had an instructional idea in mind before teaching a lesson, for instance she might plan to explore inferential thinking using the children's book "The Lotus Seed," but she didn't plan exactly how to get there, and she was fascinated by what the students might teach her along the way.

I knew after reading her book that I wanted my classroom to be as warm and inviting and real as Debbie's, and so I began to mimic her, at first in very concrete superficial ways by copying her graphic organizers, building bookcases and book baskets similar to hers, and creating a class promise for everyone to sign, complete with little paper faces just like the photos that accompanied the book. However, at the same time I also began to unconsciously adopt the language Debbie used in her classroom by calling it "our" classroom instead of "mine" and thanking students for their thoughts and behaviors. I found it much more interesting to forego the checklist approach to conducting reading conferences and instead to ask questions and actually wait for students' answers. I began to pay closer attention to what students said and then reflected on their thinking in order to plan the next day's lesson. I was amazed at what my students were able to think and discuss once I waited and gave them the chance.

From the teaching diary I began keeping around this time (because Debbie Miller kept one!) I noted a discussion with my first graders: “Yesterday I called a class meeting to ask them why they were having trouble concentrating during writing workshop and why several of them were spending their time playing instead of writing. I asked the kids who I’d noticed were able to concentrate how they did it. Here’s what Casey said: ‘Well, I just build a quiet space around my head, like a room, so I can’t hear any other noises. Except I leave room for special sounds, like your voice, in case you give us directions. It’s like I’m in my own room and no one can bother me.’” By becoming a co-learner alongside students, I began learning to ask questions and seriously listen to the answers, thus allowing us all to learn from each other.

What I found was that by changing my language, I began to change my beliefs about teaching and learning. Over time, my “thank you” to students for their comments became true gratitude for the depth of their thinking. By pausing and waiting for answers to questions that I asked *without even knowing the answer myself*, I found students perfectly capable of creative, thoughtful responses that gave me pause. Students who in the past I would have pegged as distractible or impulsive demonstrated the depth of their thinking when asked to turn and talk to their elbow partners.

In a very short while, our classroom became a site of rejuvenation for me, a place for me to learn alongside my kids. I loved coming to school just to hear what the students might say about their thinking. Where the voice in the classroom had been disproportionately mine, the balance of discourse shifted to allow the students’ voices to be more clearly heard. We began to move towards a more dialogical classroom.

Not long after I began this shift in my teaching, Peter Johnston (2004) published “Choice Words” in which he systematically broke down the language of teaching, highlighting ways in

which specific questions and responses create a sense of identity, agency and transfer for students. I remember the dawning recognition I felt as I read and reread this tiny treasure of a book, feeling like a fish that has just discovered the pond surrounding it. Johnston included many excerpts of Debbie Miller's classroom discourse, demonstrating exactly what it was about her language that struck me as powerful. Whereas I had simply sensed that Debbie loved her students and created a respectful atmosphere in her classroom, Johnston explicitly described how she did it by invoking students' personal identities and using her power as the lead learner to support students in becoming agentive.

I highlighted and underlined sections on every page of Johnston's book, and began a tradition of rereading it each fall as I planned my upcoming year. His text gave me the language about language – the metalanguage – that I needed to become intentional about my own discourse. I came to realize that asking frequent questions such as, "What problems did you come across?" (p. 32) supported students in seeing problem solving as a natural part of the reading process, and that pointing out, "You managed to figure that out with each other's help. How did you do that?" (p. 71) helped students become metacognitive about their strategy use and develop a sense of agency. Peter Johnston's statement about classroom interaction sums up the power of agentive language: "The way we interact with children and arrange for them to interact shows them what kinds of people we think they are and gives them opportunities to practice being those kinds of people" (p. 79). As my discourse with students began to change, my beliefs about what kinds of people they were and what they were capable of also grew. My classroom became a place where students expected their voices to be heard, simply because I had changed my language and invited them to speak.

Several years later I became an instructional coach at a nearby Title 1 school. I had enjoyed only two short relationships with instructional coaches as a teacher, and in both cases I was mostly left alone unless I needed specific resources. Both coaches treated me with respect, offered occasional support, and led me to trust their confidentiality. Thus, I viewed coaching as an unobtrusive partnership that had little actual impact on my teaching. My new coaching position, however, was at a high-poverty Title 1 school that had not made Adequate Yearly Progress for the previous six years under the No Child Left Behind legislation (No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2002), and the principal had hired me and also an experienced literacy coach as replacements for what he felt were ineffective "data clerks" currently in the coaching positions. As we toured the school after my interview in May, I was abruptly introduced to a behind-the-scenes look at hierarchical power and language in a turn-around school. Both the principal and the experienced coach pointed out teachers who were "unmotivated", "resentful", and leaving the following year "with good riddance." I only recognized one teacher from a previous school, and made the mistake of saying she was "good," by which I meant she and I had stayed late several times discussing reading workshop. After exchanging a glance with the experienced coach, the principal stated that this teacher had a great deal of difficulty with classroom management and needed watching.

Over the course of the next year I struggled with the hierarchical social positioning that came with my new role as instructional coach. I had not expected such a broad leap between the roles of teacher and of administrative support, and indeed had missed the presence of the huge wall that separated the two. Suddenly I found myself aligned with administration and presented with power that I was not at all comfortable wielding. With the school having performed poorly on standardized tests for years, pressures from the state created tension between teachers and

leadership as well as an urgency to improve scores by whatever legal means necessary. That meant punitive teacher observations by administrators, intensive professional learning, and the use of coaching to "improve" teachers.

Within this atmosphere I struggled to establish my coaching voice. I began to wonder – how do I find balance between being directive and being responsive in my interactions with teachers? To what extent am I, as an instructional coach, complicit in teachers' disempowerment? Are there times I simply serve as a mouthpiece for the institutional power represented by the school administrators, the district office, or the state board of education?

In the intervening years I worked for a variety of principals and leaders who had differing and sometimes conflicting ideas about leadership, power, and the role of an instructional coach. Over time, I have found that many of the discursive strategies I used to invite student voices into my classroom also helped my relationships with teachers. Johnston's analysis gave me the questions and responses I needed to support teachers in developing agentive identities and helped me realize that my discourse "shows them what kinds of people we think they are and gives them opportunities to practice being those kinds of people" (Johnston, 2007, p. 79). The discourse that Debbie Miller used to foster dialogical classrooms often worked just as well in equalizing the power between coach and teacher. I began to learn to resist the temptation to jump in and solve a teacher's problem and instead ask, "So, what have you already tried?" I learned the difference of normalizing inquiry with, "What questions do you have?" instead of asking "Do you have any questions?" I started a list of open-ended, thought-provoking questions I heard other teachers and leaders use. I shared Johnston's book with other coaches and asked for their ideas on discourse that would allow teachers a stronger voice in institutional discourse. I wanted to know how I

might become more immediately mindful of the effects of my language, and how to make instructional coaching a more dialogical practice.

Statement of the Problem

Over the past two decades, American teachers have been under increasing pressure to produce measurable improvements in most academic areas for their students (Markhow & Pieters, 2012). The passage of No Child Left Behind in 2002 (NCLB, 2002) and the adoption of the Common Core State Standards by a majority of states beginning in 2010 (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010), are just the latest efforts by politicians to reform education by legislating change and mandating practice. Teachers feel they have less decision-making power in their classrooms than ever before, and often must follow narrow, scripted programs rather than have the freedom to design high quality instruction themselves (Brown, 2012; Markhow & Pieters, 2012; Troman, 2000).

The employment of instructional coaches has been one professional development method many districts have used in an attempt to improve education. Instructional coaching has been around in various forms for decades, but became much more popular after the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation was enacted in 2001 (Cassidy, Garrett, Maxfield & Patchett, 2009). While the commonly accepted purpose of instructional coaching is job-embedded professional development working closely with teachers, coaches can sometimes find themselves enforcing top-down mandates from the district as pressure to improve scores descends from the federal to the state to the district level (Deussen, T., Coskie, T., Robinson, L., & Autio, 2007). Rather than working in a partnership approach with teachers to uncover foundational beliefs about learning and best practice (Knight, 2007), coaches may instead essentially operate as an enforcement arm of the administration and spend a majority of their time in tasks unrelated to coaching (Deussen,

et al., 2007). While the roles coaches fill are varied, Rivera, Burley, and Sass (2004) state, "inconsistent and unclear perceptions of roles and expectations not only led to confusion and conflict among the coaches, but also demonstrated adverse effects on the quality of the coaching practice" (p. 7).

At the same time that coaches fill multiple roles within their schools, they also must decide how to position themselves in relation to teachers. Although coaches usually do not have supervisory duties, they might be perceived or even intentionally portray themselves as having an asymmetrical power imbalance in their interactions with teachers. Some coaches actively portray themselves as content area experts with little room for alternative opinions while others act as co-learners and form partnerships with the teachers with whom they work (Armstrong, 2012; Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; McLean, Mallozzi, Hu, & Dailey, 2010). The approach and language instructional coaches choose to use can make positive or negative impressions on teachers and thus influences their effects on instruction and student achievement within a school (Crafton & Kaiser, 2011).

Research on instructional coaching, also termed literacy coaching, has begun to emerge and generally has examined the varying roles coaches fulfill, the knowledge and skills coaches need for the job, their primary tasks and activities, and their impact on teachers' practice (Borman, 2006; Stephens et al., 2007; Stephens et al., 2010; Walpole & Blamey, 2008; Zepeda, 2012). Little research has been done on the power distribution between coaches and teachers during their interactions with one another (Hibbert, Heydon, & Rich, 2008; Hunt & Handsfield, 2013; Jones & Rainville, 2014; Rainville & Jones, 2008) or about the language coaches use during these interactions (Armstrong, 2012; Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; McLean et al., 2010; Peterson, Taylor, Burnham, & Schock, 2009; Rainville & Jones, 2008). These exchanges

between coaches and teachers, and the ways in which they are enacted, cut to the very core of coaching and its potential influence on teachers' beliefs and practices, yet more needs to be understood about the effects of coaching discourse.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This dissertation study was framed as a three-year critical participatory action research case study (Bergold & Thomas, 2012; Kindon, Pain & Kesby, 2007; Park, 2001; Simons, 2009; Whyte, 1991) of four current instructional coaches, myself included, as we explored the effects of our discourse on the teachers with whom we worked. Using video to capture our coaching interactions as well as our partner and group discussions to investigate our discourse, we took a reflexive stance to explore the ways teachers and coaches communicated with one another, the effects of specific discursive moves, and the ways in which power was shared or withheld between participants.

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to understand the discourse of coaching from a transformative perspective, by observing the links between coaches' discursive choices and teachers' actions with a particular eye towards the discourse that encouraged or discouraged a balance of power between coach and teacher. During the course of the study my goal was to understand:

1. How are interactions between coaches and teachers shaped by coaches' discourse?
2. What happens, in terms of reflexivity, when coaches engage in a dialogic process about coaching discourse and practice?

Theoretical Framework

After my experiences with crossing what felt like a power divide in my transition from teacher to instructional coach, I became interested in the idea of power. I wondered what exactly

power is, what it means to have it, and to not. Is power necessarily bad? How is power shared? How might my discursive choices affect the power distribution between myself and others? How can I empower others, or is that even possible? These questions led me to explore readings about theories of power and empowerment, and ultimately led to the formation of my theoretical framework using critical social theory.

Levels of Power

Thompson (2007) refers to three levels, or models, of power: personal, cultural, and structural. Personal power consists of the skills and abilities individuals possess that help them fulfill various roles in life. Agency, or the sense that one's actions have a measurable impact on others and the world, is closely connected to the idea of personal power and empowerment. Empowerment is not the same as delegating responsibility to others, nor is it a situation of simply giving away one's own power (Thompson, 2007). Rather, empowerment can be conceived of as using one's power to enable others to become more powerful. In this sense, power is generative rather than a substance to be gained, lost, or protected. Personal power and agency do not simply occur in isolation but rather develop within situated contexts and thus share dialectic relationships with the surrounding culture.

Cultural power is closely tied to discourse and the idea that discourses are the frameworks of language and behaviors that create particular cultural rules and expectations. For instance, discourses surrounding teacher-principal relationships generally attribute a disproportionate weight to the opinions and discourse of the principal, thereby illuminating cultural assumptions and unwritten rules about power and status of teachers. "Language is a central aspect of discourse through which power is reproduced and communicated" stated

Hugman (1991, p. 37), and can be observed in the ways that discourses define what is normal and culturally expected.

The third level of power is structural power, which refers to individuals' positioning along the social hierarchy. Access to this hierarchy is often limited based on one's affiliation with gender, class, race, or religious groups. Structural power exists in the barriers or access to resources that encourage discrimination and oppression based on ideological assumptions.

Thus, power exists simultaneously along personal, cultural, and structural levels. As Thompson (2007) pointed out, it is tempting and unfortunately fairly common to over-simplify the concept of power by ignoring its inherent subtleties and complexities.

Dimensions of Power

Power can also be described as belonging to specific dimensions outlined by Hanna Pitkin (1972) as *power to* and *power over*. The former type of power describes the ability or capacity to act on the world and to create change, as in the *power to* cause particular events. It is concerned with an individual's potential to achieve desired goals. On the other hand, *power over* is often used to describe domination and oppression and describes an unequal power distribution and the assumption of authority. Whereas *power to* is an individual, autonomous type of power that may or may not involve others, *power over* always involves one person or persons influencing others. While opinions vary (Thompson, 2007; Gohler, 2009), *power over* is often seen in a negative light, a type of "zero sum game" that necessarily removes power from others in the act of wielding *power over*. Both *power to* and *power over* exist at all three personal, cultural, and structural levels of power.

Additional dimensions of power arose from the work of feminists Amy Allen (1999) and Jo Rowlands (1998), who argued for the notions of *power with* and *power from within*. The idea

of *power with* involves a partnership approach to sharing power with others and can be seen as an act of solidarity with others, a chance to level the power playing field. Additionally, *power from within* describes the ability to draw on inner resources of strength and resilience and is associated with a spiritual approach to power. Rowlands (1998) described it as, "what enables the individual to hold a position or activity in the face of overwhelming opposition, or to take a serious risk" (p. 14).

These dimensions help us see that power is not "bad," nor is it "good." Power does not only exist in hierarchical form as a zero sum game in which one either has or does not have power, or having power for oneself necessarily diminishes power in others. Foucault (1978) argued that power is not a commodity to be given or taken, but is rather an effect of institutional discourses and thus omnipresent in society. Tendencies towards oversimplification of the understanding of power interfere with efforts to facilitate empowerment in others. Fook (2002) argued,

> "People do not fit easily into 'powerful' or 'powerless' groupings, sometimes having membership of both at the same time. As well, members of powerless groups do not necessarily agree on the form of their empowerment. Some people may experience the very same experience as empowering and others as disempowering. Sometimes what is empowering for some might actually detract from the empowerment of others" (p. 47).

These efforts to demystify power and clarify particular dimensions of power offer important implications for supporting agency among teachers and, subsequently, the roles and discourses of instructional coaches in education.

Empowerment

Encouraging others' empowerment relies on the dimension of *power with* as a way to facilitate others' *power to* and *power from within*. Thompson (2007) describes this sharing of power as the new professionalism, while Jim Knight (2007) calls it partnership coaching. In both cases, work by one person to facilitate another's empowerment rests on the common goals of building on others' strengths and encouraging reflexivity. Employing a strengths-based approach requires a shift away from the more typical tendency to identify deficits in others and then work to "fix" them. De Shazar (1985) has described this strengths-based approach as requiring us to become "expert conversationalists" as a way to support others in creating new narratives about themselves. Thompson (2007) argued that to encourage empowerment in others we must feel empowered ourselves, and that "all empowerment is a form of self-empowerment" (p. 35). Thus, in order to find our voices and make them heard, we must become reflexive about ourselves and our impact on the world. He quoted Simon (1990) who stated, "The one function that… anyone else *cannot* perform for another person is that of empowerment. Empowerment is a reflexive activity, a process capable of being initiated and sustained only by the agent or subject who seeks power or self-determination" (p. 32). That is to say, empowerment cannot be forced upon another, but must be initiated and desired from within.

This definition of empowerment has important implications for the work of instructional coaches as they work within the personal, discursive, and structural layers of power in education. Instructional coaches and other leaders in education inhabiting roles of authority are traditionally viewed as "the expert" or the possessor of knowledge. This places them in a position of *power over*, which can lead to passivity and blind acceptance of instructions by teachers (Brookfield, 2005). Compliance to rules without reflexivity is the antithesis of empowerment. Thus the

question becomes, how might instructional coaches fulfill their roles in ways that allow for the empowerment of teachers?

Critical Theory

"Philosophers have only interpreted the world. The point is to change it!"

Inscription on Karl Marx's grave site in London (Bronner, 2011)

My desire to examine relationships of power and empowerment drew me to explore critical theory, with its call to recognize and act upon situations of oppression, inequality, and injustice. Teachers have increasingly become a marginalized, undervalued group within their own field whose voices often go unheard amid the clamor for school reform (Markhow & Pieters, 2012; Troman, 2000). Critical theory allows researchers to study the impact of unequal power structures with the intent to use that knowledge to take action to repair injustice (Brookfield, 2005).

Critical social theory, also known simply as critical theory, grew out of Marxism in the years between World War I and World War II, and has been growing and adapting to changing social situations ever since (Bronner, 2011). Critical theorists often focus on the social injustices that result from the inequalities embedded within capitalism. According to Brookfield (2005), critical theory is based upon three core assumptions: that Western society promotes highly unequal, discriminatory practices despite its democratic premise; that members of this society are complicit in the continuation of these inequalities through their willing belief in the dominant ideologies distributed throughout these societies; and that critical theory must first understand this before setting about to change it. Poster (1989) stated, "Critical theory springs from the assumption that we live amid a world of pain, that much can be done to alleviate that pain, and that theory has a crucial role to play in that process" (p. 3).

The roots of critical theory grew out of the Institute for Social Research in Germany, which was founded in 1923 and eventually came to be known as the "Frankfurt School" (Bronner, 2011). As Europe began moving closer to the inevitability of World War II, members of the Institute were forced to move from Germany to several European locations until finally settling at Columbia University in New York, where the term "Critical Theory" was first used to describe their thinking. Principal members of the Frankfurt School included Theodor W. Adorno, Erich Fromm, Herbert Marcuse, Walter Benjamin, Jurgen Habermas, and Max Horkheimer. Each of these men explored slightly different avenues of critical theory, according to their varying interests.

Key concepts. Several key concepts are fundamental to critical theory: ideology-critique, or the critical examination of the ideologies of the culture in power; Marcuse's examination of one-dimensional thought; alienation of workers as a result of unimaginative job structures; and Habermas's idea of communicative action and the ideal speech community (Prasad, 2005; Brookfield, 2005, Bronner, 2011). Each of these will be examined briefly in turn.

Ideology-critique. Critique of ideology is the central concept of critical theory (Brookfield, 2005). Ideologies are the accepted beliefs and practices within a given society, and while they need not necessarily be oppressive or suppressive in nature, the goal of critical theorists is to surface those seemingly obvious beliefs within capitalist societies that serve those in power. Ideologies often legitimize and perpetuate unequal class structures and spread through acts of commission – for example, the teaching in schools that majority rules, and thus what many believe must be correct – and through acts of omission, or the silencing of alternative perspectives.

Hegemony is an element of ideology distribution and describes ways in which people come to accept and perpetuate self-defeating ideological beliefs (Prasad, 2005). For instance, mass culture in Western society has disseminated an ideal female body image which many women willingly subscribe to and perpetuate without question. This hegemonic belief supports an entire industry of health and beauty products and services while simultaneously serving to weaken women's self-images. The aim of critical theory is to surface the accepted beliefs and practices that make up dominant ideological understandings, examine their effects on all members of society, and through exposing them allow positive change to occur.

One-Dimensional Culture. Herbert Marcuse, in his book *One Dimensional Man* (1964), described the effects of industrial capitalism on the free thought of man. Capitalist culture has created a technical world, he argued, which serves to focus on objects rather than subjective emotion, life experiences, or the interplay between these objects and human subjects (Prasad, 2005). In this resulting one-dimensional world, people strive for standardization as a method of security, with one obvious example being the standardization of education in recent years in America. "One-dimensional thought is instrumental thought focused on how to make the current system work better and perform more effectively" (Brookfield, 2005, p. 190).

This one-dimensionality is perpetuated by commodification of many elements of culture. The focus on objects and the "having" of objects carries over to more abstract aspects of daily life, so that satisfaction, happiness, and even knowledge become commodities to acquire. An example of this can be seen at one elementary school in north Georgia where the school's motto is: "Main Street Elementary: Conquering Knowledge" as if knowledge were an object to be pursued and defeated. A related concept is Adorno and Horkheimer's idea of instrumental reason that "regards knowledge as little more than a *means* to an end as opposed to knowledge

itself as a way of life" (Prasad, 2005, p. 144). In this way, thought and knowledge become commodities to be owned and traded, and learning for learning's sake is seen as suspect.

Alienation. An understandable result of the commodification of life in industrial societies is the alienation of the work force (Brookfield, 2005; Bronner, 2011). As workers feel a lack of control over what they do they feel alienated and disengaged from the work at hand. The loss of creativity and decision-making power within their daily activities contributes to this alienation, and instead of feeling united or collaborating with their working peers, they instead sense boredom and a lack of investment in their mutual success.

Many critical theorists see overcoming alienation as a key purpose of critical social theory (Bronner, 2011). By definition, freedom to act is the reverse of alienation; to overcome alienation people must regain freedom to make decisions in their everyday lives. Erich Fromm, who did a great deal of work with alienation, argued that for some the responsibilities of freedom are too heavy a weight to bear, and they willingly give up freedom of choice in order to join the safety of the masses (Brookfield, 2005). An example can be seen with teachers who prefer to follow instructional sequences outlined in teachers' manuals rather than create their own lessons. This automaton conformity contributes to the ideological control of the dominant culture and allows those in power to remain in power. Critical theorists see it as their responsibility to make people aware of their complicity with the system and initiate critical thinking to resist this conformity.

Communicative Action. Jurgen Habermas' idea of communicative action was an attempt at a solution to the repressive ideology, one-dimensional culture, and alienation experienced by citizens of today's industrial societies (Prasad, 2005; Brookfield, 2005). In Habermas' view, communication is a uniquely human construct, the ultimate goal of which should be consensus.

He thus described what he termed an "ideal speech community" in which participants communicate in a rational, respectful manner free of hidden motives and agendas. Brookfield (2005) described Habermas' perspective: "When people agree on something, they enjoy 'the intersubjective mutuality of reciprocal understanding, shared knowledge, mutual trust, and accord with one another' (Habermas, 1979, p. 3)." It is this model of communication that can allow citizens to change their world.

Critical theory and instructional coaching. Several key aspects of critical social theory align well with the issue of instructional coaching discourse and its impact on teaching. Critique of ideology is the central concept of critical theory (Brookfield, 2005) and ideologies abound within education that remove power from teachers and yet enforce personal responsibility. These can include beliefs that test results are more reliable than teacher observation, that high expectations can overcome any societal or economic impacts on students, and that American schools are failing most students (Lima, 2013; Phiup, 2012). Underlying ideologies specific to instructional coaching may include instinctive beliefs that administrators and coaches are "experts" and must know more than classroom teachers, or that professional learning that simply describes pedagogical strategies should be sufficient to change instruction. Current educational ideologies of standardization have led to heightened control of pedagogy through common lesson plans and scripted, packaged programs that leave little decision-making up to the classroom teacher. Many teachers subscribe to the hegemonic beliefs that struggling students need to be removed from the classroom in order to receive "better" instruction elsewhere. As others begin to lose trust in teachers, teachers also lose trust in themselves (Brown, 2012; Troman, 2000).

It is no surprise, therefore, that many teachers feel alienated and disengaged from the work at hand (Markhow & Pieters, 2012). The lack of creativity and decision-making power

within their daily activities contributes to this alienation, and instead of feeling united or collaborative with their work peers, they sense a lack of investment in their success. Brown (2012) found in a systematic review of studies on burnout in teachers that depersonalization had a very strong negative relationship to feelings of self-efficacy and resulted in teachers feeling disconnected from their organization and losing their sense of idealism.

Amid this growing sense of disempowerment among teachers, the field of instructional coaching has continued to grow. Questions remain as to the positive or negative effects the role of instructional coach can have on teacher empowerment.

Coaching Literature Review

Coaching has a long history and has undergone many variations over the past several decades (Cassidy, Garrett, Maxfield & Patchett, 2009). What started as literacy specialists and peer coaches in the 1980s became literacy coaches with the advent of No Child Left Behind legislation (NCLB, 2002) in the 2000s, and has more recently broadened to coaching that includes multiple content areas (Cassidy et al., 2009). A variety of approaches to educational coaching are available, from cognitive coaching (Costa & Garmston, 2002), aimed at impacting teachers' thinking about instruction, to instructional coaching (Knight, 2007), which focuses on a partnership between the coach and teacher, to peer coaching (Joyce & Showers, 2002), where practicing teachers coach one another.

Coaching is a job-embedded form of professional development, wherein coaches support teachers by offering new learning and current research within the context of teachers' classrooms and specific needs (Zepeda, 2012). Coaches perform a wide variety of roles, from gathering resources for teachers; assisting in analyzing formal and informal data; supporting new teachers; leading individual, small-group, and whole-staff professional development sessions; educating

and informing parents; researching current instructional practices; and providing feedback for teachers (Deussen et al., 2007; Zepeda, 2012). While researchers have had difficulty establishing the effectiveness of coaching on increasing student achievement (Cornett & Knight, 2008), several studies have found a positive effect on student learning and teacher effectiveness (Bean, Draper, Hall, Vandermolen & Zigmond, 2010; Knight & Cornett, 2005; Stephens et al., 2007; Stephens & Mills, 2014; Vanderburg & Stephens, 2010).

Coaching power and positionality

Coaches generally occupy a vague, occasionally ill-defined position in education between classroom teacher and administrator. While not wielding the power of the building principal or supervisor, the coach does have the freedom to visit classrooms uninvited and the presumed knowledge to judge instructional methods as “good” or “bad,” and thus occupies a unique space in the power hierarchy of a school.

Researchers have explored power and positionality related to coaching roles and the relationships coaches form with teachers. In many studies, coaching interactions have been characterized as falling along a continuum from directive communications to more responsive (Armstrong, 2012; Burkins, 2007a; Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; Heineke, 2013; Ippolito, 2010). Ippolito (2010) used interviews, focus groups and observations to describe ways in which literacy coaches balanced interactions with teachers between directive and responsive stances. A directive stance was defined as one in which the coach "assumes the role of expert" and is "assertive about what instructional practices teachers must implement" (p. 165). This stance was associated more with serving as a voice for administration to ensure that teachers implemented specific school and district goals. A responsive stance, on the other hand, described the coach as

following the teacher's lead and focusing on "teacher self-reflection, thereby allowing teachers' and students' needs to guide the coaching process" (p. 165).

Ippolito's study found that coaches who felt a balance between these two stances had the most effective approach to improve classroom practice while simultaneously easing the tension between district requirements and teachers' professional needs. Ippolito's study found three behavioral mechanisms supported balanced coaching in the group she studied: "(1) shifting between responsive and directive moves within a single coaching session, (2) using protocols to guide individual and group coaching sessions, and (3) sharing leadership roles to align teacher, coach, and administrative goals" (p. 169). Further research was suggested to determine factors that support or prevent coaches from balancing their coaching stances as well as the impact this shift might have on student achievement.

Hunt and Handsfield (2013) argued the need to look beyond the roles of literacy coaches and more closely examine the people within the role and the emotional aspects of the position itself. They took a poststructural, postmodern view of coaches' negotiations of identity, power, and positioning as they participated in professional learning as new coaches. Data was gathered through interviews and observations using careful field notes of professional learning situations for coaches. The first author observed several professional learning meetings and sessions, and then looked for overall patterns using constant comparative analysis. Stories illustrating these trends were pulled from the recorded interviews and analyzed using positioning analysis.

Hunt and Handsfield found that the coaches in the study struggled to negotiate the landscape between the discourse of building collaborative relationships and the oftentimes competing discourse of demonstrating expert knowledge. "The literacy coaches often used emotional expression to respond to the two conflicting discourses of building supportive, trusting

relationships and demonstrating expert knowledge. Specifically, they expressed frustration and defeat as they attempted to align themselves with both discourses" (p. 71). The authors suggest that coaching must move beyond an oversimplified vision of roles and tasks and that coaches should be supported in negotiating the complex positioning inherent in the job.

Stephens and Mills (2014) describe a similar belief in the power of collaborative communities to impact practice during the implementation of the South Carolina Reading Initiative in which literacy coaches were trained on a statewide scale over a number of years. The article focuses on the inquiry approach the teaching team took toward the professional learning for the literacy coaches. Organizers of the SCRI believed in responsive teaching, and that "sound professional development focused on people, not programs" (p. 192); therefore, the focus of the work became an honest examination of the participants' beliefs in an effort to change their practice. The authors found that changes in practice generally occurred after teachers and coaches were given a chance to reflect upon their beliefs, and in order for this to happen in relevant, genuine ways, participants needed to be given the power to inquire into their own beliefs on their own terms. Several specific strategies in the article illustrate how coaches and teachers were led to examine the connections between their beliefs and practices. "If we wanted to promote genuine transformation, we needed to teach at the belief rather than practice level" they stated (p. 196). Their work resulted in measurable gains as evidenced in rising test scores and reductions in Individual Education Plans (Stephens et al., 2007).

Regardless of the efforts of coaches to examine their beliefs or work within collaborative communities, they continue to be caught between district definitions or expectations for coaching and the desire of teachers to exert power and make decisions within their own classrooms. Jones and Rainville (2014) recognize this struggle and recommend applying doctrines of Eastern

philosophy by “recognizing suffering and the causes of suffering, acting with humility, and practicing compassion” (p. 276). They suggest that coaches become attuned to the shifting power relations in schools and honor the work of teachers while acknowledging the suffering inherent in that work by responding with compassion.

Coaching Discourse

Discourse is both the site of power and ideological struggle as well as a stake within such struggles (Fairclough, 1989; 1992a; 2014). My own awakening to the power of discourse within my classroom later led to my understanding of the role of discourse in enacting hierarchies of power in the larger school setting. I started to notice effects of my discursive decisions as a coach and thus began researching studies that analyzed the discourse of coaches and the impact of such discourse on teaching and teachers.

Armstrong (2012) took a social constructivist view of coaching and although she discussed coaching within the world of business, her perspectives are equally valid within educational coaching. Armstrong compared two approaches to coaching - the coach-expert model and the coach-custodian model. She argued that coaches are biased towards being seen as the expert, the holder of knowledge, because "advice giving is the habitual practice ...in our culture" (p. 40). Her term "coach-custodian" stems from the need to "safeguard the dialogic space" (p. 41) in order to allow the coachees to empower themselves and create their own meanings.

Armstrong contrasted several scenarios using each method, and demonstrated how the coach-custodian role trusts the dialogue to allow the coachee to find her own answers. "The difference between the coach-expert and coach-custodian roles is that the coach-expert is curious about the situation/world and the coach-custodian is curious about the person (as meaning-maker

of their own experience)" (p. 41). Coaches must not view themselves as the expert, Armstrong argued, but instead should strive to construct and lead a dialogue that allows the coachee to uncover answers for herself. Armstrong modeled this approach in several scenarios. The key was "encouraging the development of new meaning around the coachee's experience" (p. 39), and while Armstrong did not give any specific questions for this development, she encouraged coaches to trust the coachee as a powerful meaning-maker and to trust the dialogue to do its work, even in the face of occasional discomfort. Coaches must be reflexive about their role in the process and vigilant against the temptation to offer advice.

Crafton and Kaiser (2011) agreed with Armstrong's defense of a more responsive, dialogic approach, arguing that communities of practice provide the best opportunities for professional learning by empowering teachers and providing space for inquiry and negotiation of meaning through dialogue. Similar to Armstrong (2012) and Ippolito (2010), two very different roles for coaches are presented: a coach serving as expert and in control of teacher learning, versus a coach serving as colleague and peer allowing teachers to guide their own learning through dialogic means. The authors explored the theoretical underpinnings of this second coaching role by examining Vygotsky's work as it applies to adult learning and language. Bakhtin's dialogic approach was also used to explain the success of communities of practice through methods of "genuine talk" (p. 113). Authentic dialogic processes in professional learning, they argued, provide opportunities for learners to build communities of practice in which teachers can examine and reshape their identities as learners.

Gibson (2006) argued that the roles of expert and collaborator are not contradictory. Her case study followed a first-year coach as she worked with a teacher over the course of a year helping him learn effective guided reading practices. Guided reading sessions and coaching

sessions were video recorded and transcribed, then analyzed and coded for patterns and themes as well as conversational turns. Gibson found that the coach expressed frustration at times with the tension between what she perceived as lack of progress in the teacher's instructional decisions and the need to remain collaborative and supportive. Despite this frustration, Gibson felt the coach was successful in empowering the teacher by consistently asking him to reflect on his practice and analyze his students' work.

> "Although Lisa was able to establish a coaching relationship with Jim that emphasized co-construction of pedagogical knowledge, she also consistently maintained her stance as an expert. These two goals are not contradictory when reading coaches possess high amounts of expertise in reading processes and are knowledgeable and experienced in staff development and teacher support" (p. 315).

Gibson thus argued that coaches can successfully inhabit the roles of expert and collaborator while supporting teachers, and suggested it to be a necessary stance for highly-skilled coaches.

Building on this argument by Gibson, it is important to discover exactly how coaches might inhabit these roles discursively. Heineke (2013) strove to determine this when she tape-recorded and then analyzed four coaches as they each worked with a specific teacher over several sessions. Her findings surrounding the patterns of discourse, specifically the idea of progressiveness, stem from the work of Wells (1999), which in turn derives from Halliday (1994).

Heineke found that coaches in her study tended to dominate the interactions with teachers by initiating most exchanges, making the most utterances, and often by interrupting at higher rates than the teachers. Prospectiveness, or discourse moves that tend to extend the talk by

demanding responses or replying to a verbal response with a step-up "move that was higher in prospectiveness than the previous move" (p. 422), was also analyzed, with Heineke finding that coaches had the highest number of request moves while teachers provided the most step-up moves. "Coaches indicated little or no awareness of the power of their words to encourage the full engagement of teachers by facilitating teacher talk and reflection" (p. 429).

The tendency of coaches to dominate the discussion led Heineke to suggest that coaches may need to be aware of the range of stances open to coaches, from a more directive stance to a more reflective stance, with language surrounding a more reflective coaching stance possibly contributing to the sociocultural theory of learning upon which this study is based. She suggested a need "for coaches to become more knowledgeable about and adept at determining when and how to use different coaching stances or models from an entire continuum in order to best meet the differing professional development needs of teachers" (p. 429). Thus, Heineke contended that coaches should have a range of perspectives available to them and be aware of when and in what ways discourse impacts their work.

Several studies have examined ways in which coaches encourage reflective thinking in their work with teachers. Stephens and Mills (2014), as described above, implemented an inquiry approach over a multi-year coaching project to target teacher beliefs as a way to influence instruction. Peterson, Taylor, Burnham and Schock (2009) also studied reflective language as they examined coaching conversations that took place at four schools as a part of the Minnesota Reading First Professional Development Program. Coaches were trained in a Cognitive Engagement Model, developed by Taylor, Pearson, Peterson and Rodriguez (2003), that "encourages teachers to consider *how* they teach as well as *what* they teach by asking them to reflect" (p. 502) using specific reflective questions.

Peterson et al. (2009) shared excerpts of one-on-one conversations between a coach and teacher following specific lessons observed by the coach. The authors discovered four patterns that emerged across the four schools and eight coaches observed: 1) coaches used protocols to guide their conversations; 2) coaches gave examples using specific data collected during the observation; 3) coaches asked questions rather than telling teachers what to do; and 4) these coaching conversations helped connect the other professional learning they were engaging in to the instruction within their classrooms.

While Peterson et al. (2009) do not specifically address the idea of teacher empowerment through these coaching conversations, it is possible to consider their third pattern, coaches asking questions rather than telling teachers what to do, to be addressing this idea. Unfortunately, the coach questioning outlined in this article appears to be somewhat stilted and inauthentic, rigidly following the protocol outlined by the Cognitive Engagement Model. Examples include the coach asking, "Did you clearly state the purpose?" and "Are your students engaged in active as opposed to passive responding?" Occasionally the interactions sound robotic:

> Teacher: How can I use more high level questioning with informational text? This needs to be a new goal for me.
>
> Coach: I see that you have already been reflecting on this area.
>
> Teacher: It is easier to create these questions for narrative text than for informational text. (p. 506)

Although the stilted conversations recorded between coaches and teachers in this article are distracting, the article does have potential to contribute to the knowledge base surrounding the effects of coaching language. Data for the study was collected by an observer watching the coach and teacher conversation while typing as much of the conversation as possible on laptop

computers. It is possible that this interfered with the ability to capture authentic language and that videotaping the conversations might have allowed us to see different language. While the authors admit that the measured student growth during the course of the study cannot be solely attributed to coaching conversations, they do state that teachers made changes to their instruction and that teacher reflections were stimulated through their conversations with colleagues.

Rainville and Jones (2008) examined how coaches negotiate the various identities required of instructional coaches and how power shifts between participants as the coach shifts between different identities. Three scenarios from a larger study were examined wherein the coach served as professional colleague in control of one situation, a disempowered "assistant" seen as wasting another teacher's time, and finally as co-learner within a study group gently guiding teachers towards new understandings. In each of these scenarios the authors briefly examine the language that contributes to the shifts in power between coach and teacher.

The coach positioned herself as being in control of an interaction with one teacher by taking control of the conversation from the beginning, asking clarifying questions and even putting words in the mouth of the teacher by paraphrasing her comments. The teacher's word choices were more hesitant, indicating she was relying on the coach for expert opinions.

However, in another situation the coach encountered a teacher resentful of her position and presence in his classroom. In this case the teacher's language exerted power over the coach by interrupting and ignoring her comments before finally stating he preferred she did the assessments for him in the back of the room, essentially repositioning her as his assistant, despite her attempts to reestablish herself as a "knower". The language choices by this teacher enacted the reversal of power in this situation.

Finally, the coach led a teacher study group in which teachers struggled with the idea of letting students have choice during reading. The coach validated their concerns while also asking leading questions and making comments that pushed teachers' thinking. "Kate layered her questions and comments so that she built on what the teachers said but highlighted the parts that would lead them in the direction of her goal" (p. 446).

Perhaps one of the most salient findings of this study concerns the positioning of the coach as it regards empowering teachers:

> "Conscious and strategic self-positioning by a coach as a learner or co-participant is not only possible but also can open up spaces in which teachers feel they can take control of their professional development and experiment with ideas that could change their practices" (p. 447).

Thus, they argue, the adoption of a responsive, collaborative stance by coaches is more likely than a directive stance to encourage reflective thinking and the changes in beliefs that can lead to changes in practice. This positioning of the coach as co-learner is echoed in the finding of Peterson et al. (2009) that coaches asked teachers questions rather than telling what to do, the dialogic communities of practice proposed by Crafton and Kaiser (2011), and in Stephens & Mills' (2014) work on inquiry as a primary method of professional learning for coaches and teachers.

In general, a review of the literature reveals that the ways in which coaches interact with teachers often ranges from a more directive, coach-as-expert interaction to a more responsive stance that positions the teacher in a stronger role. Studies demonstrate that negotiating these stances is often difficult for coaches, creating tensions situated in specific contexts and enacted through discourse. A consistent finding throughout these studies is the importance for coaches to

honor the beliefs and thinking of teachers and to thoughtfully negotiate the power that accompanies their positions.

Significance of the study

While the studies described above address power in coaching and the discourse of coaching, I was unable to find examples of studies that used a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (Fairclough, 2012; 2014) approach directly tied to Critical Theory as an examination of power in coaching discourse. Learning more about the ways in which coaching discourse is influenced by institutional and societal layers of power warrants further research made possible through the use of CDA, which provides a means of examining the contextualization of discourse as social practice.

Likewise, I was unable to find examples of coaching studies that used critical systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994; Harman, forthcoming; Martin & Rose, 2007) as an analytical tool for examining explicit discursive elements in coaching discourse. SFL allows us to analyze a text to examine the roles of specific discursive choices as well as the ways these choices are realizations of the larger social contexts surrounding them. Thus, SFL provides a means to understand how coaches' discourse both reflects and is influenced by institutional and cultural contexts. My study explores coaching discourse as social practice by exploring discourse as situated practice and by examining the patterns of discourse within coaching settings. My use of these approaches and methods has the potential to fill a gap that currently exists in the research.

In sum, my study has the potential to contribute to the field of coaching by using SFL analysis to explore the ways coaches' discourse shapes the interactions between coaches and

teachers. The next chapter describes my methodology including the design of my study as Participatory Action Research and a description of specific research methods.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

The chapter describes Critical Discourse Analysis as my overarching analytic method and outlines the design of my study and reasons for the specific elements of the research design.

Critical Discourse Analysis

Discourse is defined as language in use and therefore maintains that every discursive situation be considered in relation to the surrounding institutional and social contexts (Fairclough, 1992b). The goal of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is not to seek an understanding of a particular event, but rather to examine social systems as a whole, and how particular elements impact on each other. Thus, discourse is viewed as an element of social practice and cannot be separated from the larger social structures of which it is an inherent part (Fairclough, 2014; Rogers, 2011). This view of discourse provides a structure that allows us to examine coaching discourse simultaneously on multiple levels.

Norman Fairclough is recognized as being one of the great minds and foundational figures involving critical discourse analysis (Blommaert, 2005; Rogers, 2011). Over the past 25 years, he has developed an approach to CDA that includes a framework for understanding the discursive practices in society that replicate and support our larger societal structures, with an overall objective of "raising people's consciousness of how language contributes to the domination of some people by others, as a step towards social emancipation" (Fairclough, 2014, p. 2). As a key part of his framework, Fairclough has argued that language cannot be isolated

from context. Discourse and our existing reality engage in a dialectical relationship, each inextricably linked to the other, both resulting from and resulting in one another (Fairclough 1989; 1992a; 1992b; 2012; 2014).

Fairclough's work with CDA is based on Critical Theory and shares the goal of revealing elements of power, ideology and hegemony within society as a pathway to action (Fairclough, 1992a; 1992b; 2012). While Fairclough has always focused on CDA as a powerful method for analyzing power and ideology within discourse and the dialectical nature of discursive events and the social structures to which they are connected, his approach has evolved over the years to more explicitly emphasize the transformative potential of CDA to change social reality (Fairclough, 2012; 2014; Rogers, 2011). Fairclough stated, "The aim of CDA is to use critique of discourse as a point of entry for critique of the existing social reality which can provide sound reasons for action to change it" (Fairclough, 2014, p. 12). The purpose of CDA, then, is to reveal the elements of our discourse that contribute to domination and oppression, and to understand how these are connected to overall societal structures in order to act to change them.

To illustrate the dialectical relationship between society and discourse, Fairclough has described three levels, or dimensions, of social reality that have dialectical relationships with each other: discourse-as-text, discourse-as-discursive-practice, and discourse-as-social-practice (Fairclough, 1992b; Blommaert, 2005). These can be pictured as concentric rings (see Figure 2.1) with discourse-as-text in the center, each within and informing while also being informed by, the others.

Discursive practices are the network of communicative structures that normalize our interactions and include various genres, discourses, and styles, or what Fairclough has termed elements of "orders of discourse" (Fairclough, 1989; 1992b; 2014). For example, the way

teachers conduct parent conferences often fits within an expected genre, uses particular educational discourses, and employs a somewhat formal style. These orders of discourse serve as an intermediary between discourse-as-social-practice, or the larger societal structures in

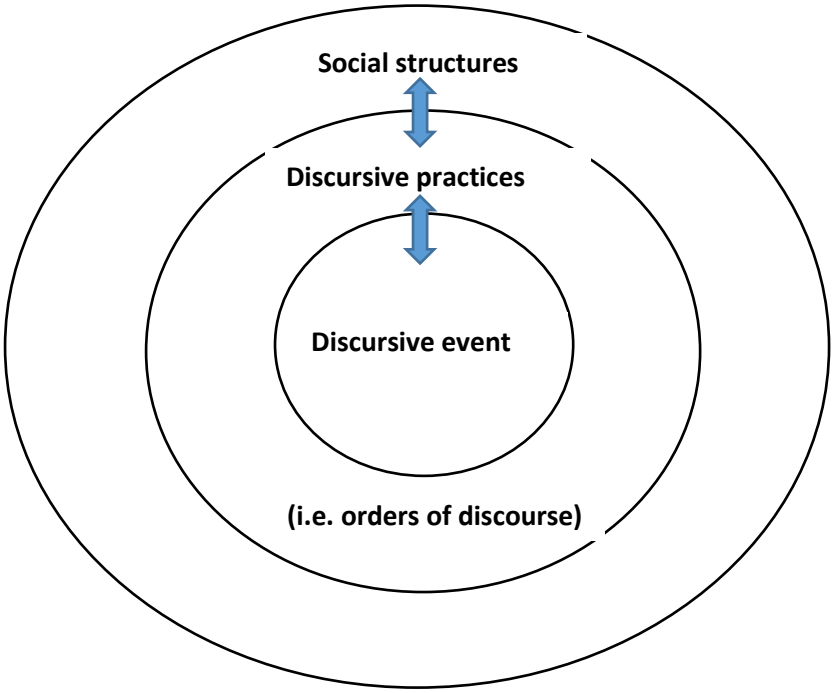

Figure 2.1: Fairclough's Dimensions of Social Reality

use, and the actual discursive event, or "text." As people use language they produce texts within a specific discursive event while enacting particular social practices; thus, discourse is informed simultaneously by all three levels of Fairclough's framework.

Orders of discourse mediate between the abstract social structures embedded within language and the concrete goals of the actual discursive event. Elements of these orders of discourse include the genres (ways of interacting), discourses (ways of representing), and styles (ways of being) that constitute social practices (Fairclough, 2012; 1992b). Within teacher

professional development, examples of genres might include large group presentations, small group book clubs, and individual coaching sessions; examples of discourse could include the discourse surrounding whole language instruction or the discourse surrounding Common Core standards; and examples of styles would involve how formal, informal, intimate or casual the situation might be.

To illustrate the three dimensions of discourse, imagine an instructional coach who conducts a professional learning session for a group of teachers about instructional practices in writing. The layers of discourse occur simultaneously, flexibly informing and being informed by the surrounding contexts and the purposes of each. As the coach conducts the professional development session (the discursive event) she employs discursive practices that enact the larger social structures at play. The discursive practices might involve particular structures, such as presentations and lecture, which communicate larger societal expectations about how learning should occur. The orders of discourse in the form of genres, discourses, and styles are the actions, representations, and constructions of identity (Fairclough, 2012) that form the network of social practices that are typically labeled "professional development." Analyzing these orders of discourse enables the critique of issues of power and ideology embedded within the interaction, although each coaching situation reflects the shifting experiences and contexts of the individual participants while also revealing the influence of surrounding social structures. Shifts in genres, shifts in discourses and shifts in styles can also be analyzed for their effects on particular discursive practices (Fairclough, 2012). It is in the outermost circle, discourse-as-social-practice, that Fairclough has situated his examination of ideology and hegemony as tools of power and social change, though these concepts are enacted within discursive practices and texts (Fairclough, 1992b). Because coaches are discursively enacted as administrative superiors

to teachers in institutional discourse, only continual challenging of this positioning among a large group of teacher/coaches nationwide can lead to a shift in the normalized discourse-as-social-practice.

Fairclough (2014) has described CDA as involving three layers of analysis: critique of actual discourse, explanation of how the discourse is related to larger social elements, and action to oppose social injustice. Fairclough (2014) compared CDA with other types of discourse analysis (corpus linguistics, ethnographic sociolinguistics, discourse-historical CDA) and argued that the fact that his version of CDA focuses not just on normative critique, i.e. the critique of actual discourse and how well it matches the norms and values of the society, but also focuses on explanatory critique, i.e. the critique of the existing social reality and an attempt to explain its relationship to the discursive event in which it is embedded, is what makes it a truly critical approach (Fairclough, 2012; 2014).

It is his final analytical stage of "action" that particularly aligns his version of discourse analysis with the critical social sciences by including an assumption of action as a result of the earlier stages of analysis and interpretation. While in his earlier editions of *Language and Power* (1989; 2001) Fairclough implied a call to action as seen in the social and political struggles described in his explanation stage, his introduction to the third edition specifically addresses the need for societal action (Fairclough, 2014). However, he has acknowledged that while CDA serves to inform potential societal action by surfacing injustices or contradictions, CDA itself does not dictate or directly suggest explicit actions to be taken to repair such injustices. He stated, somewhat bleakly, "While critique, and recognition of the force of critique, are necessary conditions for achieving change for the better, they are not sufficient conditions, and there are formidable obstacles to realizing the transformative potential of critique" (Fairclough, 2014, p.

38). In other words, CDA is only a tool of analysis that permits us to recognize the impact and power of discourse, but what we do with that information and how we choose to use it to address social injustice is beyond the purview of CDA. Individuals and groups, armed with the knowledge provided by CDA, must take action to understand struggles of power and enable the empowerment of others. More recently, a Positive Discourse Analysis movement has begun an effort to focus on aspects of discourse that contribute to positive social change (Martin, 2004).

Design of the Study

The design of this study developed from my interests in the powerful influence of discourse within the field of education and coaching, along with the realization that few articles exist that examine coaching discourse from a critical perspective. My research questions about the effects of instructional coaches' discursive choices and the potential impact of a dialogic coaching study group on coaches' reflexivity led to very intentional choices in my research design, as described below.

My own exposure, early in my coaching career, to the hierarchical power structures within schools and coaching positions led me to Critical Theory as the theoretical basis for my study. From there it was a short leap to adopt Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 2014) as my analytical framework for examining coaching discourse. In this dissertation I have written three articles as the body of my dissertation, and two of these articles focus on discourse at a micro-analytic level with the use of systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 1994; Martin & Rose, 2007).

In originally designing my study, I knew that I wanted to include other coaches in the exploration of language but felt uncomfortable with the possible inequality that implied. I wanted to avoid creating a hierarchical situation in which I, as the seemingly more-informed,

knowledgeable researcher, studied coaches as objects, thus recreating an imbalance of power that mirrored the very situation we were striving to critique. I also realized the value of the emic perspectives of the practicing coaches as they reflected on the relationships between power and language in the midst of their practice. The case study approach allowed me to explore the uniqueness of each situation (Simons, 2009) while also recognizing the inherent subjectivities involved. As participant-researchers we served as both research instruments and the objects under study. As Simons (2009) stated, "You learn about yourself, in other words, as well as about the case."

Therefore, I chose to structure the study as Participatory Action Research (Kindon, Pain & Kesby, 2007; Park, 2001; Whyte, 1991) wherein the participants, myself included, would be given the opportunity to closely study and analyze their own coaching discourse. Inherent in this action research was the idea of reflexivity as it applied to our growth as coaching practitioners. The sections below describe in greater detail my understanding of and the reasoning for my methodological decisions.

Participatory Action Research

Participatory Action Research (PAR) differs from other research approaches in the degree to which ordinary people have a voice as research participants (Bergold & Thomas, 2012; Kindon, Pain & Kesby, 2007; Park, 2001; Whyte, 1991). As a methodology, PAR attempts to equalize the imbalance of power inherent in more traditional approaches by asking participants to collaborate in some or all aspects of the study. Implicit in this approach is the expectation that the research addresses a problem important to those participating and that action towards change and improvement is a primary goal, what Park (2001) calls "research of the people, by the people, and for the people" (p. 81).

PAR emerged in the 1940s as participatory research and action research before merging into its current form (Kindon, Pain & Kesby, 2007). Paulo Freire's (1993) work with peasants and farmers of his native Brazil was an early example of these efforts to involve community members in inquiry around local problems and then examination of the potential political and societal causes. The approach generally involves a cyclical repetition of action and reflection as an "orientation to inquiry" (Kindon, Pain & Kesby, 2007, p. 13) and includes "gathering and analyzing necessary information, strengthening community ties, and sharpening the ability to think and act critically" (Park, 2001, p. 81) as three necessary types of knowledge required of participants.

Methods include dialogue, storytelling, and collective action and oftentimes ask the researcher to take a secondary role by allowing participants to make key decisions and drive the direction of the study (Kindon, Pain & Kesby, 2007). However, PAR studies differ to the extent that participants are involved in all stages or to varying degrees of depth. Pretty, Guijt, Thompson and Scoones (1995) developed a continuum of participation describing a range of participation levels, from simple passive participation to the giving of information to functional or interactive participation and even self-mobilization. While Bergold and Thomas (2012, p. 200) suggest that "unless people are involved in decisions – and, therefore, research partners, or (co-)researchers – it is not participatory research," the degree of participation may vary widely in PAR and should be negotiated between researcher and participants (Bergold & Thomas, 2012; Kindon, Pain & Kesby, 2007).

Although the basis of PAR is ostensibly a shared power structure between researcher and participants, post-structuralists argue that, even when conducted according to the most stringent guidelines, PAR still serves as a form of power through the often expert status of the researchers

and their control of the circumstances of the study. Kesby, Kindon and Pain (2007) acknowledge that PAR is a form of power, but argue that "existing critiques slip too readily between power and domination as if they were the same thing" (p. 20). Empowerment and power need to be viewed through a post-structuralist lens as effects, rather than commodities; thus they argue that rather than being seen in opposition, power and empowerment are entangled in ways that allow for the potential of PAR to produce transformative action. Domination may become negotiation, and coercion of subjects may instead become authority among participants. However, these positive effects of PAR may face limitations of time and space if participants' abilities to speak and act in empowered ways are limited by negative repercussions beyond the research context (Kesby, Kindon & Pain, 2007). One focus of PAR should thus be identifying sustainable means of impacting practice.

While the degree to which participants of my study contributed to the data analysis might fall lower on the scale created by Pretty et al. (1995), I chose to identify the study as PAR because the participants took part in basic analysis of their own videos over the course of the three year study. Each coach participant watched and re-watched themselves on video, took notes on their word choice, body language, or tone of voice, and noted the resulting teacher actions. While their observations would not be constructed as formal CDA or SFL analyses, their data was collected and discussed, and resulted in changed behaviors and deeper reflexivity concerning their practice as coaches. In addition, their reflections formed a significant part of my analysis and write up of the study. In other words, their insights and analyses were integral to my findings and my own developing reflexivity.

Reflexivity

The concept of reflexivity can have several connotations when applied to this study. From the qualitative research perspective, reflexivity is the honest consideration of the impact of the researcher's role, perspective, and actions on the study itself (Patton, 2002). Similarly, we might also look at the reflexivity of the participant-researchers and the ways in which they engaged in critical reflection as coaches in their work with teachers. I will address my own reflexivity in the Researcher Positionality section below and will devote this section to a review of reflexivity as it might apply to the researcher-participants of the study.

Examination of reflective thought in education is often considered to have originated with John Dewey (1933). His definition of reflection as, "Active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends," (1933, p. 6) stands as a foundation for many subsequent years of research in reflection and inquiry. Reflection, Dewey argued, begins with a sense of perplexity or a concern and "involves willingness to endure a condition of mental unrest and disturbance. Reflective thinking, in short, means judgment suspended during further inquiry; and suspense is likely to be somewhat painful" (1933, p. 13). Reflection is not necessarily easy, in other words, and requires that we do the hard work of exploring problems of practice.

Schon (1987) developed the idea by exploring reflection as it applied to practitioners in professional fields. His approach described methods teachers might use to engage in reflection-in-action in the moment of teaching as well as reflection-on-action as they think back about previous instruction. Schon distinguished between the intuitive artistry of teaching and the technical knowledge derived from scientific research. Understandings developed through reflection in professional practice should be valued as much as or more than esoteric theory, he

argued. The coaches participating in my study sought to develop these understandings by examining how theories about power related to our practice as we reflected on our actions.

Thompson and Pascal (2012) describe the difference between reflective practice and reflexivity by way of a mirror analogy. Being reflective, they argue, is a matter of thinking about our practice and analyzing the results, but being reflexive involves thinking about how we influence and impact our practice. Reflexivity asks us to look in the mirror and turns the focus upon ourselves.

Kember et al. (1999) describe four levels of reflective thinking based on Mezirow (1991). The lowest level is "habitual action," and as its name implies includes knowledge that requires little thinking or thinking that can be done automatically. The next level is "understanding" or what Mezirow termed "thoughtful action." This encompasses the types of thinking that are included on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy as knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis. The third level is described as "reflection" and connects actions and thoughts by describing the process of problem-solving professional practice. The highest level of reflection outlined by Kember et al. (1999) is "critical reflection" and reflects Mezirow's grounding in critical theory through the examination of values and beliefs and their impact on the positioning of others.

As educators, we include a critical aspect to reflexivity when we investigate how we influence and are influenced by aspects of power within our practice. At the same time, we must surface the ideological assumptions to which we often unknowingly subscribe and examine their impact on our practice. For professional practice to be transformative, we must take into consideration reflective practice and the individual agency and larger influences of institutional

and cultural power structures at work (Brookfield, 1995; Kember et al., 1999; Thompson & Pascal, 2012).

Brookfield (1995) argues that critical reflective practice results from examining ourselves through four distinct lenses: an autobiographical look at oneself as a teacher and a learner, our students' eyes, our colleague's perceptions, and theoretical literature. It is necessary to branch out beyond simply reflecting on our practice by ourselves; however, simply reflecting with others will not always result in truly critical perspectives:

> "One of the problems of standing outside ourselves, however, is that the people we use as mirrors often share our assumptions. In this situation, our conversation with them becomes an unproductive loop in which the same prejudices and stereotypes are constantly reaffirmed" (p. 29)

In other words, we must seek to have honest dialogue about the impact of our assumptions and power on our practice, and we must be willing to hear from others observations that do not fit with our perceptions of ourselves or the world.

The purpose of this study was for all participants to examine our discourse as coaches, something none of us had previously done at a highly conscious level. We would likely have fallen in the "habitual action" or possibly "understanding" levels of the Kember et al. (1999) study. We hoped to create a critically reflective group with enough trust to explore our own and each other's ideological assumptions and examine our own complicity in creating situations of dominance and unequal power. Our study engaged us in a combination of reflective writing, discussion with coaching colleagues, and examination of theoretical literature to push our reflexivity to higher levels. In this way, we aimed to deepen our reflexivity regarding our

coaching methods, the language we used with teachers, and how these impacted our work with others.

Site Selection and Sampling

In the fall of 2013 I asked for interested participants from the coaching pool of the county in the Southeastern United States in which I worked as a Professional Learning Specialist. The district consisted of 20 elementary schools, nine of which employed 12 coaches between them. I emailed a description of the study to all 12 coaches, hoping to include one coach in the initial pilot study and later add additional coaches. I made a purposeful selection of this group due to my established working relationship with these coaches, many of whom I had visited at schools and brainstormed with as we discussed various coaching situations. Quite a few of the coaches had been appreciative of these chances to discuss their decisions and were therefore already comfortable reflecting on their practice and impact as coaches. I hoped that the relationships I had built would prevent undue stress or self-consciousness during the study, and enable honest discussions.

Another consideration for choosing these particular coaches was logistical due to the fact that I had to continue to work full-time as I conducted this study. By forming an inquiry group exploring the impact of our language on coaching relationships, I was fulfilling my supportive role with the county coaches while also offering an opportunity for participants to grow professionally. In this way the study was mutually beneficial to all involved. It was therefore necessary to use a purposive sampling strategy with this study.

The recruitment email resulted in two responses from coaches interested in participating in the study. I chose one coach, Mandy (all names are pseudonyms), to participate during the first year pilot study from fall 2013 to spring 2014. The following year I added the second

interested coach, Rachel, and also asked a third coach, Kay, if she would like to participate based on her expressed interest in discourse during coach meetings. Adding additional coaches enabled me to include a range of variation (Maxwell, 2013) in the coaching methods and language I observed. All three coaches and I participated in the study during the school years from 2014-16.

Description of the Cases

Three instructional coaches from the district agreed to participate in this study. Mandy joined the study in the first year as the only participant besides myself. Kay and Rachel joined us for the second and third years of the study.

Kay

When she joined the study Kay had been an instructional coach for 12 years at Manchester Elementary Arts Academy, one of the longest-serving coaches in the district. She had been teaching 24 years, with over half of those at Manchester, first as a 3rd grade teacher, then a halftime teacher/coach, and then as a full-time coach.

Manchester Elementary was a high-poverty school of about 550 K-5 students with 87% of students qualifying for free or reduced lunch. While 73% of the student population was Hispanic, only 47% qualified for English Language Learner (ELL) services. A majority of the rest of the student population identified as White, with a very small percentage identifying as Black or Asian-American.

About a decade before, the superintendent had urged district schools to find ways to distinguish themselves from the status quo by finding a focus or passion with which the faculty and students could identify. Over the next several years, this resulted in a wide variety of charter schools and schools of choice across the district, ranging from schools built around multiple intelligences, math and science, world languages, Steven Covey's (2014) “Leader in Me,” and

inquiry-based learning. Manchester Elementary chose to focus on integrating the arts, and for the five years prior to the study teachers had learned how to include visual, musical, and kinesthetic expression throughout daily instruction. Additionally, each student signed up for CREATE classes (Create Reflect Explore Apply Think Experience), which were quarterly classes that met weekly on a variety of arts-integrated topics such as hip-hop dance, knitting, musical theater, cooking, gardening, storytelling, yoga, ukulele, and much more.

Kay supported teachers as they negotiated the changes that came with Manchester's charter status. Kay was petite and energetic, and a master of the punchline when it came to telling stories about her teenagers and 4-year-old son. She was a gatherer of stories as well, and most mornings she could be found cruising the halls as the children arrived, checking in, swapping stories, and offering to run last minute copying errands for harried teachers. Over the years she had gained a great deal of trust and respect from her fellow teachers, as evidenced by their regular arrival at her door to celebrate, cry, ask questions, request assistance, and share their teacher-observation results. "What do you think she means by this?" they would ask, leading Kay to alternately console, explain, or offer support. These conversations in her office often led Kay to provide long- or short-term support by teaching alongside teachers in their classrooms.

Kay had escaped the often-typical coaching track of getting drawn into the administrative duties, materials purchasing, data analysis, and car/lunchroom duties that can often take over an instructional coach's day and prevent her from supporting teachers in classrooms. Kay did do occasional stints at all of those jobs, but every day outside of testing season would find her in classrooms either modeling, visiting, or conferring with teachers. On those occasions when she realized she had free time, she found it successful to approach a teacher and ask to practice a teaching strategy with the students. She was well-aware that she had been out of the classroom

for over a decade and so had no qualms about saying, “Hey, I need to practice some of the close reading strategies I've been reading about - can I come teach a lesson to your 4th graders next week?” She was intentional about then giving the teacher an observation organizer and asking for feedback afterwards. This simple strategy, she found, allowed her to practice new skills as well as drew in teachers to learn about new strategies themselves. It was not uncommon for these practice sessions to turn into a longer-term visit of several weeks as she co-taught the new strategy with the host teacher.

Kay purposely cultivated a high level of trust with the teachers in her building by remaining tightlipped about her conversations with them. Her principal and assistant principal both knew that she never revealed names, even if teasingly asked - “You know I can't tell you that!” she would fire right back with a smile. Instead, she liked to speak in generalities, mentioning that, “Some teachers are confused by the specifics of math workshop” or “I've gotten questions about your observation feedback to teachers about differentiation - perhaps we should offer some PL on that.”

Much of her ability to be discrete was a result of the strong relationship she had built with her principal over the years. Dr. Rodriguez was an outspoken, high-energy proponent of the arts who had no qualms about questioning teachers about their instructional goals as she walked the halls and visited classrooms. Teachers knew that kids came first with her and that they should be ready at any time to defend their decisions. Dr. Rodriguez likes teachers who think, and she provided plenty of opportunities for them to do so in faculty meetings, twice-weekly grade level planning sessions, and a combination of required and optional professional learning sessions led by Kay throughout the year. As a result of this combination of high-expectations and support, Manchester had some of the highest scores in the district for a Title 1 school.

While the arts focus had been very successful and strongly supported by students, parents, teachers and the district, changing requirements for charter schools caused Manchester to decide to relinquish its charter status beginning in 2015-16. They continued their arts focus as a school of choice within the district. Additionally, Dr. Rodriguez decided to retire after 30 years of teaching and leading, resulting in a year of change and adjustment for Kay during the 2015-16 school year.

Mandy

Mandy had been an instructional coach at Blue Hill Elementary for seven years and had taught for a total of 16 years at three schools in two different districts. Her work as a coach had changed over the years as Blue Hill cycled through a series of three administrators during her tenure.

The approximately 500 students at Blue Hill Elementary comprised one of the most diverse Title 1 populations in the district, with 30% of students identified as White, 20% as African American, and 50% as Hispanic. Approximately 40% of the students qualified as English Language Learners (ELL) and 94% qualified for free and reduced meal services. Blue Hill had struggled with academic test results since the No Child Left Behind legislation (NCLB, 2002) was enacted. When Mandy first became coach, Blue Hill was ending a two-year stint as a Reading First school, an intensive federal program using scientifically based research to require teachers to conform to reading programs that focused on five core components of reading instruction but resulted in little impact on reading comprehension (Gamse, Bloom, Kemple & Jacob, 2008). During the study Blue Hill was notified it would be a Focus School for the years 2015-18. This was a state designation for Title 1 schools with Achievement Gap scores in the bottom 10%. Despite gradually increasing scores from 0 out of a possible 15 in 2012 to 9 out of

15 in 2014, Blue Hill was unable to escape Focus School status, which was determined from an average of three years' data.

Mandy had coached under three different principals while at Blue Hill Elementary. The principal during the latter part of the study, Dr. Bristol, had arguably had the largest impact of the three administrators as the teacher population saw a significant amount of turnover and test scores began to rise due to curricular and pedagogical changes. The years under Dr. Bristol also coincided with the implementation of a new state teacher evaluation system, new Common Core-aligned state standards, and a new state student assessment. The combination of the new initiatives, different administration, and the Focus School designation resulted in a high rate of teacher stress in the building. Throughout this, Mandy remained a calm and steady force.

Mandy was a self-proclaimed teaching nerd and professional book addict. Quiet and unassuming, she tended to melt into the background in large group gatherings. Colleagues and teachers, however, knew her to be highly knowledgeable and enthusiastic about current research, education blogs, and the Twitter feeds of favorite professional authors. Her first years as coach at Blue Hill Elementary proved to be fairly frustrating as she struggled to overcome the faculty's understanding of the coaching role as a punitive enforcer of Reading First guidelines. Several faculty members, including the former coach, actively resisted her attempts to support them and created an atmosphere of distrust and resentment. Only during the final two years of the study had receptivity to Mandy's coaching improved as the new initiatives and administration compelled teachers to seek her expertise at the same time that several original staff members, including the former coach, left the school.

By the final year of the study Mandy led professional learning for small groups of teachers or modeled in and visited classrooms every day. A large portion of her time was spent

supporting the 14 new staff members who arrived that year and the 12 teachers in their second year. Teachers tended to find her unassuming manner to be a great sounding board for presenting their teaching dilemmas; therefore, many days she could be found meeting one-on-one with teachers at the small round table in her office, which doubled as the professional learning room for the school.

Over the final two years of the study Mandy became an enthusiastic advocate for supporting a growth mindset in teachers. She began emailing a motivational "Thought of the Day" after teachers responded with enthusiasm to several quotes she sent the staff about growth mindset. Part of her encouragement of teachers' constant growth came through inviting them to participate in video-coaching, which resulted as a by-product of her participation in this study. Over the three years of the study, a majority of teachers at her school had signed the study consent forms and were thus aware of her self-proclaimed efforts to study her coaching discourse by videotaping many of her coaching sessions. After reading Jim Knight's (2014) *Focus on Instruction*, Mandy chose to capitalize on her own growth by communicating to teachers the power she felt from watching herself on tape and offering to collaborate with them to do the same. During the final year of the study she had five teacher volunteers record their lessons and meet with her to collaborate.

Rachel

Rachel had been coaching at her school, Lionel Springs Elementary, for three years. Before that she served as coach at a nearby elementary school for one year until economic downsizing caused the district to remove funding for coaches at non-Title 1 schools. She volunteered for this study at the end of her first year at Lionel Springs and her second overall year as a coach.

Lionel Springs Elementary was located in the poorest area of the school district. Many of the almost 900 students lived in trailers and shacks with inadequate heating, cooling or food near the center of town. The student population was not diverse – 99% of students were Hispanic and 98% qualified for ELL services – and almost every single student received free and reduced meal services. The school had consistently had difficulty meeting benchmarks on statewide assessments since No Child Left Behind legislation (NCLB, 2002) was enacted, although they did make Adequate Yearly Progress between 2008 and 2011. However, newer data configurations based on College and Career Ready Indices resulted in Lionel Springs being the second of two schools in the district on the Focus Schools list, along with Blue Hill Elementary.

Lionel Springs had five principals and two assistant principals over the nine years prior to the study, with the current principal, Mr. Washington, beginning his third year in 2015-16. The school had experienced a high turnover rate of instructional coaches as well. Being one of the biggest and poorest schools in the district translated to funding that allowed for more than one coach, and while most years there had been two coaches, some years the school had three or even four coaches. Over the previous nine years a total of 10 coaches had come and gone. At the time of the study Rachel shared the job with another coach who arrived the year after Rachel began. Despite the high turnover of coaches and administrators, teachers who came to Lionel Springs tended to stay. While a few new faces arrived each year, a majority of the faculty had been at the school for ten years or more.

Rachel found that the consistent changes – in state standards, teacher evaluation, student assessments, and leadership – had created a sense of cynical resignation in many of the experienced teachers. She chose to counteract this with bubbly enthusiasm combined with an honest, straightforward style. Her speech was punctuated with Southern colloquialisms that put

people at ease and simultaneously pulled no punches. “Sister,” she would say to a teacher who approached her with a poor evaluation from the principal, “we’re gonna get through this together! You tell me what ideas you have and I’ll come lend a hand.”

Each year found Rachel’s role to be slightly different, with her first year including providing interventions to struggling students half the day and her second year involving more intensive coaching all day. The final year of the study found her and the other building coach spending a segment of each day co-teaching a group of second graders for their main literacy instruction in an effort to support second grade teachers by reducing their class sizes and also provide a model for classroom instruction. Cameras had been permanently installed in their classroom with the hope of capturing model lessons, however the equipment worked inconsistently.

Rachel also led large group and small group professional learning, including teacher book clubs. She regularly attended grade level meetings and worked occasionally with teachers on an individual basis. Lionel Springs was a large school with a student population that struggled in many areas, and at times it was hard for Rachel to know how best to spend time as a coach.

Researcher Positionality

My position as Professional Learning Specialist within the district informed both my relationship with the participants and my interpretation of the data. In addition, over the course of this study I became more aware of how the power associated with my position and my growing knowledge as a doctoral student was perceived by others.

When I launched the study I already knew the 12 coaches in the district for between one and ten years, some as teaching colleagues, or student teachers, many as coaching peers, and one as the parent of one of my third grade students. Since 2008 I had served in a district-level role

under an evolving series of titles, beginning as the district's lead Title I literacy coach, later changing to Teacher on Special Assignment for Literacy, and most recently as Professional Learning Specialist for Literacy. While the titles had changed, my role had essentially remained the same as I led our monthly coach meetings and served as a liaison between Central Office and the coaches, answering their questions about instruction, policy and procedures as best I could. I did not serve in a supervisory capacity – all coaches were evaluated by the building principals – but instead tried to act as what Killion and Harrison (2006) have termed a "coaching champion" by offering a listening ear during difficult coaching situations and communicating their concerns anonymously to county administration. Over the years I felt I had built a reputation with most coaches as someone who was confidential, non-judgmental, and honestly interested in their growth as a coach. I did not pretend to have all of the answers and made a concerted effort to ask genuine questions and put myself forward as a learner.

That being said, I was realistic in realizing that my position was seen by many as a position of power within the hierarchy of the district. The combination of my perceived access to Central Office administrators, the content knowledge I had accumulated over the years, the time I had served in this position, and even the fact that I was pursuing my doctorate all served to distance me from the coaches despite my efforts otherwise. This imbalance of power could be seen in the earliest videos of my individual meetings with the participant coaches when they looked to me for my reactions as we watched their professional learning tapes or even outright asked me if what they had done was "right." It was also painfully obvious to me after watching the first few videos of these meetings that I tended to talk too long and dominate the conversations. Despite my overt goal of creating a level playing field of co-researchers within this study, all of us instead fell into more traditional "teaching-learning" roles, with the coaches

expecting to learn something from me about coaching language and me slipping into instruction-mode as I eagerly shared what I had learned. Only after watching the first few tapes did I realize what was occurring, and thus worked to balance our interactions by explaining our roles as co-participants and intentionally asking more questions and providing more wait time. I was honest with the participants about these tendencies of mine, and it became a source of humor for us throughout the study. I believe the design of the study as a multi-year project helped us become more comfortable with and more able to balance our roles over time.

Over the course of the study I maintained a reflexivity journal in which I collected my reflections after meeting with coach-participants or videotaping my own coaching. Over time I found that I became much more attuned to my growing understanding of critical theory and the connections between my research readings and my ongoing experiences with language and power. My reflexivity journal became a running record of my own journey of understanding and served as documentation of my changing theories and perspectives as well as my growing identity as a coach, teacher, and researcher.

Data Collection

I collected data during this study in three major ways: through interviews with each participant at the beginning and end of each year (Kvale, 2007), by videotaping (Erickson, 2011; Jewitt, 2012) individual monthly meetings with each instructional coach during which we discussed our videotapes of work with teachers, and by videotaping group meetings of all coach participants as we met to discuss our ongoing findings. Table 2.1 outlines a timeline describing when data collection occurred.

Table 2.1: Data Collection Timeline

August 2013	First interview with Mandy
September 2013	I begin collecting videos of my own coaching
August 2013-April 2014	Eight individual meetings with Mandy
April 2014	Second interview with Mandy
May 2014	First interviews with Rachel and Kay
August 2014	First group meeting with all four coaches
Sept 2014-March 2015	Five meetings with Rachel; Six meetings with Kay; Four meetings with Mandy
November 2014	Second group meeting with all four coaches
March 2015	Third group meeting with all four coaches
March 2015	Second interviews with Kay & Rachel; Third interview with Mandy
September 2015 – April 2016	Five meetings with Kay; Five meetings with Mandy, and three meetings with Rachel

Interviews: I began by interviewing each coach separately to record her initial beliefs, theories, and understandings about coaching discourse. Each coach was interviewed at the beginning and end of their first year in the study and then again at the end of each subsequent year's participation. A general interview guide approach (Patton, 2002) was used in constructing the questions used in these interviews. The nature of the participatory action research approach as well as the types of questions asked required that a less-formal structure be used in order to allow for spontaneous follow-up questions and requests for further explanation. The interview guide consisted of a combination of feeling, knowledge and background questions (Patton, 2002) designed to guide the coach in reflecting on her role as a coach and the impact of her language and actions on others. However, as deMarrais (2004) has noted, "because each participant is unique, each qualitative interview experience will also be unique" (p. 53) and thus, the interview questions were only a guide as I found I needed to follow the participants' leads in supporting a dialogic interaction.

Videotaping individual meetings: I met individually with each coach on an approximately monthly basis during the course of the study. We each brought digital video recordings of ourselves leading professional learning activities with teachers and discussed the coaching language and the power dynamics of the exchanges as we viewed the recordings. Each of our meetings was videoed so that both verbal and visual cues could be analyzed. I met with each coach for a minimum of five hours each over the course of four months and collected extensive field notes along with video logs or transcripts (Patton, 2002) for later data analysis. I asked that each coach maintain a reflexivity journal (Simons, 2009) to record their changing ideas and observations over the course of the study.

Videotaping group meetings: Meetings with the entire group of coaches (Kvale, 2007) occurred three times during the 2014-15 school year, and twice during the 2015-16 school year. These meetings were video-recorded so that both verbal and visual cues could be analyzed. These meetings allowed for triangulation of data as participants shared their questions and findings with each other.

Table 2.2: Inventory of Data Sources

	Number of items	Description of items
Interview transcripts	7	3 interviews with Mandy, 2 each for Kay and Rachel
Field notes	187 p.	field notes from meetings, notes from f2f interviews, notes from my work with teachers during my own videos, time logs, reflections on meetings with coaches and my own videos
Documents	46 p.	video logs of all individual and group meetings with coaches, resources from meetings with coaches (both online resources and created by them)

Videos		
Videos of Mandy	18	videos of coaching shared with me
Videos of Kay	8	videos of coaching shared with me
Videos of Rachel	8	videos of coaching shared with me
Videos of Heather	97	videos of myself coaching
Videos of Mandy mtgs	17	videos of our meetings with each other
Videos of Kay mtgs	4	videos of our meetings with each other
Videos of Rachel mtgs	8	videos of our meetings with each other
Videos of group mtgs	4	videos of our meetings with all four of us

Data Analysis

In this section I will describe my overarching data analysis approach. Then I will describe specific data analysis approaches used for each of the three articles that make up my dissertation.

This study stemmed from a curiosity about the ways coaching discourse shaped the interactions between teachers and coaches, with an overarching interest in coaching discourse that positioned teachers in ways that encouraged them to empower themselves. Therefore, Critical Theory (Bronner, 2011; Brookfield, 2005) and Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1989, 2014) formed the theoretical foundations for the study, and a "critical" form of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994; Harman, forthcoming; Martin & Rose, 2007) served as the analytical tool with which to examine discourse.

SFL allows researchers to analyze discourse in order to explore the ideas and power embedded within "language in use" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 7). "In SFL, discourse analysis interfaces with the analysis of grammar and the analysis of social activity somewhere between the work of grammarians on the one hand and social theorists on the other" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 4). In this way, analysts study specific language choices as well as the larger meanings of these choices. Thus, similar to Fairclough's (2014) critical discourse analysis but on a more

micro-analytic level, SFL can be used to explore the dialectical relationships between specific discursive events and the discursive practices and larger social contexts that shape them.

SFL linguists analyze the register, or context of the target situation, along three dimensions: field, tenor, and mode (Martin & Rose, 2007). These dimensions correspond respectively to three metafunctions of language that simultaneously convey specific meanings: ideational meanings about the world, interpersonal meanings about roles and relationships, and textual meanings about the role of language. The articles in this dissertation focused primarily on the second of these metafunctions, interpersonal meanings within the discourse, or how the speaker or writer relates to the listener or the subject matter being discussed. Mood and personal references are analyzed when looking at interpersonal meanings, as well as the degree of certainty expressed through modalities and appraisal, or the attitude of the speaker towards the topic of discourse.

The first article was published in the May 2015 issue of The Reading Teacher under the title “Courage to Love: Coaching Dialogically Towards Teacher Empowerment.” This article addresses my first research question, “How are interactions between coaches and teachers shaped by coaches’ discourse?” It is co-authored with a participant in the study and is a practitioner-oriented article in which we use elements of constant comparative analysis methods to examine our data.

The second article, titled “Changing Language, Changing Beliefs: A Case Study in Coach Reflexivity” was an exploration of the effects of the study on Mandy, one of the coach participants. This article focused on my first research question, restructured for this article as: “How did the coach discursively construct the identities of the teachers with whom she worked?” It also addressed my second research question, “What happens, in terms of reflexivity, when

coaches engage in a dialogic process about coaching discourse and practice?" Field notes, transcripts and logs of interviews, debriefings, observations, and inquiry group meetings were coded using a constant comparative method (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Saldana, 2013) to search for common patterns in coaching discourse such as questioning strategies, turn-taking, belief statements, and body language. Codes were collected, sorted, and analyzed for themes based on the research questions. Mandy was offered the opportunity to search for codes and themes within her data as well.

Additionally, appraisal theory was used to analyze Mandy's discourse in the second article. Appraisal theory, developed by Martin and Rose (2007) and informed by the discourse semantic strata of the language system, provides metalinguistic resources that support the analysis of power and solidarity, two key variables of tenor (Martin & White, 2005). Issues of power such as equality of negotiations and expressions of attitude are realized discursively and can be analyzed using three interacting domains of appraisal theory. *Attitude* evaluates expressions of feeling, judgments of people, and appreciation of objects or situations. These attitudes can be scaled upward or downward through *graduation* of force or focus which allows speakers to support or disengage from particular ideas. Finally, *engagement* is the extent to which alternative voices are interwoven into the discourse. Heteroglossic texts allow for multiple voices that may be interwoven to expand or contract the dialogic possibilities, while monoglossic texts close to alternate possibilities. Transcripts of Mandy's interviews and coaching videos were analyzed using these elements of appraisal theory to examine ways in which she discursively constructed the identities of teachers.

My third and final article, "Leading Lesson Study: Navigating Facilitation Roles in Inquiry-Based Professional Learning," used a critical take on systemic functional linguistics

analysis (SFL) (Halliday, 1994; Harman, forthcoming; Harmon & Simmons, 2014; Martin & Rose, 2007) to answer my first research question regarding the impact of coaching discourse on coach-teacher interactions. In this article I examined coach-teacher interactions during Japanese lesson study, an inquiry-based professional learning method intended to promote progressive dialogue between participants. Therefore, my specific research question for the article was: "How did the facilitator occupy and shift between specific roles in order to support progressive discourse?"

A combination of qualitative (Saldana, 2013) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994) approaches was used to analyze the data in this third article. I sorted, read and observed collected data in the form of field notes, videotapes and video logs in an effort to describe the roles I fulfilled as facilitator during the lesson study sessions. After broad categories of roles emerged, I accessed the research of Halliday (1994) and Eggins and Slade (1997) for guidance in utilizing SFL as a tool for delving more deeply into the ways social roles are enacted through discourse. Halliday provided a structure for understanding the interplay between discourse within the context of a specific situation and larger institutional and cultural influences. Eggins and Slade (1997) provided guidance in understanding how the ways that speakers chose to interact with each other through particular speech functions such as initiating, reacting, responding, developing, confronting, or supporting moves reflected power within discourse. Speakers' choices of specific speech functions are constrained by the context of the situations within which they find themselves as well as their social roles within that context. SFL allowed for close analysis of coaching discourse during these professional learning activities related to how power relationships might influence coach's and teachers' interactions.

Limitations and Challenges of the Study

This study had several limitations both in methods and scope. I fully realize that the videotaped interactions captured by coaches represents only a small part of their daily interactions with teachers. Each coach, including myself, made strategic decisions about which interactions to record and which not to. Sometimes these choices were made due to the delicacy of the conversations between coach and teacher, and thus some truly difficult or stressful interactions were not captured or discussed. At the same time, I realize that many interesting interactions between coaches and teachers happened spontaneously and were therefore impossible to capture on camera. These choices necessarily narrowed the scope of the data we had at our disposal to analyze and discuss.

Another limitation of the study concerns the perspectives available as data. While I interviewed the coaches participating in the study and they met with me regularly to discuss the videotapes, we did not consult the teachers for their perspectives on the interactions captured on tape. It is therefore not possible to know how teachers felt during or after the episodes that were taped, nor is it possible to know their perceptions of their own empowerment in those situations. This limitation necessarily restricts the interpretation of the data to the coaches' perspectives.

Technology served to be a challenge for some of us, both in the availability of working video cameras and the ease of sharing clips with one another. Each of us had stories to tell of instances when we thought cameras were recording but did not or when new technology options made sharing files difficult. As participant-researchers, we all set up cameras to operate independently during our sessions with teachers, and as a result did not pan and zoom to capture various multimodal responses. Thus, some nuances were lost as some participants sat off camera.

I also realize that the simple presence of video cameras may have altered interactions, both between coaches and teachers and also between me and the participant coaches. While I tended to forget the camera was there, teachers were almost always initially self-conscious and asked to sit off camera when in groups. However, those teachers who engaged in multiple interactions with the coach over the course of the study did not verbalize any discomfort at later meetings. Regardless, it is possible that teachers and coaches regulated their comments due to the presence of the camera.

CHAPTER 3

ARTICLE 1:

COURAGE TO LOVE: COACHING DIALOGICALLY TOWARD TEACHER EMPOWERMENT[1]

[1] Wall, H. & Palmer, M. 2015. *The Reading Teacher, 68*(8), 627-635. Reprinted here with permission of the publisher.

Teaser: In this article, the authors explore Paulo Freire's conditions for dialogue as a tool for creating empowering, effective collaborations between instructional coaches and teachers.

Pause and Ponder

- How might the language I use impact others?
- How can we encourage the five conditions for dialogue?
- What can we do if one of the conditions for dialogue is missing in our interactions with others?

"I just wish I had the time to meet with all of my small groups," Donna, a second-grade teacher, sighs." But with the time I have to take out of reading to fit in the mandated library time and daily school-wide intervention, I don't feel like I'm able to meet with all my students." The other teachers, folded uncomfortably into small children's chairs around the room, nod in agreement.

"I know!" Tina interjects. "I feel like all my spare time is spent completing forms, entering scores, and writing up lesson plans for inspection. If I want to rearrange my schedule to make writing workshop longer, I have to ask for permission first. I've had 10 separate meetings during my planning time this week alone. How am I supposed to think through what my kids need when I'm always behind on paperwork?" Her voice rises, her frustration tangible, and the others agree sympathetically. They look to me, the instructional coach who has gathered them for yet another apparently pointless meeting, and I feel a twinge of guilt for my role in their frustration. "Just tell us what you want us to do," Tina sighs, glancing at the clock. "I've got to pick my kids up in five minutes."

As instructional coaches, we have witnessed an increasing sense of disempowerment and frustration in the teaching profession over the past 10 to 15 years. With mounting political pressure and government oversight have come heightened accountability measures, mandated curricula, and increasing numbers of assessments to be analyzed, graphed, and reported. Teachers feel they have less decision-making power in their classrooms than ever before and often must follow narrow, scripted programs rather than designing high-quality instruction themselves (Brown, 2012; Markhow, Macia, & Lee, 2012; Troman, 2000). Depending on the school district, instructional coaches might work with teachers by serving as dispensers of pedagogical knowledge, enforcers of particular instructional programs, or partners engaging in reflective conversations. In this article, we argue that the role of an instructional coach should be used to empower teachers to take charge of their classroom decisions rather than as a quasi-administrative or enforcement position within a school.

Coaching Roles

While the commonly accepted purpose of instructional coaching is job-embedded professional development, coaches can sometimes find themselves enforcing top-down mandates from the district as pressure to improve scores descends from the federal to the state to the district level (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson, & Autio, 2007). Rather than working in a partnership approach with teachers to uncover foundational beliefs about learning and best practices (Knight, 2007), coaches may instead be pressured to operate as an enforcement arm of the administration and spend a majority of their time in tasks unrelated to coaching (Deussen et al, 2007).

At the same time that coaches fill multiple roles in their schools, they also must decide how to position themselves in relation to teachers. Although coaches usually do not have supervisory duties, they might be perceived or even intentionally position themselves as having

an asymmetrical power imbalance in their interactions with teachers. Some coaches actively portray themselves as content area experts with little room for alternative opinions; others act as co-learners and form partnerships with the teachers with whom they work (Armstrong, 2012; Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; McLean, Mallozzi, Hu, & Dailey, 2010).

Years ago, as new coaches, we each felt the need to prove ourselves and so tended to answer teachers' questions quickly and directly, searching for and discovering solutions to the problems they brought us, assessing and diagnosing the students they puzzled over, and—as we thought—saving them time and potential frustration. However, over time, we noticed that teachers began to approach us even for simple questions, and when hard questions were asked in meetings, all eyes immediately turned to us. We uncomfortably realized that we'd caused teachers to become reliant on us as the resident literacy "experts" in the building. We began to realize that our actions, and particularly the language we used when talking with teachers, had contributed to their disempowerment as professionals. We decided we needed to learn more about how our language choices might serve to empower or disempower others.

The Power of Self-Study

We began our study by talking with each other about our understandings of the goal of coaching and the role of language in reaching those goals. Each of us had felt the uneasy sense of teachers relying on us as coaches to either find solutions or "bless" their decisions as teachers. We believed that open-ended questions and an inquiry approach to professional learning had the potential to empower teachers (Cohen, Guiney, Lineweaver, & Martin, 2002; Darling-Hammond, 2010), and yet the overwhelming commitments and competition for teacher time often removed the chance for deep reflection. We wondered: How could we structure our

language in a way that allowed us to balance time requirements while also inviting teachers to begin to trust their own beliefs about how children learn?

Over a series of four months, we videotaped our interactions with teachers, explaining to them that we were attempting to study our own language as coaches in order to identify how we might further empower them. We came together twice a month to review our tapes and reflect on our language choices and the teachers' reactions. Over time, we began to see patterns in each. When teachers in collaborative planning meetings deferred to us as "the experts" because we were the only ones who had brought a copy of the standards, we discussed the potential role of technology, such as document cameras, in allowing equal access to needed resources and information. If teachers were only answering our questions but not posing questions or responding to each other, we saw the need to build those connections by linking their comments to each other. At times, we realized our tendencies to talk at length positioned us as experts, so we made concerted efforts to ask honest questions that allowed teachers to explore their beliefs about student learning and we intentionally added more wait time and fewer overlapping speech patterns.

By capturing our coaching interactions on tape and then viewing and discussing them with each other, we created a space for honest reflection and self-examination that had not previously existed. Viewing and re-viewing the tapes forced us to closely examine the language we used when working with teachers as well as the immediate effect this language had on teachers. Common themes of trust, open-mindedness, and validation began to emerge.

At the same time, we began to read the work of Paulo Freire (1993) and his descriptions of a dialogical approach to interactions between groups and of Allen (Allen, 2007a; Allen, 2007b), who focused on Freire's conditions of dialogue. Their descriptions of the ability of

dialogue to equalize power between groups and Freire's vision for the transformation of the education system to a more respectful, critical, and hopeful environment for teachers and students allowed us to create concrete goals for ourselves as coaches. We realized that our vision for coaching needed to be centered on the five conditions for successful dialogue outlined by Freire (see Figure).

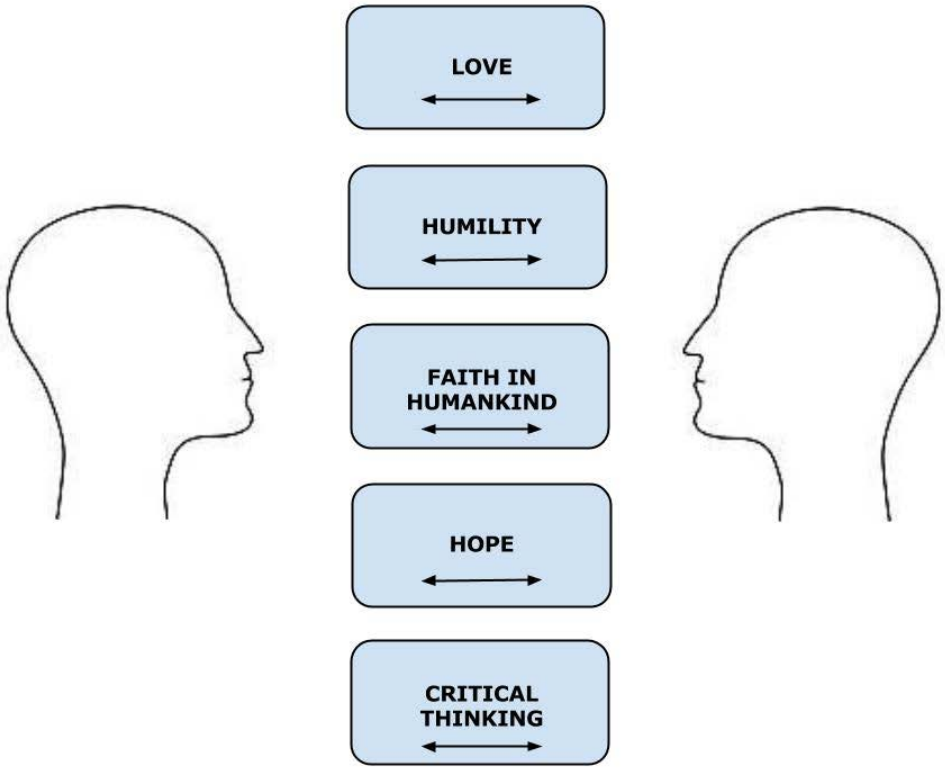

Figure 3.1: Freire's Conditions for Dialogue

Freirean Dialogue

Paulo Freire was a noted educator whose work to empower the oppressed peasants of his native Brazil in the 1960s resulted in his exile from the country for more than 10 years. Freire is well known for his book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1993), in which he outlined a path forward for citizens to reshape their world through education and dialogue. Dialogue, in the Freirean model, is much more than a simple conversation between two people. Rather, true dialogue is the

honest exchange of ideas between people who, "by naming the world, transform it" (1993, p. 69). Dialogue requires that we work to communicate our own ideas while also hearing and considering another's—in other words, we are not participating in dialogue if we are debating or if we are presenting ideas solely to convince others of our particular view. True dialogue means that we withhold our preconceptions in an effort to honestly understand others' perspectives.

Freire outlined five conditions that must be in place to allow dialogue to occur: love, humility, faith in humankind, hope, and critical thinking. These five conditions are necessary for honest dialogue to take place. "Founding itself upon love, humility, and faith, dialogue becomes a horizontal relationship of which mutual trust between the dialoguers is the logical consequence" (p. 72). This "horizontal relationship" in which both dialoguers are empowered participants has far-reaching implications for the coach-teacher relationship in schools.

Coaching Dialogically

In our hurried culture, it can be very tempting for coaches to simply tell teachers what they should do, prescribe the amount of time certain subjects should be taught, mandate particular programs, or require forced "collaboration" between colleagues. In our view, an instructional coach's role should not be to tell the answer, provide the research, or find the solution. Instead, a coach should work against the prevailing rushed culture and provide moments of stillness that allow teachers to think deeply and find the answers on their own. Carl Rogers (1961) said, "I have come to feel that the only learning which significantly influences behavior is self-discovered, self-appropriated learning. Such self-discovered learning, truth that has been personally appropriated and assimilated in experience, cannot be directly communicated to another" (p. 276). We learn best that which we discover for ourselves; thus,

coaches should not tell but instead provide the conditions that allow teachers to find the answers themselves.

Which leads us to dialogue: if the goal of coaching is to empower teachers to find their own answers to the dilemmas they face, then engaging in dialogue as Freire defined it is the logical path to that end. “Education must begin with the solution of the teacher-student [or coach-teacher] contradiction,” Freire said, “by reconciling the poles of contradiction so that both are simultaneously teachers *and* students” (1993, p. 53). When coaches work dialogically with teachers, they form a partnership where power is equally shared between both of them and all ideas are honored. This dialogical partnership is not easy, however, and Freire’s five conditions of dialogue are necessary to its success.

Love

Love might seem to be a fairly strong emotion to evoke when considering the colleagues with whom we work. “I *like* the people I work with,” you might say, “but *love*—I reserve that for my family.” Freire’s argument, however, was that in order to do the hard work of empowering others, you must first find it within yourself to love them: “Love is commitment to others” (1993, p. 70).

Coaching is easiest when a teacher approaches voluntarily, eager to problem-solve a situation and willing to both contribute ideas of her own and listen to new ones—in essence, she is dialogical in her approach. It is much harder when the coach is assigned by the principal to work with a teacher or grade level deemed to be struggling or dysfunctional. Teachers might seem resentful or outright angry at the coach’s intrusion, and coaches can develop anger and resentment right back. Each of us becomes wrapped in a protective coating of self-righteousness, disappointed in the other’s unwillingness to see what we have to offer the situation.

In our self-study of coaching, we have noticed instances of resistance and reflected on the impact of the language we use with teachers in these cases. Oftentimes, it seems teacher anger and resentment stems from a lack of control in specific situations, a sense that the coach has come to "fix" them, and therefore, someone has judged them to be "broken." Rather than responding to anger with anger of our own, we found that empathizing with teachers and reflecting back to them their source of frustration acts to build a foundation upon which we might, together, approach the problem dialogically.

The opening vignette describes Heather's work with a grade-level team of teachers who felt punished for low reading scores and frustrated with their limited power to make decisions within their classrooms. Teachers expressed their frustration using what power they did have—arriving late to the meeting, exhibiting noncompliant body language, and voicing complaints. Although Heather's initial reaction was to feel frustration with the teachers' confrontational stance, she realized the need to approach with love and empathy in order to create dialogical space. "I understand and would feel the same in your place," she said. "What might it look like if this problem were solved?" By validating their frustration, and then brainstorming possible solutions, Heather was able to open a dialogue for their future work together. "*We* know it's really hard to fit in all of this curriculum," one teacher said later, "but it really helped to hear you say it too."

The greatest gift we can give as a coach is to love someone enough to let them grow, to not solidify them in our perception as "the resistant teacher" or "the grouchy one." To coach with love means we can allow someone to grow beyond our old definitions of them and we can see the tiny steps they take as they attempt to change. As coaches, it seems our vision is always cast forward, looking far ahead to where we wish our schools and teachers could be, but in doing so,

we risk missing the tiny steps of progress happening right before our eyes. In order to truly dialogue with another, we must open ourselves to love them enough to see them as they currently are and, simultaneously, who they might potentially be.

Humility

Freire stated that "dialogue cannot exist without humility" (1993, p. 70). Too often, in Western conversations, we don't truly listen to others when they take their turn to talk, but instead we simply rest our lips as we get ready for our next chance to speak (Isaacs, 1999). We are intent on telling others our perspectives, on proving our "rightness", on sharing our ideas, but oftentimes in doing so, we miss the chance to hear opposing views. William Isaacs (1999) has said that people don't listen during conversations, they reload. Freire argued that we must instead begin with humility, meaning we must entertain the possibility in all interactions that the other person has a valid point of view and ideas worth sharing. These ideas could possibly replace the ones we currently hold, and we must be open to that.

This is a vital attitude for coaching. Humility implies a respect for the other person's views and a willingness to honestly listen without reloading. As coaches, we can be tempted to believe we were hired because of our knowledge of pedagogy and research, of proven instructional methods. We can, in other words, harbor a great deal of *lack* of humility, and instead believe our job is to convince others that our way is the "right" way. Humility, however, requires that we enter into dialogue by first putting aside our beliefs in our "rightness" in order to consider the other person's ideas. "How can I dialogue," Freire said, "if I always project ignorance onto others and never perceive my own?" (1993, p. 71).

During our study, Heather began to realize the dangers of automatically embodying the coach-as-expert role in her meeting with a teacher who had requested support with high-

achieving students. In later reviewing the video of their conference, Heather realized she'd been overly sure of the teacher's needs and thus ignored her subtle mentions on three separate occasions of difficulty with scheduling reading workshop and fitting everything in. Heather had made several instructional suggestions about the students and occasionally spoke for extended periods of time, none of which was evident until she viewed the video afterwards. When talking with the teacher, Heather wasn't fully present in the moment, processing what was said and responding to her needs. She was not engaging in true dialogue. It was a sobering lesson to learn.

Heather practiced humility by contacting the teacher and asking for a second meeting. With the goal of being open and seeking to understand, she asked more open-ended questions: "Tell me what you're thinking," "What's getting in the way?" and "What would you want your students to get out of the partner reading?" In this second meeting, the teacher spoke for the majority of the time, worked through many of the issues herself, and expressed more self-confidence by the end. "I feel good!" she said. "Gosh! [It was good] just sitting here talking with you, and having the opportunity to talk it out." The teacher left the meeting feeling energized, yet she had done much of the thinking work, processing how reading workshop would unfold in her classroom. By exercising a great deal more humility and love, we were able to engage in a more honest form of dialogue in which we both thought critically and felt empowered in the roles we inhabited.

As coaches, we must be open to seeing another's ideas as potentially valid and well-intended. If the other person believes something to be true, why is that? What leads her to teach this way, and why does she feel it to be effective? We have to be truly curious about the answer if we intend to dialogue honestly with her.

Faith in Humankind

Freire also stated that dialogue cannot exist without "an intense faith in humankind" (1993, p. 71). He described this as a faith in people to create and transform the situations within which they find themselves. We cannot truly dialogue with another if we don't have faith that this person is an independent, well-intentioned human being capable of great things. In *Coaching for Balance* (2007b), Jan Miller Burkins referred to this as an "assumption of goodwill" in the coaching relationship. Coaches must approach each interaction with teachers trusting that they have their students' best interests at heart. The teachers may be dissatisfied with their classroom situations, may be at a loss about a particular student, or may even appear to be resistant to new instructional methods, but usually at the root of these intense feelings is a desire for student progress and frustration at its absence. It is a very rare teacher indeed who does not, deep down, want her students to grow and succeed.

Coaches with whom we work state that one of the most difficult situations they encounter is working with a teacher seen as "resistant" to change. These teachers might seem outright aggressive or rude at times, or they might simply ignore a coach's suggestions. Rosamund Zander and Ben Zander (2002) proposed, however, that "*the player who looks least engaged may be the most committed member of the group.* A cynic, after all, is a passionate person who does not want to be disappointed again" (p. 39, emphasis in original). If we assume goodwill and can begin our dialogue by tapping into our shared passion for student progress, this common ground can allow for future collaboration around shared goals.

During our study, Heather worked with several teachers across the district in three-day lesson study sessions (Hurd & Lewis, 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2010) during which teachers looked at student work, co-planned and taught lessons based on that analysis, then debriefed,

planned and taught follow-up lessons. This Japanese lesson study approach is usually very powerful professional learning that stimulates thoughtful conversation and enthusiastic responses in teachers. In this series, however, one participant seemed very unhappy at having to attend. It seemed that every suggestion made by other group members was met with pessimism and arguments about why it wouldn't work. Joan's contributions tended to be silent refusal or extended diatribes about what other topics kids really need to learn instead.

Heather discussed the situation with Michelle, and a review of the videotape from the first meeting confirmed extensive negative body language and dominant discourse patterns—interruptions, overlapping speech, raised voice, and extended turns at talk. We had recently been exploring ways we might work against positioning ourselves as the expert in coaching interactions, but we realized as we viewed the tape that sometimes we might encounter a situation in which a teacher takes the dominant role as resident expert. In this particular case, Joan's dominance was frustrating the other teachers and preventing honest discussion from happening, and we realized the coach's role would need to be stronger in order to salvage the professional learning benefits for the other teachers.

In subsequent lesson study meetings, Heather worked to validate this teacher's concerns by saying, "Joan, what I hear you saying is... What if we worked that into the lesson?" and "Let's see how [your concerns] are supported by the student work samples." Simultaneously, she attempted to balance the voices of participants by asking open-ended questions of the group: "What do we wish from this?" and "How do we envision this going?" While Joan never fully seemed to buy into the concept of lesson study, the other teachers were better able to make their voices heard and Joan grudgingly admitted by the end, "I think [the lesson] worked out well, it's just another way of doing it."

"Without this faith in people," Freire said, "dialogue is a farce which inevitably degenerates into paternalistic manipulation" (1993, p. 72). Coaches must believe that every teacher with whom they work wants their students to improve and must begin their dialogue assuming goodwill on the teacher's part.

Hope

"Hope is rooted in men's incompletion," Freire stated, "from which they move out in a constant search" (1993, p. 72). Hope is the belief in improvement—one's own, one's students, and others', and there's nothing more encouraging than seeing glimpses of progress. When we can measure our success, we feel hopeful about the future, hopeful for Freire's "constant search for completion." Teaching in the current climate, however, can often feel like a Sisyphean task: just when the stack of paperwork is complete or new standards are "unpacked" or summative assessments are analyzed, new ones arrive. After months and years of being asked, admonished, redirected, developed, and even punished, it's no wonder that teachers can become disheartened. A feeling of hope separates the motivated teacher from the bitter teacher; show us a teacher who feels like she's making a difference and we'll show you a teacher who feels hopeful.

A coach's job must include pointing out this difference-making. If dialogue requires a feeling of hope, and yet some of those with whom we work have lost hope, then we must be intentional about helping them rediscover it. Oftentimes, we want to measure success in big steps: we look for the big jump in scores, the complete mastery of a standard, or the flashy final project. But if we change our definition of success and look for the incremental changes that lead to later larger success, then we can begin to build hope. During Michelle's weekly collaboration with grade-level teams, one group in particular was extremely frustrated with how planning meetings were going. The teachers didn't leave with any plans and didn't feel the other members

of the team respected their knowledge and ideas. They were all frustrated when they left the meeting and dreaded what was coming the next week.

These teachers had lost hope in the collaborative planning process. They were not feeling successful and had lost the will to participate. Michelle was frustrated and losing hope as well. After viewing several videos of the planning meetings, Heather and Michelle noticed that as a coping strategy, Michelle tended to take over the meeting, doing most of the talking in an attempt to get something done, and the teachers, wanting to "get it over with," provided no resistance. After discussing the issue with Heather, together they preplanned open-ended questions Michelle could ask to encourage the teachers' participation in the meetings, such as "How is [that] going this week?" "Do you think it has been successful? If so, what made the difference?" "What are the big ideas students should know and understand?" Heather and Michelle also discussed the need to be okay with silence and wait time because this would be new for the teachers.

The beginning of the first meeting was awkwardly silent. Michelle practiced wait time and remaining silent. Finally, one teammate began to talk. Michelle asked another open-ended question, and another team member spoke up. Gradually, body language changed, and teammates began looking at each other while they talked; they wrote down ideas that they had not thought of and wanted to try; they talked to each other and asked each other questions. When a teammate discussed a situation that hadn't worked for them, the others offered suggestions and ideas. Team members responded by saying, "I didn't think to do it that way! That's a great idea!" "Where could we look for more resources?" The room was lively with conversation as teachers searched for ideas on computers and shared what they found. At the end of the meeting, they made a plan for the next week's meeting and all left with smiles on their faces.

In the hallway after the planning session, one of the teachers approached Michelle and commented that she thought planning had gone much better that day. She said, “Even though we didn’t get daily plans done, I feel like I have a better understanding of what we’re teaching and expecting from our students.” Successive planning meetings continued to improve, and Michelle found she didn’t need do much talking anymore.

“There is a relationship between the joy essential to teaching activity and hope,” said Freire (1998, p. 69). Effective, joyful teaching must be hopeful teaching. If coaches and teachers are to enter into dialogue, we must each have hope in ourselves and each other and belief in the efficacy of both.

Critical Thinking

Freire is well known for his criticism of what he termed the “banking” method of education, wherein teachers view students as receptacles into which they “deposit” information. “The more completely she fills the receptacles, the better a teacher she is. The more meekly the receptacles permit themselves to be filled, the better students they are,” Freire stated (1993, p. 53). Teachers as dominant subjects create passive, nonthinking objects of their students. Although Freire wrote these words more than 40 years ago, some would argue educational settings have not progressed beyond this model, and the current atmosphere of high-stakes assessments does little to counteract the problem (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hess, 2010).

Freire’s solution was to envision education as a liberating act, which he termed “problem-solving” education, wherein the teacher and students together contemplate and think critically about the problems they encounter in the world. The lines between student and teacher blur, so that each learns from the other, becoming “co-investigators in dialogue” (1993, p. 62).

Interactions between coaches and teachers can also fall within these two theories of learning. We have all experienced meetings where we felt we were meant to be silent, receptive containers to be filled with information, which we were to later download to others. Communication in these instances occurred on a one-way street, with no invitation to dialogue or problem-solve the situation. We tend to feel more energized when we are treated as equals and invited to share our solutions to problems within our grade level or school. As coaches, we must consciously shape our interactions with teachers around a problem-solving, dialogical model. Otherwise, we can be tempted to slip into the role of coach as expert, delivering knowledge to teachers through Freire's banking model.

Michelle uses learning labs at her school in an effort to create a problem-solving atmosphere for teachers where open-ended questions encourage a sense of inquiry (Cohen, Guiney, Lineweaver & Martin, 2002; Darling-Hammond, 2010). In this version of professional development, teachers identify an area of study, and the instructional coach then conducts a series of sessions during which she models lessons and supports teachers as they co-plan and co-teach lessons together. As teachers debrief and adjust their lessons over time, they work to find a viable solution to their initial instructional problem and refine their practice. At Michelle's first learning lab meeting, she used open-ended questions to help teachers investigate their students' difficulty with clear mathematical reasoning: "What are students not doing that we'd like for them to do? What can we do differently as teachers that might help students get there?" Together, they discussed the instructional practices they might use to improve students' mathematical thinking.

The teachers were very engaged in the discussion because it was a real problem they were addressing and trying to solve. They were not being told to do a certain practice but were

asked what they would like to study and what they thought would be the best practice to solve their problem. Everyone was on an equal playing field. Everyone added to the discussion and thought through the problem together.

Michelle: We've noticed that our students are struggling to explain their thinking both in conversations and in writing. Do we have students who *are* able to do this? If so, what are they doing differently than our students who are struggling?

Teacher A: Well, I've noticed that my students who are able to explain their thinking are using specific math vocabulary.

Teacher B: I agree. Those students are using math vocabulary, and they're also able to show their thinking in multiple ways through drawing a picture or using math symbols.

Michelle: So, we need to figure out a way to help students use math vocabulary and also represent their mathematical thinking in multiple ways. Is that what I'm hearing?

The conversation continued and eventually led the teachers to choose *Math Exchanges* (Wedekind, 2011) as their tool. During the next few meetings, Michelle and the teachers planned and taught several math exchanges lessons with small groups of students. The lab model created a safe risk-taking environment for teachers to work out the kinks before implementing this tool in their classroom.

Myles Horton, in his conversational book with Paulo Freire, *We Make the Road by Walking* (1990), addressed the anti-dialogical tendency of experts to disempower people by telling them what to do. The information experts have is worth sharing, he argued, but he drew the line at experts who tell others how to use that knowledge. Instructional coaches, who often do

have a great deal of knowledge, must learn to share their knowledge in a way that empowers teachers to critically problem-solve their own classroom circumstances.

Conclusion

We began our study with a desire to examine our discourse decisions as coaches and the impact our language has to empower or disempower teachers. We found in Paulo Freire a colleague whose theories about dialogue illuminated the larger theoretical ideas within our contextualized coaching situations. Exploring Freire's conditions for dialogue, or what Allen (2010) called "habits of heart," allowed us to become more reflective and intentional about our language choices and their impact on those with whom we work.

Our words on these pages are ostensibly about the coach-teacher relationship; however, we would argue that these ideas apply equally to administrators, parents, and teacher colleagues as well—anyone attempting to converse with and understand another's point of view can benefit from Freire's ideas about dialogue as an empowering tool for social justice. When relationships involve unequal power structures, it is particularly important that we work intentionally to embody Freire's five conditions for effective dialogue: love, humility, faith in humankind, hope, and the invitation to think critically.

One wonders, however, if it is possible to fulfill our capacity to feel love for and faith in our fellow human beings if we don't first love ourselves. bell hooks (1994) argued that teachers must work toward self-actualization, and until we reach our full potential, we will struggle with engaging in true dialogue. To mirror the advice of flight attendants, perhaps we should be mindful of applying the oxygen mask first to ourselves before helping others. It's a question worth asking ourselves: How much do I feel faith and hope in myself? Am I thinking critically before I ask others to do the same? Do I love myself? The coaches, principals, and fellow

teachers whom we admire most can answer yes to those questions. Their ability to generate powerful dialogue stems from both their own self-actualization and the conditions they create in their interactions with others.

Freire (2005) understood this when he said, “It is impossible to teach without the courage to love, without the courage to try a thousand times before giving up. In short, it is impossible to teach without a forged, invented, and well-thought-out capacity to love” (p. 5). Our efforts to coach dialogically come from a desire to empower teachers and ourselves toward our own self-actualization in this difficult yet immeasurably rewarding profession.

CHAPTER 4

ARTICLE 2:

CHANGING LANGUAGE, CHANGING BELIEFS:

A CASE STUDY IN COACH REFLEXIVITY[2]

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Abstract

The discourse of coaches as they work with teachers serves as a medium through which power is communicated and yet few studies examine the impact of coaching discourse. This case study explores one coach's developing reflexivity over three years as she participated in reflective conversations with a collaborative study group after videotaping her coaching sessions with various teachers. Findings demonstrate that the conversations resulted in her developing a more nuanced view of the coaching role and an increased awareness of the impact of her discourse. As the coach deliberately adjusted her discourse with teachers, her beliefs about teachers' capabilities changed, suggesting that a change in discourse can lead to a change in beliefs.

Over the past ten to fifteen years, public school teachers in most academic areas have been under increasing pressure to produce measurable improvements for their students (Markhow & Macia, 2012). The passage of No Child Left Behind in 2002 (NCLB, 2002) and the adoption of the Common Core State Standards by a majority of states beginning in 2010 (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010), are just the latest efforts by politicians to reform education by legislating change and mandating particular literacy practices. Surveys show that teachers desire more decision-making power in their classrooms and yet often must follow narrow, scripted programs rather than have the freedom to design high quality instruction themselves (Brown, 2012; Markhow & Macia, 2012; Troman, 2000).

Increasing institutional pressures can carry over to instructional coaching. Literacy coaches are common in Title I funded schools and are even mandated by many school improvement policies (Georgia Department of Education, n.d.; Hibbert, Heydon & Rich, 2008). They are seen as vehicles to improve instruction and, by extension, scores on standardized tests. They fulfill a variety of roles including providing professional learning, managing instructional resources, and working individually with teachers who volunteer or who are mandated to meet by school leadership (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson & Autio, 2007; Rivera, Burley & Sass, 2004). Views of the coaching role as change agent can serve to position coaches as powerful arms of administration, and can lead to coaches evaluating or supervising teachers. However, these institutional pressures and conflicting views of coaching roles may create difficult situations for coaches.

The coaches, indeed, may end up caught between institutional expectations and the desire to be autonomous and advocate for teachers. Coaches, often recently selected from the

classroom, may not receive adequate support for their own professional development or understanding of the role (Heineke, 2013). Local and state expectations sometimes send conflicting messages about the roles of coaches as tools for school improvement (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson & Autio, 2007). Coaches may internalize these institutional pressures and transfer them to teachers by conveying expectations in ways that influence teachers' opportunities to exercise choice within their own classrooms (Otaiba, Hosp, Smartt & Dole, 2008). The discourse that coaches use as they work with teachers serves as both a medium through which power is communicated as well as a tool for conscious exertion of power and yet few studies exist examining the impact of coaching discourse (Armstrong, 2012; Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; McLean et al., 2010; Peterson, Taylor, Burnham, & Schock, 2009; Rainville & Jones, 2008).

This article describes one case study that is drawn from a larger, three-year multiple case study in which instructional coaches videotaped and discussed their coaching interactions in order to better understand the effects of their discourse on professional learning situations (Wall & Palmer, 2015). The purpose of this paper and study is to find out how coaches discursively construct the identities of teachers. In addition, the goal is to examine how coach reflexivity was impacted when coaches viewed videotapes of their coaching interactions and participated in collegial coaching discussions about those recordings. In this article, I review the literature on coaching discourse, power, and reflexivity before discussing Mandy, the case study coach whose data spans the three year study. I use systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994; Martin & White, 2005) to analyze Mandy's discourse over the course of the study in interviews and during her work with teachers. I describe our growing reflexivity that resulted from coaching study discussions using Brookfield's (1995) lenses for critical reflection.

Literature Review

Coaching power, positionality, and discourse

Coaches generally occupy a vague position in education that lies between classroom teacher and administrator (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson & Autio, 2007; Rivera, Burley & Sass, 2004). While they don't wield the power of the building principal or supervisor, coaches do have the freedom to visit classrooms uninvited and are endowed with the presumed knowledge to judge instructional methods as "good" or "bad," and thus occupy a unique space in the power hierarchy of a school. In several studies examining power and positionality related to coaching roles and the relationships coaches form with teachers, coaching interactions have been characterized as falling along a continuum from more authoritative to more dialogic discourse (Armstrong, 2012; Burkins, 2007a; Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; Heineke, 2013; Ippolito, 2010). Negotiating this range of coaching interactions often presents coaches with difficult choices as they struggle to define their roles and positions within schools. To explore how researchers have conceptualized the identity and positioning of coaches, this section explores seminal studies that have looked in detail at the ways that coaches negotiate this range of interactions.

Ippolito (2010), for example, used interviews, focus groups and observations to describe ways in which literacy coaches balanced interactions with teachers using more authoritative or more dialogic discourse, which she termed directive and responsive stances. A directive stance was defined as one in which the coach "assumes the role of expert" and is "assertive about what instructional practices teachers must implement" (p. 165). This stance was associated more with serving as a voice for administration to ensure that teachers implemented specific school and district goals. A responsive stance, on the other hand, described the coach as following the

teacher's lead and focusing on "teacher self-reflection, thereby allowing teachers' and students' needs to guide the coaching process" (p. 165).

Ippolito's study found that coaches who felt a balance between these two stances had the most effective approach to improve classroom practice while simultaneously easing the tension between district requirements and teachers' professional needs. Ippolito found three behavioral mechanisms supporting balanced coaching in the group she studied: "(1) shifting between responsive and directive moves within a single coaching session, (2) using protocols to guide individual and group coaching sessions, and (3) sharing leadership roles to align teacher, coach, and administrative goals" (p. 169). The researcher suggested that further research is needed to determine whether adopting a more balanced coaching stance has an impact on student achievement. Ippotlito's study suggests that balancing between authoritative and dialogic discourses can allow coaches to ease tension between institutional pressures and teachers' individual growth.

Hunt and Handsfield (2013) argued the need to look beyond the roles of literacy coaches and more closely examine the lived experiences of the people within the role and the emotional aspects of the position itself. They took a poststructural, postmodern view of coaches' negotiations of identity, power, and positioning as they participated in professional learning as new coaches. They found that the coaches in the study struggled to negotiate the landscape between the discourse of building collaborative relationships and the oftentimes competing discourse of demonstrating expert knowledge. "The literacy coaches often used emotional expression to respond to the two conflicting discourses of building supportive, trusting relationships and demonstrating expert knowledge. Specifically, they expressed frustration and defeat as they attempted to align themselves with both discourses" (p. 71). The authors suggest

that coaching must move beyond an oversimplified vision of roles and tasks and that coaches should be supported in negotiating the complex positioning inherent in the job.

While Ippolito (2010) and Hunt and Handsfield (2013) argued for a balanced, more nuanced view of the ways coaches interact, Armstrong (2012) maintained that dialogue is the central approach to coaching and therefore a responsive method should be the preferred approach. Armstrong took a social constructivist view of coaching and although she discussed coaching within the world of business, her perspectives are equally as valid within educational coaching. Armstrong compared what she termed the coach-expert model and the coach-custodian model and argued that coaches are biased towards being seen as the expert, the holder of knowledge, because "advice giving is the habitual practice ...in our culture" (p. 40). Her term "coach-custodian" stemmed from the need to "safeguard the dialogic space" (p. 41) in order to allow the coachees to empower themselves and create their own meanings.

Armstrong contrasted several scenarios using each method, and demonstrated how the coach-custodian role trusts the dialogue to allow the coachees to find their own answers. "The difference between the coach-expert and coach-custodian roles is that the coach-expert is curious about the situation/world and the coach-custodian is curious about the person (as meaning-maker of their own experience)" (p. 41). Coaches must not view themselves as the expert, Armstrong argued, but instead should strive to construct and lead a dialogue that allows the coachees to uncover answers for themselves. Armstrong modeled this approach in several scenarios. The key was "encouraging the development of new meaning around the coachee's experience" (p. 39) and she encouraged coaches to trust the coachee as a powerful meaning-maker and to trust the dialogue to do its work, even in the face of occasional discomfort. Coaches, she suggested, must be reflexive about their role in the process and vigilant against the temptation to offer advice.

Crafton and Kaiser (2011) agreed with Armstrong's defense of a more responsive, dialogic approach, arguing that communities of practice provide the best opportunities for professional learning by empowering teachers and providing space for inquiry and negotiation of meaning through dialogue. Similar to Armstrong (2012) and Ippolito (2010), two very different roles for coaches are presented: a coach serving as expert and in control of teacher learning versus a coach serving as colleague and peer allowing teachers to guide their own learning through dialogic means. The authors based the theoretical underpinnings of this second coaching role on Vygotsky's theory of cultural mediation, or the idea that humans need social interactions to process new learning as well as Bakhtin's notion of dialogism that "highlights the idea of multiple voices intersecting in individuals' learning and their developing knowledge" (p. 109). Authentic dialogic processes in professional learning, they argued, provide opportunities for learners to build communities of practice in which teachers can examine and reshape their identities as learners.

Gibson (2006) argued that the roles of expert and collaborator are not contradictory. Her case study followed a first-year coach as she worked with a teacher over the course of a year helping him learn effective guided reading practices. Gibson found that the coach expressed frustration at times with the tension between what she perceived as lack of progress in the teacher's instructional decisions and the need to remain collaborative and supportive. Despite this frustration, the author felt the coach was successful in empowering the teacher by consistently asking him to reflect on his practice and analyze his students' work. Gibson thus argued that coaches can successfully inhabit the roles of expert and collaborator while supporting teachers, and suggested it to be a necessary stance for those wishing to become highly-skilled coaches.

Building on this argument by Gibson, it is important to discover exactly how coaches might inhabit these roles discursively. Heineke (2013) strove to determine this when she tape-recorded and then analyzed four coaches as they each worked with a specific teacher over several sessions. Her findings surrounding the patterns of discourse, specifically the idea of progressiveness, stem from the work of Wells (1999) and Halliday (1994).

Heineke found that coaches in her study tended to dominate the interactions with teachers by initiating most exchanges, making the most utterances, and often by interrupting at higher rates than the teachers. Prospectiveness, or discourse moves that tend to extend the talk by demanding responses or replying to a verbal response with a step-up "move that was higher in prospectiveness than the previous move" (p. 422), was also analyzed. Heineke found that coaches had the highest number of request moves, such as asking for an opinion, information, or clarification, while teachers provided the most step-up moves. "Coaches indicated little or no awareness of the power of their words to encourage the full engagement of teachers by facilitating teacher talk and reflection" (p. 429).

The tendency of coaches to dominate the discussion led Heineke to suggest that coaches may need to be aware of the range of stances open to coaches, from a more directive stance to a more reflective stance. She suggested a need "for coaches to become more knowledgeable about and adept at determining when and how to use different coaching stances or models from an entire continuum in order to best meet the differing professional development needs of teachers" (p. 429). Thus, Heineke contended that coaches should have a range of perspectives available to them and be aware of when and in what ways discourse impacts their work.

The work of Rainville and Jones (2008) provided one such perspective on the connections between discourse and coach positionality by examining how coaches negotiate the

various identities expected of them and how power shifts between participants as the coach shifts between different identities. Three scenarios from a larger study were examined wherein the coach was positioned as professional colleague in control of one situation, a disempowered "assistant" seen as wasting another teacher's time, and finally as co-learner within a study group gently guiding teachers towards new understandings. In each of these scenarios the authors briefly examined the language that contributed to the shifts in power between coach and teacher.

Perhaps one of the most salient findings of the authors concerned the positioning of the coach regarding teacher empowerment. They stated, “Conscious and strategic self-positioning by a coach as a learner or co-participant is not only possible but also can open up spaces in which teachers feel they can take control of their professional development” (p. 447). Thus, they argued, the adoption of a responsive, collaborative stance by coaches may be more likely than a directive stance to encourage reflective thinking and the changes in beliefs that can lead to changes in practice. This positioning of the coach as co-learner is echoed in the dialogic communities of practice proposed by Crafton and Kaiser (2011), and in Stephens & Mills’ (2014) work on inquiry as a primary method of professional learning for coaches and teachers.

In general, a review of the literature reveals that the ways in which coaches interact with teachers often range from a more directive, coach-as-expert interaction to a more responsive stance that positions the teacher in a stronger role. Studies demonstrate that negotiating these stances is often difficult for coaches, creating tensions situated in specific contexts and enacted through discourse. A consistent finding throughout these studies is the importance for coaches to honor the beliefs and thinking of teachers and to negotiate the power that accompanies their positions. Coaches can be caught between district definitions or expectations for coaching and the desire of teachers to exert power and make decisions within their own classrooms. Jones and

Rainville (2014) recognize this struggle and recommend applying doctrines of Eastern philosophy by "recognizing suffering and the causes of suffering, acting with humility, and practicing compassion" (p. 276). They suggest that coaches become attuned to the shifting power relations in schools and honor the work of teachers while acknowledging the suffering inherent in that work by responding with compassion. Becoming aware of how power is realized through actions and discourse requires that coaches adopt a reflexive stance towards their own practice.

Reflexivity

Examination of reflective thought in education is often considered to have originated with John Dewey (1933). His definition of reflection as, "Active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends," (1933, p. 6) stands as a foundation for many subsequent years of research in reflection and inquiry. Reflection, Dewey argued, begins with a sense of perplexity or a concern and "involves willingness to endure a condition of mental unrest and disturbance. Reflective thinking, in short, means judgment suspended during further inquiry; and suspense is likely to be somewhat painful" (1933, p. 13). Reflection is not necessarily easy, in other words, and requires that we do the hard work of exploring problems of practice.

Schon (1987) developed the idea by exploring reflection as it applied to practitioners in professional fields. His approach described methods teachers might use to engage in reflection-in-action in the moment of teaching as well as reflection-on-action as they think back about previous instruction. Schon distinguished between the intuitive artistry of teaching and the technical knowledge derived from scientific research. Understandings developed through reflection in professional practice should be valued as much as or more than esoteric theory, he argued.

Brookfield (1995) has described the process of critical reflection for teachers as resulting from an examination of practice through four distinct lenses: an autobiographical look at oneself as a teacher and a learner, through students' eyes, colleague's perceptions, and theoretical literature. These lenses offer distinct perspectives from which to view practice. Teachers' histories have an impact on the formation of their current ideologies from which they view the world, and thus time spent revisiting personal stories can clarify their influence on perceptions. Brookfield stated that when teachers study themselves as learners they may illuminate previously unknown emotional connections that form the basis of instructional decisions.

Brookfield also argued that it is necessary to branch out beyond simply reflecting on practice by oneself. Viewing instruction through students' and colleagues' eyes provides an etic perspective that can serve as a mirror reflecting back occasionally surprising views. Nevertheless, simply reflecting with others will not always result in truly critical perspectives:

> One of the problems of standing outside ourselves, however, is that the people we use as mirrors often share our assumptions. In this situation, our conversation with them becomes an unproductive loop in which the same prejudices and stereotypes are constantly reaffirmed (p. 29).

Therefore, reflective teachers must seek to have honest dialogue about the impact of their assumptions and power on their practice and must be willing to hear from others observations that do not fit with their own perceptions of themselves or the world. Reading theoretical literature is another lens which provides teachers an opportunity to step outside their current set of knowledge and encounter unfamiliar epistemologies. Professional literature can help teachers understand the universality of issues they confront in the classroom and begin to assuage the guilt and fear sometimes triggered by institutional practices and expectations.

Instructional coaches encounter similar problems of practice and might arguably use Brookfield's lenses to examine the struggles they encounter as they negotiate their unique positions within the power structures of schools. These efforts to understand the connections between discourse and power are what led to the current study.

Method

The current case study was part of a larger study in which a collaborative study group of elementary instructional coaches examined their coaching discourse by videotaping and reviewing the professional learning activities they conducted with teachers. Over the course of three years coaches met individually with me, the primary researcher, to review their videotaped coaching episodes and engage in inquiry about the ways our discursive choices impacted those events. The research questions for the case study examined in this article were to investigate 1) How did the coach discursively construct the identities of the teachers with whom she worked? and 2) What happened, in terms of reflexivity, when the coach engaged in a dialogic process about coaching discourse and practice?

Participants

The larger study from which this article stems involved three elementary coaches in a district in the southeastern United States which employed full-time instructional coaches at schools qualifying for federal Title 1 funding. This article draws specifically on the experiences of one participant, Mandy (all names are pseudonyms).

At the beginning of the study, Mandy had been coaching at Blue Hill Elementary for four years. The approximately 500 students at Blue Hill Elementary comprised one of the most diverse Title 1 populations in the district, with 30% of students identified as White, 20% as African American, and 50% as Hispanic. Approximately 40% of the students qualified as

English Language Learners (ELL) and 94% qualified for free and reduced meal services. Blue Hill had been struggling with academic test results since before the No Child Left Behind legislation (NCLB, 2002) was enacted. More recently in 2015, Blue Hill was notified it would be a Focus School, which is a state designation reserved for Title 1 schools with Achievement Gap scores in the bottom 10%.

When Mandy first became coach, Blue Hill was ending a two-year stint as a Reading First school, an intensive federal program that used scientifically based research to require teachers to conform to reading programs that focused on five core components of reading instruction but that had resulted in insignificant gains in reading comprehension (Gamse, Bloom, Kemple & Jacob, 2008). Her first several years as coach at Blue Hill Elementary proved to be fairly frustrating as she struggled to overcome the punitive view of coaching held by the faculty due to Reading First guidelines.

Mandy joined the study in the midst of this frustrating period. Her participation in the study coincided with the arrival of the current principal, Dr. Bristol, who had a major impact on the school's structure as the teacher population began to experience a significant amount of turnover and test scores increased due to increased expectations and more consistent instructional methods. The three years Mandy participated in the study overlapped with the implementation of a new state teacher evaluation system, new Common Core-aligned state standards, and a new state student assessment. The combination of the new initiatives, different administration, and the Focus School designation resulted in a high rate of teacher stress in the building.

My role in the study was that of a participant-observer and as a district-level coach within Mandy's district. As a participant in the study I videotaped my own coaching interactions with teachers, shared these with Mandy during our monthly meetings, and analyzed my discourse and

growing reflexivity alongside her. My role as district coach placed me in a supportive position to teachers and coaches in the district but did not require that I serve in any supervisory capacity, thus allowing me access to a wide range of coaching experiences across the district and the freedom to conduct research while supporting coaches. However, a limitation of these dual roles could have been the institutional authority associated with my position at the district level and the possibility that teachers or coaches limited their contributions because of my perceived authority.

Data collection

Data sources for this study included semi-structured interviews with Mandy (Kvale, 2007) at the beginning and end of each year of the study and three categories of videotaped events and their corresponding transcripts (Erickson, 2011; Jewitt, 2012): monthly "study conversations" during which Mandy and I each discussed videotapes of our work with teachers; copies of Mandy's videotaped work with teachers; and videotapes of group meetings during which all coach participants met to discuss ongoing findings. Field notes and reflexivity journals maintained by Mandy and myself were also included in the data collection.

The regular coach "study conversations" formed the foundation of the study and created a type of inquiry setting (Stephens & Mills, 2014) in which both of us felt a growing freedom to critique our interactions with teachers and explore how our discourse influenced these interactions. During every four to six week period each of us recorded several professional learning activities with teachers and then chose one to share with each other. Later in the study we began to review each other's tapes ahead of time, reserving our study conversations for more discussion and less video reviewing. Videotaping our coaching afforded us the ability to replay particular sections to watch reactions of various participants as well as observe how seating

arrangements and body language figured in to each situation. Every study conversation ended with each of us choosing a personal goal to put into place before we met again.

Data analysis

Two distinct data analysis methods were used for this article. Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994; Martin & Rose, 2007) was used to analyze Mandy's and teachers' discourse; constant comparative coding method was used to look for themes of reflexivity in the study conversations (Saldana, 2013).

Systemic Functional Linguistics. An analysis using what I would call a "critical" systemic functional linguistics perspective (Halliday, 1994; Harman, forthcoming; Martin & Rose, 2007) was employed to analyze Mandy's interview transcripts, her videotaped interactions with teachers, and the regular study conversations. SFL allows researchers to analyze discourse in order to explore the ideas and power embedded within "language in use" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 7). "In SFL, discourse analysis interfaces with the analysis of grammar and the analysis of social activity somewhere between the work of grammarians on the one hand and social theorists on the other" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 4). In this way, analysts study specific language choices as well as the larger meanings of these choices. Thus, similar to Fairclough's (2014) critical discourse analysis but on a more micro-analytic level, SFL can be used to explore the dialectical relationships between specific discursive events and the discursive practices and larger social contexts that shape them.

SFL linguists analyze the register, or context of the target situation, along three dimensions: field, tenor, and mode (Martin & Rose, 2007). These dimensions correspond respectively to three metafunctions of language that simultaneously convey specific meanings: ideational meanings about the world, interpersonal meanings about roles and relationships, and

textual meanings about the role of language. This article focuses on the second of these metafunctions, interpersonal meanings within the discourse, or how the speaker or writer relates to the listener or the subject matter being discussed. Mood and personal references are analyzed when looking at interpersonal meanings, as well as the degree of certainty expressed through modalities and appraisal, or the attitude of the speaker towards the topic of discourse.

Appraisal theory, developed by Martin and Rose (2007) and informed by the discourse semantic strata of the language system, provides metalinguistic resources that support the analysis of power and solidarity, two key variables of tenor (Martin & White, 2005). Issues of power such as equality of negotiations and expressions of attitude are realized discursively and can be analyzed using three interacting domains of appraisal theory. *Attitude* evaluates expressions of feeling, judgments of people, and appreciation of objects or situations. These attitudes can be scaled upward or downward through *graduation* of force or focus which allows speakers to support or disengage from particular ideas. Finally, *engagement* is the extent to which speakers allow alternative voices to enter discourse. Heteroglossic texts allow multiple voices to enter the discourse and may expand or contract the dialogic possibilities, while monoglossic texts refuse to recognize alternate possibilities. Transcripts of Mandy's interviews and coaching videos were analyzed using these elements of appraisal theory to examine ways in which she discursively constructed the identities of teachers.

Constant Comparative Analysis. In an effort to find common themes of reflexivity in the coach study conversations, the field notes, transcripts and logs of interviews, debriefings, observations, and inquiry group meetings were coded using a constant comparative method (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Saldana, 2013). Codes were collected, sorted, and analyzed for themes

based on the research questions. As data were collected new codes emerged and new categories formed until themes were developed regarding reflexivity of coaching discourse.

Findings

Mandy's reflexive stance and commitment to growth over the course of this study made her an ideal subject for this article. This section discusses findings that relate to Mandy's participation in early transcripts, coaching conversations, and later transcripts. SFL appraisal theory was used to answer my first research question concerning how the coach discursively constructed the identities of teachers by examining transcripts of Mandy's interviews and early and later interactions with teachers. The second research question inquired into how collegial coaching discussions and viewing of videotaped coaching interactions heightened reflexivity of coaches, as informed by Brookfield's (1995) four lenses of critical reflection.

Early transcripts

Findings for the early part of this study can be investigated by first examining Mandy's language within interviews and coaching study conversations, where she discussed her role, opinions, and understandings about coaching and the teachers with whom she worked, and secondly by examining transcripts of Mandy's actual work with teachers. This analysis allowed for an examination of both her discourse *about* teachers and coaching as well as her discourse during interactions *with* teachers.

Interview. Mandy's first interview took place before the study began and several months after Dr. Bristol, the third principal under whom she had coached at Blue Hill Elementary, assumed leadership mid-year. Table 4.1 below highlights several quotes in which Mandy's appraisal of teachers, including herself, is apparent. Using SFL and appraisal theory, her discourse was analyzed for ways in which she judged teachers' capabilities and their views of

her role as coach. On occasion she chose to increase or decrease the intensity of her statements, indicating the strength of feeling attached to those attitudes. The heteroglossia of Mandy's quotes was also analyzed through examining her willingness to entertain alternative viewpoints by presenting her statements as opinions.

Table 4.1: Mandy's Discourse About Coaching Role and Teachers

Analysis type	Source	Coded quote
Attitude Coding: Invoked judgment of capacity **bold** Engagement Coding: Invoked heteroglossia (attribution) underlined Graduation/amplification coding: *italic*	Interview 1 Line 6	"I feel like [coaching is] a resource for teachers to **improve** their professional knowledge and **improve** their instructional practice. I don't feel like a coach *should* know all the answers *by any means* but I feel like it's *just* a way for teachers to help **improve** themselves."
	Interview 1 Line 108	"They think that, well, from what I perceive, **they think you're being evaluative** or you're **forcing your opinion** on them or you're **forcing your beliefs** on them kind of thing. And there are some that I have an *okay* personal relationship with that *still*, they **don't want the professional conversation**."
	Interview 1 Line 848	"But I want [coaching] to be, you know, **effective** and **reflective**, and, but at the same time, I don't want to say to **solve a problem**, but you know, to **get them to where they need to be**."
	Interview 1 Line 880	"And to **empower** them – how do I empower them to, to **think on their own**?"
	Interview 1 Line 1192	"I think **showing them how** to collaborate or- and *not necessarily* **showing them how**, because the coach is **not "the expert**" *by any means*, but being in the collaborative meeting and moving that meeting in the direction of collaboration…. but **not leading**"

Mandy's bolded judgments described teachers as needing to be improved, not wanting to engage in professional conversations, and needing to be shown how to both collaborate and think on their own. Her discourse positioned teachers as both a problem needing to be solved while at

the same time being disempowered. However, Mandy often framed her comments as opinions by prefacing statements with "I think" and even gave voice to teacher's possible views of her, thereby creating a more heteroglossic text that left space for alternate possibilities. She also moderated her statements by downscaling the amplification of her position through the use of "not necessarily," "just," and "by any means." Her entire interview contained numerous instances when she tempered her statements with "maybe" and "I think," thus indicating a degree of uncertainty as well as a willingness to entertain alternate perspectives.

Mandy also seemed uncertain about her own positioning as coach. In the quotes in Table 4.1 she wavered between "showing them how" and "not necessarily" showing, helping the teachers become more collaborative but "not leading," and being "a resource" for teachers without needing to know all the answers or be "the expert." She seemed hesitant to commit to a particular view of coaching or perhaps was unsure of her role, possibly as a result of the recent change in administration.

Both Mandy's frustration and teachers' stress from institutional pressures can be seen in quotes highlighted in Table 4.2:

Table 4.2: Institutional Pressures

Analysis type	Source	Coded quote
Attitude Coding: Invoked judgment of capacity **bold** Engagement Coding: Invoked heteroglossia (attribution) <u>underlined</u> Graduation/amplification coding: *italic*	Interview 1 Line 303	"**I've struggled** with [getting people past test stress] because… *especially* now that there are teacher evaluations that are tied to that score, it pushes them *even more* towards, '<u>OK, let me make sure that they do well on this test so that my score is good and I can keep my job or get my raise'</u> or whatever.
	Interview 1 Line 420	"It was *more* like, '<u>Please *just* give me something so that when they come in the next time…</u>' So that resource part of it. **<u>They think</u> I hold all the answers** and **I don't want** them to think that."

	Interview 1 Line 573	"I think *a lot* of times teachers **don't take time to reflect** because there is *so much* that's on their plate…. and unfortunately, **I don't have** an atmosphere here where I can, **I don't want to say** help them reflect, because that's not the purpose, but **I don't have**….structures in place."

Mandy expressed judgment of her own capacity to coach in what she felt was an effective manner by stating that she struggled with creating the atmosphere she wanted; however, she appeared unsure about the nature of that atmosphere and whether she should be promoting teacher reflection. She was well aware of the teachers' frustrations and gave voice to the pressures they felt by reenacting their concerns. The tension Mandy felt between stressed teachers who ask for quick fixes and her desire for professional, reflective conversations appeared to result in a sense of confusion about her role as coach.

Mandy's early videos. The coaching interactions Mandy chose to videotape early in the study involved weekly collaborative planning sessions with a particular grade level. Elements of SFL investigating interpersonal features of discourse were used to analyze transcripts of one representative 30-minute meeting for mood, appraisal, and negotiation of roles and relationships.

As Mandy stated in her initial interview, her goal with grade level collaborative meetings was "being in the collaborative meeting and moving that meeting in the direction of collaboration…. but not leading" (interview 1, line 1192). Thus, she began the meeting in her early video by asking, "Alright, so. Who's, who's leading today?" When a teacher responded, "You are," Mandy answered, "Me? No! What do y'all want to talk about?" This response denied her leadership of the meeting and then immediately accepted leadership, thus confusing her role for herself and the participants.

Throughout the course of the meeting, Mandy's interactions with the teachers were mainly interrogative. She asked a total of 31 questions, which on the surface would seem to initiate an increase in dialogue. However, upon closer inspection it became apparent that while Mandy began by asking a few open-ended questions such as, "What do y'all want to talk about?" and "How'd that go this week?" ultimately 21 of her queries were closed questions that invited yes/no responses from the teachers. Questions such as, "And y'all think it's been successful so far?" and "So do you think [that character] is like Johnny Appleseed at all?" and "Have you guys looked at the mini-lessons for this unit?" and "Can you think of any other characters that were any of those things?" were technically yes/no questions that tended to invite short responses from the teachers. Rather than asking "What are some ways that…" Mandy's phrasing as "Can you think of…" subtly called into question the teachers' capability to think deeply.

A lack of sustained focus on any one topic became evident once the transcript was divided into sequences. During the 37-minute meeting a total of 17 topics were discussed, abandoned and occasionally revisited. An example of a disjointed series of sequences can be seen in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3: Grade Level Meeting Excerpt

343	**Teacher Q** – So their own *little* club, and they could do these active - you know, but, of
344	course *a lot* of mine **couldn't** but I thought well, I'm going to let them… You know?
345	**Mandy** – I think it'll be **helpful**, um, when you guys, like, part 2 - do you guys know
346	who you'll be studying when you get to those lessons?
347	**Teacher Q** – Yeah, we need to talk about that today too, *for sure*.
348	**Mandy** – Cause I think it'll be **helpful** if you're able to choose, like a main character
349	and *kind of* take them through that whole process? So that they can focus on *really*
350	getting to know that character? Um.
351	**Teacher V** – I was thinking Annie Oakley would be a **good** character, but we don't
352	have *any* books on her except the one that came with the social studies thing
353	**Mandy** – Right
354	**Teacher V** – What about Harriet Tubman? … [looks to Teacher R]
355	**Teacher R** – We have *some* books on her
356	**Teacher V** – We do have *some* books on Harriet Tubman
357	**Mandy** – What about in the library? Are there any fiction? Any -
358	**Teacher Q** – I went and checked out *nearly every one* of them. And there wasn't any.
359	Like Paul Bunyan and there was others, there was John Henry
360	**Teacher R** – well next week we're *only* here for three day and *basically* reviewing
361	because it says, Readers learn – this is the plan, [reading from computer] 'readers learn
362	about things, learn things about characters,' which is what we've talked about today.
363	**Mandy** – uh-huh
364	**Teacher R** – and sharing points, and then coach each other, which is what we talked
365	about last week.
366	**Teacher V** – Now when we're talking about marking sharing points with post-its, that
367	*would have to be* the kids reading books about characters,
368	**Teacher R** – yeah
369	**Teacher V** - which. I mean, my kids are *so* **low**, I don't…
370	**Mandy** – Well, I mean but *any* –
371	**Teacher R** – the **high** -
372	**Mandy** - don't you think *any* fiction book is gonna have a character that **they can**
373	**Teacher Q** – yeah. *Most* of them.
374	**Mandy** - talk about? I mean, *even* like the, um, you know, your As and 1s you may, you
375	*probably may* struggle with, but, um, what about, um, like those 6s or whatever?

In this short excerpt, the discussion moves from book clubs, with Teacher Q, to Mandy discussing the overall structure of the unit beginning in line 345. By line 351 the topic shifts again to the difficulty of finding character books, a recurring topic, then in line 360 to what will be taught next week, also a recurring topic, and finally to how to support struggling students in line 366. Over the course of the meeting the topics changed 32 times, revisiting some topics

multiple times. Certain teachers continuously initiated the same topics so that the overall meeting resembled several parallel conversations. For instance, several times Mandy suggested looking at the overall plan for the unit while Teacher R brought the discussion back to writing specific plans for next week three separate times. Participants seemed to have different goals for the meeting and thus did not sustain others' topics and instead strove to insert their own agendas, responding briefly to others' topics before revisiting their own. Without a clear leader or an agreed-upon focus, the meeting consisted of a series of mini-conversations.

When the meeting was analyzed using appraisal values with the same coding as Tables 4.1 and 4.2 above, Mandy's closed questions again become evident: "Do you guys know who you'll be studying?" and "Don't you think any fiction book is gonna have a character that they can talk about?" These closed questions required short yes/no answers rather than inviting extended discussion and thus did not support the open dialogue she desired for collaborative meetings. Mandy often lessened the force of her statements by couching them as opinions and downscaling with *probably* and *kind of*. With SFL, an analysis of graduation allows an understanding of how speakers grade the force of their statements upwards or downwards to indicate degrees of intensity or grade their focus to describe the preciseness of a category. In these early transcripts Mandy only graded the force of her statements, usually by downscaling the intensity. This served to de-emphasize her leadership of the group, and also expanded the heteroglossic nature of the discussion by acknowledging alternate possibilities. However, it may be that her lack of emphasis or endorsement allowed the teachers to more easily dismiss her topic and shift the focus to their agendas.

Overall, this collaborative team meeting appeared disjointed and unfocused, as did Mandy's other videos of early-in-the-year planning sessions. In her initial interview Mandy had

expressed frustration with these meetings, stating “Collaborative planning is not going as it should, it’s not really collaborative, it’s really, ‘Okay, I have this unit plan, we’re going to do this bullet on Monday, this bullet on Tuesday.’” However, Mandy’s uncertain definition of her role created a situation in which each participant attempted to refocus the group discussion onto their own agenda and few issues were sustained or resolved.

Coaching study discussions

Mandy and I began meeting for our study discussions shortly after her initial interview. We each brought videotapes of ourselves coaching in small group or individual settings and spent each session taking turns viewing each other’s tapes and reflecting on our discursive moves and interactions with teachers. The early videos described above were some of Mandy’s first taped sessions out of what eventually would become a three-year study consisting of 15 study discussion meetings.

Constant comparative analysis was used to determine common themes from the transcripts of these coach study meetings. Findings from these discussions will be viewed through Brookfield’s (1995) four critically reflective lenses.

Our autobiographies as learners and teachers. Brookfield (1995) stated that examining our own histories and beliefs allows us to surface subtle assumptions we may have about teaching and learning. During her initial interview, Mandy reflected on her own experiences being coached when she was a teacher. She described feeling empowered by her earlier coaches because, “I thought they trusted me” as they engaged in lengthy professional conversations that both confirmed and challenged her growing views of teaching. One coach stood out because:

> … she was easy to have conversations with. She was a great listener and when she did speak, she spoke either from her experiences with things that happened, or she spoke from things that she had seen happen in other rooms… It wasn't authoritative. But at the same time she presented information and said this is what is expected.

Mandy also told stories of feeling empowered by colleagues at the school where she spent her early teaching years. She had been surrounded by a supportive grade level of teachers that went on "collaborative planning" vacations to the mountains, complete with file folders of ideas, professional books, and breaks in the hot tub. Mandy described these as "truly collaborative" sessions that impacted her teaching because, "It was just that they completely and wholly accepted me for who I was, and… and I think it also helped that they were older and they still respected what I had to say."

These were formative experiences for Mandy and likely influenced her views of what she strove for in her own coaching interactions. Mandy valued professional conversations and the free-flowing exchange of ideas that she had experienced herself and wanted that for the teachers in her building. She remembered feeling respected for her views as a teacher and having coaches who were great listeners and were not "authoritative." Mandy's early attempts to guide collaborative planning sessions without overtly leading were likely an effort to recreate these energizing sessions which had such a strong impact on her own teaching. However, teachers at this school were used to a coach filling the role of enforcer and thus they struggled with the unfamiliarity of Mandy's genre of coaching while simultaneously attempting to adjust to the requirements of their third change in administration in four years. Without guidance, teachers could not envision the type of collegial conversations Mandy wanted for them.

Our student's eyes. Brookfield's (1995) recommendation that teachers view their teaching through their student's eyes in order to become more aware of power relationships within the classroom was realized for us as we viewed our videotapes through the teachers' eyes. Being able to watch, rewind, and re-watch our interactions gave us the opportunity to see ourselves as the teachers saw us, and to create enough distance between each interaction and the viewing to entertain alternative views of reality and to consider what we might have said and done differently.

Early in the study it became apparent that teachers often positioned us in the dominant lead role within our interactions. Mandy and I reviewed our tapes to determine how our actions and discourse might perpetuate this uneven power dynamic and, as constant comparative analysis of our discussion transcripts revealed, we realized and repeatedly discussed the prominence of three distinct aspects of our discourse: subtle discursive choices that appeared evaluative from teachers' perspectives, the structure of our questions, and our dominance of interactions in the form of short wait times and control of the environment.

With the opportunity to replay our videos and see our discourse as teachers might, we realized that subtle discursive choices often communicated judgments about teachers' capabilities. For instance, requesting help from teachers by asking "Can you…" rather than "Will you…" might be perceived as subtly judgmental. In this way Mandy began to understand that framing situations in binaries as problem/solution or good/bad or even recommending the "best" approach set teachers up to assume negative unspoken alternatives. She noticed that even her positive feedback fell along these binary lines and she wondered, "How do I provide feedback without being judgmental?"

At the same time, we realized that teachers tended to position us as more knowledgeable experts due to our inclination to provide answers rather than elicit collegial conversations. Many of our coaching study conversations were spent debating the merits of telling versus asking, of when to be directive and when to be responsive. Mandy was frustrated with the teachers' tendency to ask her for answers without wanting to engage in the reflective conversations that were her goal, and yet the videos revealed her tendency to ask narrow closed questions that did not support extended discussion among the group members.

Finally, reviewing the videotapes allowed us both to see that while we claimed to desire professional conversations with teachers as equals, in reality we tended to dominate interactions by speaking at length and providing little wait time. Mandy also found that teachers placed her in a position of power in multifaceted ways: they deferred to her the responsibility of bringing materials and controlling the technology and they arranged the environment to emphasize her control by often sitting across from her rather than beside her. These social semiotic features in our interactions with teachers – evaluative judgments, declarative over interrogative stance, and a tendency to dominate interactions – galvanized our critically reflective conversations.

Our colleagues' views. As coaching colleagues we provided each other fresh perspectives on our work with teachers. Our critical conversations about our observations compelled us to find ways to change the positioning of teachers and coaches that the tapes had revealed. Over the course of the three-year study our understandings about power within the coach-teacher relationship evolved as we came to broaden our views on power and empowerment.

Early in the study, as we began to notice subtleties in the evaluative nature of our discourse as well as our tendencies to dominate coaching interactions, we believed that to

empower teachers we must disempower ourselves. For Mandy, the goal became to "bury myself and my opinions" which led to her "trying not to facilitate them. I'm trying to just be a team member when I go in." This often resulted in meetings that covered multiple topics but found little resolution, as seen in the early transcripts in Table 4.3 above.

Over time, however, Mandy began to notice her tendency to ask closed questions that did not invite sustained discussions with teachers. In the coaching study conversations we watched ourselves asking the questions to teachers, interrogated their impact and rehearsed possible alternatives along with teachers' potential responses:

Table 4.4: Coach Study Conversation Excerpt

Heather	If your goal was you wish they'd said "Well let's look at the [unit]," what's a question that would have gotten them there, do you think?
Mandy	I think if I had said, had just flat-out said, "What do you think are some ways we could do that?" there wouldn't have been any sort of answer, because I feel like that's why they were asking – "We don't know"
Heather	So if it's too open ended, they would probably just sit there. It's worth trying maybe, but yeah, I could see…
Mandy	But, do you think I could have said, "What are some ways you've heard of, or what are some ways…"
Heather	Or even "What do you wish it could look like?"
Mandy	Or, "What do you think is best for kids?"
Heather	"What would make more sense?" Sometimes if you say "best" then that's a judgment, cause then it's like, "What you just said wasn't best for kids". So you could say, "What would help kids make sense of weather?"

These rehearsals allowed us to practice and plan our responses, and to think through the ways subtle word choices positioned teachers and constructed our roles as coaches. Mandy admitted she struggled, "Because I'm going to have to think of questions on the spot, when I'm more of a thinker. I guess I'm going to have to become comfortable with wait time or silence." Mandy scoured websites for sample questions and created laminated "cheat sheets" of open-ended questions to use while coaching.

Slowly we began to understand that we needed not disempower ourselves, but could rather act in ways that allowed us to share power with others. Knowing that teachers tended to rely on her to bring resources, Mandy intentionally arranged meeting environments to include projectors and document cameras, and positioned teachers in control of these. She collected and practiced asking broader questions that prompted teachers to examine their values and beliefs about learning. She employed prompts that drew out silent members of the group and sustained topics during conversations. Nearing the end of the second year of the study, Mandy reflected:

> I did a lot of research on open-ended questions. I put them somewhere where they could be readily accessible, I could look if I need to. And then I started to internalize them and know when to ask what, and I'm not a pro by any means, I still have to go back to that card sometimes… And so, I've been happy with my progress! I'm much happier, I think, this year than I have been in a very, very long time. I feel like I'm actually worth something, you know? That I'm actually doing something to help.

While our critical reflexivity had developed by viewing our work through Brookfield's (1995) reflective lenses of personal autobiographies, teachers' eyes, and our colleagues' eyes, perhaps our greatest leaps in our own critical reflexivity occurred when we utilized Brookfield's fourth reflective lens and began to study theoretical literature.

Theoretical literature. Brookfield's (1995) work urged us to look beyond our own experiences and combine them with the possible wisdom to be found in academic literature on power and empowerment. "The study of theoretical literature becomes a psychological and political survival necessity, through which teachers come to understand the link between their private troubles and broader political processes" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 37). Incorporating

theoretical literature into our sessions advanced our conversations to a level that would have otherwise been impossible to reach.

During the first year we began by reading Paulo Freire (1993) and found that his five conditions for dialogue deeply resonated with us. Freire stated that "dialogue is the encounter between men, mediated by the world, in order to name the world" (1993, p. 69) and that participants must embody love, humility, hope, faith in humankind, and critical thinking in order for true dialogue to occur. As we pondered these conditions, Mandy recognized that the stress felt by teachers hampered the development of dialogue: "I don't think they have faith in each other. And I'm thinking that their heads are just above water so they're not sure that there's hope." As we began to view our videotaped interactions with teachers through Freire's eyes we found examples of our own lack of love, humility, and faith that was occasionally frustrating, illustrated by Mandy's comment, "And I guess that's me… not being humble or not being, not feeling like that I'm… feeling like I know more than or know better than… That's why I say, 'Damn you Freire!' [laughter]." Observations of the presence or absence of Freire's conditions began to permeate our discussions.

As we became aware of and began to work on our own shortcomings, Mandy felt confusion about how best to create optimal conditions for dialogue: "I don't know how, so my question is, if I try my best to go in with these five things, and the person or group that I'm working with doesn't have these things, how do I get them there?" Evident in this statement was Mandy's early sense of responsibility to move teachers from one way of being to another, to "get them there" as part of her role.

On her own, Mandy began to research Carol Dweck's (2006) work on growth mindset and began to promote the idea of constant growth to teachers in her building, of becoming

comfortable with the idea of not fully "arriving" at a final learning destination. During the second year of the study Mandy made a concerted effort to communicate her own growing reflexivity to teachers as an example of constant renewal. As Mandy began to see herself develop and grow, she came to believe in teachers' capabilities to change as well. After discovering Knight's (2014) book on video coaching in one of our coaching study conversations, Mandy invited teachers to examine their work through video in the same way she had studied herself, resulting in eight teachers volunteering to participate in extended video coaching. Her constant promotion of growth mindset and addiction to buying professional books on the subject became a running joke at the school, but also opened doors to substantial conversations with teachers around the idea of agency.

During the third year of the study we read excerpts from Thompson's (2007) "Power and Empowerment" and began to build on his key concepts of "empowerment as a means of helping people identify and build on strengths" (p. 27) as well as the understanding that people cannot be empowered by others but must be enabled to empower themselves. These discussions helped us see our role as coaches in a new light, as a tool towards helping others develop their own agency, based on the strengths they already possessed. We began to examine how our discourse with teachers encouraged the development of their existing assets.

As the study continued, Mandy's awareness of her own growth and reflexivity grew. She confided, "It may be that I'm listening more … It may be that I'm being more reflective on the spot, instead of taking everything in and *then* reflecting, and having those questions afterwards, the 'Ah! I should have asked this!'" As her confidence grew, she began sharing her new understandings at the monthly district coach meetings, resulting in newer coaches seeking her out for advice. Mandy co-authored an article for *The Reading Teacher* (Wall & Palmer, 2015)

about applying Freire's conditions for dialogue to coaching, which then led to her initiating and writing proposals to present at several national conferences. She began to position herself at her school and with coaching colleagues beyond her local sphere as a person with knowledge and experience to share.

Later transcripts

After three years' participation in the study, analysis showed that Mandy's discourse about teachers and her interactions with teachers had changed. Her final interview was analyzed using SFL appraisal theory by coding her judgments of teachers and aligning them in a side-by-side comparison with her first interview. Mandy's later videos were examined using SFL to assess potential changes in the ways she questioned and interacted with teachers.

Interview. During Mandy's final interview she discussed her views on our coaching self-study and the changes she had experienced as a result of viewing and discussing videotapes of herself coaching. Her changing attitudes towards teachers and her own capabilities are evident in the excerpts in Table 4.5 below, as are her changing understanding of her role as coach.

Table 4.5: Mandy's Discourse About Teachers

Analysis type	Source	Coded quote
Attitude Coding: Invoked judgment **bold** Invoked affect CAPITAL Engagement Coding: Invoked heteroglossia (attribution and modality) <u>underlined</u> Graduation/amplification coding: *italic*	Interview 3 Line 84	But they're **seeking** that… I don't know the word, they're **seeking** information, they're **seeking** ways to **grow** and ways to **change** and… <u>I guess maybe</u> **seeing *more* value** in what the role of coach does – <u>not me</u>, personally, <u>but</u> the role of [coach]
	Interview 3 Line 340	[Resistance comes from] <u>honestly</u>, people **without a growth mindset**, people either who don't, I don't want to say this to sound ugly, but people who **don't care enough** to change, or… people who don't, <u>I guess</u> when I say that, who **don't want to put forth more effort** to change, or to do something different. Because it does take thought and it does take *more* planning and it does take

		more time…. being, FEELING like they DON'T HAVE AN OPTION, FEELING like there is a RIGHT AND A WRONG, and I've GOT TO DO IT this way and I'm MAD about it, but I HAVE TO DO IT, that I'm being told that I HAVE TO DO IT this way
	Interview 3 Line 373	There's *always* going to be somebody who has a counter argument or has, you know, something, something **different** to say, and so that makes you, well, should make you *automatically* think, Well, *maybe* that's **true**! You know? So it *kind of* makes you be reflective

Overall, SFL analysis showed how Mandy was much more sympathetic towards teachers than she had been in the first interview. The first quote of the chart is representative of many of her judgments of teachers as "growing", "helping" her, and feeling a sense of urgency about teaching. The second quote does contain negative judgment of teachers who are resistant to change; however, Mandy judged not their capabilities, which she had done frequently in her first interview, but rather their tenacity, thus intimating that these teachers were capable of change but chose not to. This quote also revealed an empathy for teachers that had not been apparent before, as seen in the affect evident as she sympathizes with these teachers' feelings of being forced to comply with little choice. Later in the interview she commented, "I mean, I've felt that too. You know? I've been told something … and felt like I didn't have a choice as to how to do it, and it makes me angry."

Mandy engaged in less hedging in these excerpts than she did in her first interview, suggesting that she felt more confident in her statements. In her third quote describing the need to be open to others' viewpoints, she began with proclamations that there are "always" counter arguments and that "you *should"* think "automatically" about these alternative views. She likely changed the pronoun to "you" in order to draw the listener in and to moderate the potential

forcefulness of her opinion, and then toned down the forcefulness further with "maybe" and "kind of," thus proclaiming her opinion while still leaving room for alternative views.

Mandy's judgments about her own capabilities had also changed, as seen in the bolded text in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Mandy's Discourse About Coaching Role/Self

Analysis type	Source	Coded quote
Attitude Coding: Invoked judgment of capacity **bold** Engagement Coding: Invoked heteroglossia (attribution) underlined Graduation/amplification coding: *italic*	Interview 3 Line 87	I've also changed *a lot* of things that I, that I do also. And I've been *more* **reflective** myself and shared that with them. I've asked *more* open-ended questions and **allowed** them to talk *more* and me *less*. And I think that's probably… if they feel like they're being **valued** and they feel like they're being **listened to**, I think that's probably caused them to want to come back *more*
	Interview 3 Line 149	I shared that email with them about video, and videoing myself, and so I shared *kind of* my thoughts about that and how… I don't know, this *whole* growth mindset thing, I guess [laughs] and everybody brings it up and I feel like, 'Oh God, am I just **oppressive** about mindset?' [laughter] I haven't, I don't think, pushed it *really*. But maybe the things that I ask are *more growth mindset oriented* and how, I do say, '**It's ok** to make a **mistake**, **it's ok** if it **doesn't work** out, let's tweak it, you know, let's look at it, see what it is that **isn't working** and tweak that part.' It may not be, 'Let's just give up the whole thing.' You know, but we all have, we all have **room to grow**. And I think they see me as a **learner**
	Interview 3 Line 200	It may be, maybe I was *more* ***directive*** then? Than ***responsive***…. I don't know if that's what I thought I should be maybe?...I mean there are times when I'm ***directive***, but I think it's *more of a balance* now, maybe *more*, even *leaning towards* ***responsive***. And I think that's *just* my understanding of my role, maybe, *a little more*? Plus, *really*

		looking at my language and how it affects people when it comes out

She described her coaching in more positive terms as being reflective while valuing and listening to teachers. Her adherence to a growth mindset was evident in her discussion of mistakes and teachers seeing her as a learner. This contrasted with her earlier interview in which she felt teachers saw her as evaluative and in which she "struggled" and did not have an atmosphere that promoted reflection.

Mandy created a more heteroglossic text that left room for different views when discussing herself and her role as coach than she did when talking about teachers in Table 4.5. Modals such as *maybe, I think, probably,* and *I guess* are all dialogically expansive and open the text to alternative possibilities. This tendency demonstrated that Mandy might not have been entirely confident as she discussed her own role as coach and the changes she described.

The third quote in particular described how Mandy felt she had changed in her role as a coach. In this instance, Mandy's use of amplifying terms – *more, a little, leaning towards* – were used for the first time in amplifying focus rather than force. Grading of focus is used when describing the preciseness of a category, which in this case referred to the types of responses she used with teachers, whereas her earlier amplifications had graded the force, or the degree of intensity of her suggestions for teachers. In this quote Mandy discussed her changes regarding the focus of coaching as she became more responsive and less directive, and thus began to achieve what she termed a balance in her role as coach. This graduation of focus revealed Mandy's thinking as she gradually began to sharpen her understanding of her role as coach.

Mandy's conceptualization of empowerment was much clearer in the final interview. In the initial interview, when asked, "What does empowerment mean?" Mandy's response was to

reminisce about her own experiences as a new teacher with supportive colleagues. Tellingly, she had no examples of empowerment from her current school. In the later interview, however, Mandy was much more explicit in her definition of empowerment:

> Teachers feeling like they have a choice in not only what they do but how they do it, teachers feeling like they have, like their education actually meant something [laughs], like they do have some professional judgment and are allowed to use it. I think opening up conversation… I think being able to have conversation is empowering.

This definition contrasted with the more forceful language of her first interview, when she felt responsible to "get them where they need to be" and wondered how to "empower them to think on their own." Mandy's new definition revealed her increasing trust in teachers' capabilities and her embrace of Freire's conditions for dialogue to support reflexive conversations.

Mandy's later videos. During the third year of the study Mandy led vertical planning meetings with all grade levels at her school. The data below derives from a series of videos that involved approximately 10 teachers, many of whom were the same teachers from the early videos analyzed above.

Whereas Mandy's early videos of her coaching with the teachers revealed disjointed conversations that moved quickly from topic to topic, creating a total of 32 sequences, in Mandy's later videos the discussion was focused and tightly led by her. The segment analyzed below depicts an article discussion led by Mandy before teachers broke into cross-grade level groups to develop learning progressions. The 31 minute segment consisted of only nine sequences, eight of which Mandy opened. She balanced her openings between asking for teachers' opinions and giving information on a new topic.

While she tightly controlled these changes of topic, most sequences consisted of dialogic interactions between teachers as they shared their opinions, asked questions, and relayed their own connections about the topic. Table 4.7 below is an excerpt from a sequence where teachers reflected on a section of an article about creating mini-lessons.

Table 4.7: Excerpt of Teacher Discussion

21	**Teacher W** – What stood out for me was the show examples part….I just stumbled
22	upon a website that has examples of actual student work. And I display it and show
23	them. You know? It's not perfect, it's got words that are misspelled, it's got, you know,
24	drawings that are something scratched out, just to show them that, you know, just try
25	your best, basically, is what I've been trying to say.
26	**Teacher U** – I think sometimes with examples you have to be careful about it's not – at
27	least with [young writers], cause they'll do exactly what they see [general murmur of
28	agreement]
29	**Teacher U** – it says, so like, Teacher V and I, especially during writing, whenever we,
30	we've done our example, we've done our ML, and I'll keep it up for a little bit, but then
31	I have to like bring it down [general agreement] cause if not
32	**Teacher V** – they'll do exactly what we did
33	**Teacher U** – If I'm writing about my Thanksgiving at my grandmother's house then
34	they're writing about their Thanksgiving at my grandmother's house. And I'm there!
35	[laughter] And so I'm like, 'Was Braxton really with you? No! Then, honey, then we
36	can't include him in the story, cause that's' – you know, like, explaining that. And so,
37	like, letting it up so they see that and talk about it, you know, but then having to cover it
38	so they don't copy it. Which, like, I wish I could leave it up, and I try to reinforce it,
	because I think they need to be able to like reference back to it continuously, while
40	they're doing their independent practice. But, you know [general agreement]
41	**Teacher V** – Yeah
42	**Teacher U** – cause they're like, well, I wasn't at your Thanksgiving. You know?
43	[general agreement]
44	**Mandy** – And I think there are people, there are teacher-pleasers [agreement murmurs]
45	'This is what she thinks is good, so this is what I'm going to do,' and you know, that's
46	probably why you do have to be careful with those examples.

Mandy began this sequence asking teachers, "What stood out to you?" about a specific section of the article. Her open-ended phrasing of the question allowed teachers to engage in a broad discussion that included resources they had previously gathered as well as personal experiences. Teachers felt comfortable politely disagreeing with each other, as Teacher U did with Teacher

W, and sharing occasions when their instruction did not work, thus demonstrating a level of comfort with each other that allowed for problem-solving of classroom situations.

Line 45 illustrates another tendency of Mandy's to introduce other voices into her discourse in her later videos. In the excerpt above she mimicked the voice of a student to illustrate the thinking that might have led to their copying of examples. She introduced student voices four other times in this meeting and rehearsed possible teacher expressions a total of 21 times. Some of her voicing served to illustrate how teachers might communicate to their students: "I might pull a group right then of kids who, you know, don't have it. 'Kids who got it, go off, practice on your own. You stay here with me on the carpet for just a little bit extra time.'" At other times, she mimicked the internal conversations teachers might have: "That's a great time for you to walk around and say, 'OOH! Got it, doesn't got it, um, almost has it, maybe if I just do one little, you know, say one little extra thing then they'll have it.'" This introduction of student and teacher voices served to position herself alongside teachers, problem-solving classroom situations with them. In one instance, she rehearsed a potential conversation with administration:

> When administration asks you, you know, what was your purpose for pulling that small group you say, 'Well, in the active engagement part I walked around and none of them were able to do, what we, what we did in the ML that day, so I kept them back with me.' [Administration:] 'Perfect! Differentiation right there!'

This discursive choice positioned Mandy as one of the teachers, thinking through the difficult situations teachers encounter every day, and served to balance the power distribution between herself and the teachers. Rehearsing conversations in this way created a dialogically expansive

text whereby Mandy essentially invited students, administrators, and herself as a teacher to this meeting, thus creating a more heteroglossic environment.

In her later videos, Mandy adopted a more assertive stance than she had three years earlier. She asked open-ended questions that invited conversations between and among teachers, but she was more obviously in control of the sequence of interactions. Teachers sustained the topics under discussion and appeared to be comfortable introducing alternative perspectives and asking questions. Overall, Mandy adopted the role of leader in this situation, which she had overtly resisted in her early interactions with teachers. She assumed the responsibility for guiding many of the topics of discussion while simultaneously creating space for teachers to voice their opinions. Her questions were almost entirely open-ended and positioned teachers as knowledgeable and capable: “What stood out to you?” and “What are your ideas?” and “What questions do you have?” Mandy balanced directive and responsive approaches to coaching by simultaneously leading the discussions while remaining responsive to teachers’ questions and suggestions, and by inviting teachers to respond in various ways.

My own process as participant-observer in this study mirrored Mandy’s in many ways (Wall & Palmer, 2015). We both benefited from viewing ourselves and our work through Brookfield’s (1995) reflective lenses of autobiographical stories, teacher’s viewpoints, theoretical literature and, of course, each other’s eyes. Through analyzing data collected in the form of transcripts, field notes, reflexivity journal entries, and raw video footage I began to comprehend my own tendencies towards judgmental appraisal of teachers and the ways this was realized in my coaching interactions. While the focus of this article was on Mandy’s case, we both benefited greatly from the experience.

Discussion

Dewey (1933) described reflexivity as a process stemming from a state of doubt or confusion that requires further investigation. Indeed, "Demand for the solution of a perplexity is the steadying and guiding factor in the entire process of reflection" (Dewey, 1933, p. 11). Mandy began the study with an unclear understanding of her role as coach, which was reflected in her discourse about teachers and her dilemma about how to fulfill the role of coach in her interactions with teachers. This perplexity served as the "guiding factor" for her ongoing reflection around her videotapes. Mandy's process of reflection over the course of this three year study illustrated the relevance of Brookfield's (1995) lenses through which coaches might enact their own processes of reflection by examining their personal histories, viewing their practice through teachers' and their colleagues' eyes, and reading theoretical literature.

The intent of this study was to examine the ways in which the coach discursively constructed the identities of the teachers with whom she worked and to study the effects of engaging in a reflexive dialogic process regarding coaching discourse and practice. Mandy's discourse about teachers and her interactions with teachers changed over the course of the three years she participated in the coaching study group. While direct causality cannot be attributed to any one attribute of the study, the findings outlined above suggest that the process of videotaping oneself and reviewing and discussing those tapes with coaching colleagues may result in increased reflexivity involving specific aspects of coaching including enhanced understandings of coaching roles and the impact of the coach's discourse, as well as more nuanced perceptions of teachers' capabilities.

Coaching Roles – Achieving Balance

Mandy's quandary about how and when to adopt a directive versus a responsive stance with teachers is echoed in the research and professional literature surrounding coaching. While studies such as Ippolito (2010) and Heineke (2013) advocate for a balance between directive and responsive approaches, and the professional literature often advocates a more responsive approach (Costa & Garmston, 2002; Knight, 2014), coaches in the field may internalize institutional pressures stemming from school improvement policies as a requirement to be directive in order to quickly see results. These outside pressures can create interpretations of the coaching role as change agent, tasked with turning around a struggling school. This belief can be seen in Mandy's initial discussions of her role as being a way to "improve" teachers and "get them to where they need to be." Her judgmental language can be interpreted as a response to the institutional pressure she was feeling from her new school administration and punitive state designations. This language conflicted, however, with Mandy's expressed desire for the teachers to be empowered as she had been as a young teacher, and her own desire to engage in professional conversations with them. Mandy was caught between a personal desire to be a responsive coach who shared power with teachers and institutional pressures that created doubt about teachers' capabilities and subtly urged her to adopt a directive stance.

Through the reflexive process of viewing herself and discussing her coaching, Mandy's understanding of her role became more nuanced. She came to see that the choice to be directive or responsive was not one of binaries built on judgments of good and bad or right and wrong, but rather one of circumstances and contextualized understandings. Mandy developed an enhanced understanding of the power relations inherent between coach and teachers. Whereas she had begun the study feeling that to empower teachers meant to disempower herself and to "bury my

opinions," through discussion and observation she came to see that power was not an entity to be given away, but rather shared. She became more comfortable occupying a leadership role in which she balanced instances of sharing her "expert" knowledge with solicitation of teachers' opinions, questions and ideas.

The impact of the study is evident in Mandy's discussion of her own reflexivity:

> I don't know if I'd be in the same place if we hadn't done this [study] 3 years ago, cause we've had LOTS of conversations and so I felt like that's kind of empowered me to, to learn more, to do more, to change. You know, what does this allow and what does it shut down, allowed me to be more reflective, allowed me to be, you know, all these other things, whereas I might be stuck in that same little hole if I had not been able to talk out and flesh out my conversations, and my thoughts.

Thus, coaches who find themselves experiencing the same quandaries about the coaching role might benefit from forming collegial video-coaching groups that encourage an environment of critical reflection.

Coaching Discourse – Developing Awareness

The ways in which we choose to structure our language and the seemingly inconsequential choices we make in our daily discourse can, in fact, have a major impact on the ways our ideas are communicated to others. "It is not that language can be used ideologically, it is that the very use of language is ideological" (Butt, Lukin & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 288). This was a truth that Mandy discovered as she rehearsed possible question stems in the study conversations and observed the effects of judgmental language of which she had previously been unaware. The realization of the ideological impact of our discourse was a powerful one, and for

each of the coaches in the study, including Mandy, resulted in an initial period of self-imposed anxiety. Awareness of the impact of her language made her question almost every discursive choice.

Videotaping coaching interactions and the subsequent discussions about discursive choices allowed Mandy to closely monitor her own discourse and the ways in which it might be interpreted by teachers. In her later interview, Mandy confided, "I'm more thoughtful about what I say before I say it, because I know it can have a negative impact or a positive impact." This awareness, based on her viewing and reviewing of her coaching tapes, allowed her to begin to develop an understanding about how her ideologies were represented within her discourse and how she might be interpreted by teachers. Coaches wishing to develop an increased awareness of the impact of their discourse would likely benefit from participating in collegial study groups involving discussions about videotaped coaching sessions.

Coaching Discourse – Changing Beliefs

As Mandy's awareness of discourse developed and her interpretation of her role as coach changed, her beliefs about herself began to change. She began to become more confident and finally felt she was making an impact at her school. As her awareness of her own growth developed, she simultaneously became more trusting of teachers' capabilities. Thus, her changes in discursive choices led to a change in her behavior and a change in beliefs about teachers. "There's just a new feeling of… truthfully, growth mindset. That everybody has room to grow," she said when describing the outlook at her school. This phenomenon is mirrored in work by Stephens and Mills (2014) who found that when teachers and coaches adopted an inquiry stance, their beliefs changed ahead of their practice. They stated that, "Teachers reported that initially their beliefs were ahead of their practices. Over time, they intentionally tried, and eventually

succeeded in, living into their new beliefs" (2014, p. 196). Mandy developed beliefs about coaching discourse from her observations of herself and her research into Freire, power, and growth mindset, and over time these new beliefs began to impact her practice as she asked more open-ended questions and created more heteroglossic texts within her conversations with teachers.

However, Mandy also found the converse to be true. When asked whether her changes in coaching discourse had affected her beliefs in any way, she described a specific situation with a teacher who gradually moved from being distant and negative to seeking out Mandy for advice. This increasing responsiveness by the teacher corresponded to an effort on Mandy's part to talk less and listen more, partially to avoid the teacher's negativity: "I didn't want to get shut down again" she stated. In this situation, Mandy changed her behavior without having changed her beliefs, and was surprised by the teacher's productive response. After the teacher responded positively more than once, she gradually began to believe more in teachers' abilities to problem-solve their situations: "Now I try to go into every situation thinking, you're the problem solver, you know what's best in your room….if I can get them to do it on their own, that's more powerful I think."

Thus, while new beliefs can lead to new practice, it is also the case that adopting new practices can result in changing beliefs. Actions which may have begun as an experiment, such as collecting open-ended questions on cards or resolving to listen more, can lead to a shift in beliefs about oneself and others, particularly if these actions can be captured in ways that enhance reflexivity.

Concluding Thoughts

Norman Fairclough stated,

> We can see texts as shaped by two sets of causal powers and by the tension between them: on the one hand, social structures and social practices; and on the other hand, the agency of people involved in the events of which they are a part (2011, p. 122).

Coaches occupy a complex, oftentimes ill-defined position within school culture in which they are expected to exist as a bridge between administrators and teachers. Fairclough's quote can help us understand why balancing between serving an educational institution and promoting the agency of teachers creates a tension-filled space for coaching discourse. This study suggests that videotaping oneself and engaging in critical reflection with colleagues about discourse can have a powerful impact on a coach's reflexivity and can result in noticeable changes in the coach's discourse and in how the coach fulfills the coaching role.

CHAPTER 5

ARTICLE 3:

LEADING LESSON STUDY: NAVIGATING FACILITATION ROLES IN INQUIRY-BASED PROFESSIONAL LEARNING[3]

[3] Wall, H. To be submitted to *Journal of Literacy Research*

Abstract

Lesson study can be a powerful, inquiry-based method of professional development for teachers and yet little research has examined how facilitators negotiate the atypical participation structures inherent in the lesson study process. In this article, the researcher uses Bereiter's (1994) concept of progressive discourse as a framework for examining teacher discussions during lesson study sessions by analyzing video-recordings of teacher interactions and using Systemic Functional Linguistics to investigate interpersonal meanings constructed by participants. Informed by Bereiter's four necessary conditions for sustaining progressive discourse, findings demonstrated that the facilitator primarily acted as Instructor, Questioner, and Participant, each of which provided specific allowances and constraints to the progressiveness of the discourse during the lesson study process. Implications include the suggestion that the lesson study process may benefit from facilitators becoming aware of the roles available to them and the ways in which their assumption of these roles impacts the progressiveness of discourse.

Several years ago, as a district-level literacy coach, I began to explore Japanese lesson study as a professional learning approach within our district. I was searching for an alternative to the more traditional presentations in which the coach or presenter served as resident expert, and in lesson study I found a powerful structure that authentically pulled together separate elements of peer observations, collaborative lesson planning, and examination of student work. Lesson study is an inquiry-based approach to professional learning in which teachers meet during the school day for a series of days to collaboratively plan and teach lessons that address a problem of practice common to the group (Lewis & Hurd, 2011; Takahashi & Yoshida, 2004). Lessons on topics such as explaining theme or crafting opinion essays are taught by a member of the group, then debriefed and adjusted based on the results of careful observations. The intent is not to create a "perfect" lesson but rather to closely examine students' reactions to particular instructional moves. Thus, teachers gain deeper insight into student thinking and overall learning processes that can be broadly applied to instruction.

As I began to engage in lesson studies with teachers around the district, I found that teachers responded enthusiastically and enjoyed the experience. However, I also found that both the teachers and I experienced initial confusion about our roles within this unfamiliar approach. Oftentimes teachers expected to be given specific instructional ideas to try or anticipated receiving evaluative feedback from me about their delivery of the lesson. While I understood lesson study to be an inquiry-based approach driven by the needs and ideas of the participants, I initially fell into the more-familiar role of instructor and offered ideas and solutions too readily. Over time, I struggled with knowing what role/s to embody within this non-traditional professional learning approach, how much support I should offer, and how much of the conversation I should direct.

Thus began a three-year study during which I video-taped 94 hours of lesson studies in order to examine the discursive moves involved in facilitating teachers during inquiry-based professional learning. Wells' (1999) work on the discourse involved in inquiry-based learning within the classroom proved invaluable as a basis for the concept of progressive discourse, which he described as dialogue that moves beyond the sharing of opinions towards progress in the sharing of ideas that lead to new understandings. Progressive dialogue challenges thinking and develops ideas in ways that encourage participants to move beyond simple, polite discourse. This study sought to answer the specific question: Within lesson study, how did the facilitator occupy and shift between specific roles in order to support progressive discourse?

Literature Review

Professional development

Research on professional development for teachers is generally in agreement concerning key characteristics of effective practice. Joyce and Showers' (2002) research demonstrated that simply presenting theory or modeling practices for teachers in short-term presentations had little impact on classroom practice. However, professional development that included job-embedded approaches such as coaching feedback, peer visits, and practice with low-risk feedback resulted in an 80-90% likelihood of application in teachers' classrooms.

John Hattie's (2009) landmark synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses examined the impact of various practices on student achievement and found that teacher professional development ranked 19th out of 138 total practices studied. Hattie examined a key meta-analysis by Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, and Fung (2008) which found that the best professional development occurred over extended periods of time, involved experts from outside the school to challenge existing assumptions, focused on student learning outcomes, and took into account teachers' existing

beliefs about learning while simultaneously challenging their assumptions. Timperley et al. also found that collegial settings in which teachers talked with each other were necessary but insufficient in many instances since collaborations tended to simply reinforce the existing beliefs of the group. Professional learning communities, they argued, needed to include a focus on becoming responsive to students through the shared examination of student work, achievement profiles, and student interviews.

Hattie (2012) expanded upon his synthesis of the research on professional learning by outlining elements that lead to visible learning effects in students. In order for teachers to engage in "critical reflection in light of evidence" (2012, p. 22) their school should have a professional development program in place that: "enhances teachers' deeper understanding of their subject(s); supports learning through analyses of the teachers' classroom interactions with students; helps teachers know how to provide effective feedback; [and] develops the teacher's ability to influence students' surface and deep learning" (p. 28). These characteristics are encapsulated in microteaching, which ranked 4th in his 2009 meta-analysis and involves teachers conducting mini-lessons with groups of students and then participating in intense discussions with peers afterwards. These laboratory experiences tended to occur more often at the pre-service teaching level than with in-service teachers.

Hattie (2012) also argued that teachers who have major impacts on student learning tend to subscribe to particular ways of thinking, or mind frames, that support their daily instructional decisions. Among these are the tendency to engage in dialogue rather than monologue, their belief in themselves as change agents, and the desire to talk more about student learning than instruction. Hattie argued for professional development that develops and supports these ways of thinking in teachers.

Jensen, Sonnemann, Roberts-Hull and Hunter (2016) examined professional development in four high-performing systems in British Columbia, Shanghai, Hong Kong and Singapore, which consistently rank high in international assessments of student achievement. Many of their findings are in agreement with Hattie (2009; 2012), including the need for professional learning to be ongoing, tied to student outcomes, and evaluated using concrete student data. However, these high performing countries differ from the United States in the degree to which they employ an open-door policy concerning lesson observation, co-taught lessons, and collaborative lesson study sessions. Each of the systems described in the study involved their teachers in lesson planning and lesson observations that were reminiscent of the highly effective microteaching practice described by Hattie (2009).

Lesson study

Myles Horton argued, "If you want to change people's ideas, you shouldn't try to convince them intellectually. What you need to do is get them into a situation where they'll have to act on ideas, not argue about them" (1990, p. 16). Lesson study is one such approach to acting on ideas. Lesson study originated in Japan as a teacher-directed professional learning process in which teachers collaboratively plan and teach lessons with specific research goals in mind (Lewis & Hurd, 2011).

Participants generally engage in several stages when taking part in lesson study groups (Jensen, Sonnemann, Roberts-Hull & Hunter, 2016; Lewis & Hurd, 2011). The first stage involves an open discussion of classroom practice as teachers seek to identify curricular goals on which they would like to focus. During this discussion teachers carefully study content standards to identify learning expectations and may examine current student work to pinpoint particular

strengths and struggles. The primary emphasis during this and subsequent discussions is on student thinking.

After a topic of interest has been identified, teachers move into the planning stage. Participants may choose to select an existing lesson to address the learning goals of the group, but oftentimes teachers create a lesson together. Participants tend to engage in rich discussion as they negotiate with each other about the overall goal of the lesson and then suggest and modify instructional moves to target the desired student thinking. Creating the lesson on a common document, such as a shared Google doc, allows the entire group to easily view and contribute to the lesson as it is constructed. The lesson is recorded in great detail so the teacher will not need to make interpretations during teaching. At the end of this stage a participant is either randomly chosen or volunteers to teach the group's lesson.

The teaching of the lesson and the subsequent debrief generally occur on a different day. Established norms for observation of the lesson ensure that participants are merely observers and do not contribute to the lesson to allow for a more realistic evaluation of the lesson's effects. The group decides on specific data to collect and teachers are encouraged to observe the same group of students throughout the lesson in order to note the progression of student understanding over time. Immediately following the lesson, or as soon afterward as possible, the observers meet to discuss the data collected. Discussion protocols during this debriefing stage serve to focus the dialogue on data regarding student learning rather than evaluating the success of the teacher, as studies have found that without a focus on student outcomes the depth of collegial conversations can suffer from a culture of politeness (Murray, Ma, & Mazur, 2009; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2008). Based on the results of the lesson and the time available, the group may choose to plan a follow-up lesson. Options include making adjustments to the current lesson and re-

teaching it to a different group of students, or planning a lesson that flows from the first one and addresses the next logical instructional step with students.

The final stage of lesson study invites participants to reflect upon the overall lesson study process in an effort to identify broad understandings discovered by the group. The goal of lesson study is not to design a "perfect" lesson but rather to engage in research that allows teachers to gain new understandings about student learning, curricular content and lesson design to inform future instruction. The final debriefing asks teachers to reflect upon and share any challenges they encountered to their beliefs about how students learn, and to discuss what they may have learned about teaching and learning beyond the specific lessons discussed by the group.

Lesson study is a structured approach to professional learning that is "easy to learn but difficult to master" (Chokshi & Fernandez, 2004, p. 524) and the role of lesson study facilitator is a complicated one. While Lewis and Hurd (2011) encourage teachers to control the process by taking turns in the role of facilitator, they also acknowledge that novice groups can become focused on procedural decisions and miss opportunities for deeper discussions about student learning without a strong facilitator. Sims and Walsh (2009) conducted lesson study with pre-service teachers and found that the facilitator needed to be intentional about asking probing questions. Sims found that once she took a more active role as facilitator debriefing sessions were more focused on goals and evidence. Takahashi and Yoshida (2004) agree that the skill of the facilitator has a strong impact on the quality of the discussion and that facilitators "must know the goals so that he or she may direct and guide the discussion appropriately" (p. 442). With this emphasis on the discursive skills of the facilitator, a deep understanding of dialogue and ways of facilitating progressive discourse appears to be of high importance.

Conceptual Framework

This paper is informed by both critical theory and Fairclough's (1989) Critical Discourse Analysis as a means for examining power within discourse. From a critical discourse analysis perspective, discourse is defined as language in use and every discursive situation is considered in relation to the surrounding institutional and social contexts (Fairclough, 1992b). Discourse is both the site of power and ideological struggle as well as a stake within such struggles (Fairclough, 1989; 1992a; 2014). By this Fairclough meant that discourse is necessary for the continuation and reproduction of an ideological stance while at the same time struggles exist over language as groups compete to control how concepts are defined or what orders of discourse are considered acceptable in specific situations. In other words, discourse is simultaneously constructing and being constructed by power and ideology. These often subconscious beliefs and assumptions about "the way things are" position people in particular ways. For instance, institutional and societal understandings may position teachers as passive recipients of professional learning, the decisions about which are often controlled by school or district administrators. These social structures and relationships are simultaneously reflected and/or challenged by interactional discourse (Fairclough, 1992b), as can be seen in the ways teachers and administrators negotiate conversational turn-taking or the assumption of roles in interactions with each other. Every discursive interaction is an act of establishing a relationship with another in that the speaker is simultaneously positioning and exchanging information with the person who will speak next (Halliday, 1994). Through meta awareness, we can try to create or at least be aware of how to create dialogical spaces in which ideas build upon one another in progressive ways as opposed to leading to miscommunication and misconceptions.

Gordon Wells (1999) examined the ways in which discourse was used to create dialogical spaces when students engaged in inquiry learning. In his work Wells integrated Bereiter's (1994) concept of progressive discourse, which he defined as discussion which allows for the building of knowledge. Progressive discourse requires that participants go beyond simply stating opinions, but rather work to understand each other and to be understood in order to make progress in the discussion. Wells (1999) acknowledged that in the rapid exchange of spoken discourse potentially meaningful ideas may be lost, thus he suggested that participants create a "knowledge artifact" (p. 129) that captures ideas and "provides the focus for progressive discourse and simultaneously embodies the progress made" (p. 115). Bereiter (1994) described four requirements for generating progressive discourse:

- "A commitment to work toward common understanding satisfactory to all" (p. 7). Bereiter named this the *mutual understanding commitment* and acknowledged that while discussions oftentimes avoid potentially controversial areas of belief, in order for discourse to be progressive participants must be willing to engage these beliefs in ways that open them up for discussion.
- "A commitment to frame questions and propositions in ways that allow evidence to be brought to bear on them" (p. 7). This requirement, termed the *empirical testability commitment*, asks that discussants support their arguments and be willing to defend or alter their evidence based on others' views. "This means making your position vulnerable, not just to what you consider to choose as evidence, but to what other participants will consider as evidence as well" (p. 7).
- "A commitment to expand the body of collectively valid propositions" (p. 7). Bereiter described collectively valid propositions as those that the group can agree upon, although

they may not endorse them, and thus the goal of the *expansion commitment* is to increase the number, scope or size of these propositions through dialogue.

- "A commitment to allow any belief to be subjected to criticism if it will advance the discourse" (p. 7). Bereiter acknowledged that this *openness commitment* is very difficult for participants and often falls short of complete realization. However, simply agreeing to the idea of opening beliefs to criticism can contribute to the progress of discourse.

Bereiter (1994) and Wells (1999) argued that this type of progressive discourse is characteristic of collaborative knowledge-building communities and should be the goal within schools for both students and teachers. Wells (1999) contended that an essential feature of progressive dialogue is a physical artifact to serve as the focus for the discussion. This object assists in capturing the thinking of the group and allows review and revision in ways that an entirely oral discussion could not provide.

In his search for examples of progressive discourse, Wells (1999) examined the degree of prospectiveness of specific interactions within exchanges. Most exchanges are initiated by one speaker demanding a response from another for information, goods, or services. Demands are highly prospective because they require some type of response and thus serve to continue an exchange between people. The respondent may choose to simply provide an answer, which is less prospective because it does not require any further response, or he or she may choose to respond in a more prospective way, perhaps by demanding a response of his or her own. Supportive responses tend to end exchanges since the initiation has been resolved in some way, whereas confronting responses lead to further discussion and an increase in prospectiveness (Eggins & Slade, 1997). How one participant chooses to respond to another, therefore, can either step up or step down the prospectiveness of the conversation.

Bereiter's (1994) and Wells' (1999) examinations of progressive discourse align well with the goals of lesson study. As a method of professional development in which teachers work collaboratively to closely examine the effects of instruction on student learning, the commitments to mutual understanding, expansion of ideas, and the empirical testability of propositions are in strong alliance. Ideally, lesson study participants would also agree to the openness commitment by honestly examining their own beliefs about teaching and learning. To what degree do participants in lesson study sessions commit to progressive discourse by contributing empirical data to discussions or following a line of thought in an attempt to more fully understand? What role/s does or should the facilitator play in guiding these discussions? How might these roles position the facilitators and teachers as learners and professionals? These questions led to the current study.

Method

Researcher Role

My role within this study was twofold. My first role was as primary researcher of a larger participatory action research study within which this smaller study is embedded. The larger three-year study involved three other coaches and myself as we studied our coaching discourse by reviewing videotapes of our interactions with teachers. Each of us video-recorded our separate interactions with teachers and then met regularly to review each other's tapes and discuss our coaching discourse. The smaller study discussed in this article focused entirely on my videotaped coaching interactions from the three-year period as I facilitated lesson study professional learning with teachers.

My second role involved my position as Professional Learning Specialist within the district where I continued to work during the course of the study. In this position I endeavored to

address the literacy professional learning needs of the elementary schools in the district by supporting individuals, small groups, or faculties through coaching labs, presentations, or lesson studies throughout the year. While I did not serve in a supervisory role or evaluate teachers or coaches, I recognize that my position did carry with it a degree of institutional authority, and that I was seen by most teachers as representing "Central Office" in some form or fashion. Therefore, my role had the potential to impact participants' perception of my authority and may have influenced teachers' interactions during lesson study.

Participants

Participants of the lesson studies (all names are pseudonyms) examined in this article included elementary and middle school teachers, coaches, and administrators from across one district in the southeastern United States. The district was a medium-sized county of approximately 27,000 students and included 20 elementary schools, eight middle schools, and six high schools. Fifty percent of the student population identified as White and 41% as Hispanic, with the remaining being divided between African American, Asian, and American Indian. In the previous year 59% of students qualified for free and reduced lunch rates, a common indicator of poverty levels in school systems, and 17% of students were designated as having limited English proficiency.

Teachers oftentimes participated in lesson studies with colleagues from their grade level and thus were familiar and comfortable with the other participants. On occasion, however, lesson study groups formed through my inviting teachers of a particular grade level to sign up from around the district and meet at a centrally located school to plan and teach the lessons. Participants also included building administrators, coaches, paraprofessionals, and college interns, all of whom participated fully by helping plan, observe, and teach the group lessons.

Over the three years of the study, approximately 150 participants took part in at least one lesson study.

Data Collection

Data sources for this study included 94 hours of videotaped lesson study sessions, field notes, and my reflection log, consisting of 108 entries over three years. Each lesson study generally lasted nine hours over the course of three days during a two-week period; however, only the teacher discussions were videotaped and actual lessons with students were not recorded.

In addition, I met monthly with the other three coaches in my study during which they reviewed sections of my lesson study videos and conducted informal analyses of my discourse. All 26 meetings were videotaped and outlined in video logs, which also resulted in my writing additional field notes and reflection logs. In preparation for these discussions with the other coaches, I transcribed segments of the lesson studies which served as “cruces” or “moments of crisis” (Fairclough, 1992b) to allow us to more carefully analyze and discuss them.

Data Analysis

To support a broader thematic inquiry along with micro linguistic analysis of key data, I used a combination of qualitative (Saldana, 2013) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994) approaches was used to analyze the data in this study. I began by engaging in multiple readings of the data set, which included field notes, reflective journal entries, transcripts of segments of lesson study sessions, and raw video footage of lesson studies. In this first review of the data I was interested in examining my facilitator position within the discussions, as well as teachers’ interactions and responses. I reviewed notes from my previous discussions with the coaches from the larger study and questioned them about their experiences in leading lesson studies. Broad categories of roles embodied by the facilitator began to emerge and I cycled

through several iterations before refining them to the three roles discussed below: Instructor, Questioner, and Participant.

Next, because I wanted to see how the interactions between teachers and me in the lesson studies were functioning in terms of dialogic discourse, I consulted the work of Halliday (1994) and Eggins and Slade (1997) for guidance in utilizing SFL as a tool for delving more deeply into the ways social roles are enacted discursively. Halliday provides a structure for understanding the interplay between discourse within the context of a specific situation and larger institutional and cultural influences. His model allows us to examine the context of a situation, or register, for three types of meaning required to negotiate social life: field, the ideational meanings represented within discourse; tenor, the interpersonal meanings; and mode, the role of language and how it is organized. For this article, I focused on the interpersonal meanings constructed within the lesson study sessions by examining discourse semantic patterns (Martin & Rose, 2007). Additionally, Eggins and Slade (1997) supported my understanding of the ways that speakers interact with each other through particular speech functions such as initiating, reacting, responding, developing, confronting, or supporting moves; the researchers also provide understanding of how these particular discursive moves can exert, challenge or resist hierarchical positionings. The freedom to choose speech functions in an institutional context is also constrained or facilitated by the context. For example, teachers are able to initiate, respond, support and confront students while in their own classrooms, but may feel limited in other contexts such as faculty meetings or post-observation conferences with their principal.

In order to examine the ways normative speech functions in professional learning settings were appropriated or resisted by the teachers and myself, I began analyzing several “cruces” (Fairclough, 1992b) from a variety of lesson study sessions. I found instances in which I fulfilled

each of the three facilitation roles and began to discover patterns concerning the ways my role shifted during the different stages of lesson study. I transcribed examples of each facilitator role and analyzed the speech functions in use to determine how each role differed from the others in terms of initiating or prolonging the discussions. From this I began to see patterns in discourse structures within particular facilitator roles as well as the constraints and affordances resulting from these patterns. Given the large amount of data collected over the course of the study, I chose to focus the analytic section below on one second grade lesson study as a representative sample.

Findings

In reviewing my lesson study videotapes early in my study, I realized that as a coach I often struggled to adapt to the different positionings required by lesson study as compared to more traditional professional learning. Within education, professional development has tended to conform to a fairly predictable set of genre expectations in which a presenter is positioned as content expert with knowledge to share and teachers are positioned as recipients expected to apply the new information within their classrooms. My own experience as a teacher and later as instructional coach conformed to these traditional formats, and while I continued to see value in their use, I was also intrigued by the idea of teachers driving their own inquiry through lesson study. I found, however, that old habits die hard, and realigning the ways I positioned myself and teachers required intentionality. My habits of communicating in presentation mode or providing answers to teachers' questions in the midst of discussions tended to shut down the problem-solving dialogue endemic to lesson study and thus required that I work to avoid these tendencies.

Lesson study is designed to be led by teachers rather than a content expert and therefore does not require new strategies or content to be shared, as is often the case with conventional

professional development. While teachers new to the lesson study process may need support in understanding the approach and applying the debriefing protocols, the evaluation of the lesson's effectiveness and decisions about how to adjust instruction should be left up to the participants. The institutional authority (Fairclough, 1989) accompanying my district role meant that oftentimes teachers did not push back when I dominated discussions or that they appealed to me for answers or approval when instructional decisions were to be made. In this way, both teachers and I fell back into more traditional positions of Instructor and Learner, a situation which did not invite inquiry-based progressive dialogue.

Over the course of the study I experimented with different ways of questioning, reacting to, and supporting teachers during these lesson study sessions, and I began to develop a deeper understanding of how my choices might contribute to my own positioning and those of teachers in relation to one another. It became apparent from viewing the tapes that my facilitation generally embodied three different roles, each of which provided particular affordances and constraints concerning the progressiveness of the overall discourse. These roles were Instructor, Questioner, and Participant, and each exerted differing levels of control within the lesson study sessions while also impacting the tendency of the group to subscribe to Bereiter's four commitments to progressive discourse.

Instructor Role

Analyzing my lesson study video tapes revealed that I employed consistent discursive moves which could be described as an Instructor role. When in this role I stepped into the discussion as someone with knowledge to share with the group. This role was most often evident at the beginning of each lesson study series and at the beginning of each new stage within the study. These were occasions when participants tended to be unfamiliar with the genre of the

lesson study; therefore, I utilized the Instructor role to explain how lesson study worked, the discussion protocols that we would use, and how our roles differed as compared to traditional professional learning settings. In the early days of the study I included very little of this type of explanation and found that teachers entering the process expected me to provide them with content knowledge to put into practice and/or they felt uncomfortable sharing their current instructional struggles while we searched for the lesson study focus. Briefly stepping into Instructor role at the outset of lesson study helped orient teachers to the goals of lesson study and outlined the group's commitment to participate in progressive discourse during the course of study.

As we transitioned to the planning and debriefing stages of lesson study, my Instructor role functioned to maintain timelines and encourage clear communication during the lesson study process. On these occasions I shared research-based protocols (Hurd & Lewis, 2011) to encourage discussions around collected data with a focus on student learning.

At other times, my Instructor role functioned to provide information to the group. These were occasions when I shared research or content knowledge with the participants about the topic under discussion. For example, in the following exchange a group of second grade teachers was in the initial stage of lesson study and were discussing their students' difficulties writing detailed descriptions. After one teacher described sharing time at the end of her writing workshop, I stepped into Instructor role:

Heather: That is key because so often the share at the end of writing workshop gets left off because, you know, we're late to lunch or whatever, but –

Teacher: And I don't get to do it every day but I try my best.

Heather: Um-hm. But if you can do that, if you can tie the share time to the mini-lesson, and highlight kids who actually apply the mini-lesson, then you will see a lot more results. But then also you make the share time a teaching time. It's not just a chance for every kid to share. But you're using it to reinforce whatever the mini-lesson was. So you're right, that will – really, what you guys are talking about a little bit is transfer. There's a lack of transfer from either mini-lesson to student work, or from oral to written.

My comment was in reaction to the teacher's description of sharing time in her classroom and was an attempt to draw others' attention to the instructional benefits of this particular instructional move. My response was a supporting move in that it elaborated her description and attempted to take the discussion deeper. In this way, serving in the Instructor role by contributing information functioned as what Bereiter (1994) would call an expansion commitment. It served to expand the knowledge available to the group by offering additional propositions and research to the conversation.

However, the teacher's response, "And I don't get to do it every day, but I try my best" revealed her need to clarify her classroom routine after I stated that sharing time is oftentimes a missing component. Her statement was a rejoinder that interrupted the sequence in order to clarify her desire to always include sharing time. This subtle move, which could have easily been overlooked during the actual discussion, was a self-protective response by the teacher to my having stepped into Instructor role and stated that including sharing time at the end of writing workshop "is key" and yet "often…gets left off".

Affordances of Instructor Role. A facilitator stepping into the role of Instructor affords particular advantages to the lesson study process. Perhaps the most apparent benefit lies in providing participants new to lesson study with the guidance and support they need to understand this unique approach to professional learning. Having a facilitator explain the overall process as well as the discussion protocols for observing students and examining student work allows teachers to participate more freely in the analysis and discussions that make up the work of lesson study.

Additionally, the Instructor can contribute knowledge and perspective to enhance the participants' discussion. On occasion I found that teachers had pedagogical or content questions about pertinent topics which they took the opportunity to ask, leading oftentimes to interesting discussions. This contribution is supported by Timperley et al. (2008) who found that professional development that included an outside expert supported increased student outcomes when it introduced new relevant knowledge and skills and challenged existing assumptions.

Finally, the Instructor role can serve to clear up misconceptions held by some or all of the participants in the group. In my long experience as a literacy coach, I have seen how misconceptions about instructional methods, student capabilities or content can hinder progress by creating confusion, miscommunication, or even disagreements among participants. In one of my earliest lesson studies I failed to step into Instructor role when one member of the group expressed very strong views about student learning and also misunderstood the writing workshop process with which the other participants were very familiar. Afterwards, teachers expressed frustration with the discussion and with the member's misconceptions. A clear explanation on my part as the facilitator might have made the experience more productive for the group.

Constraints of Instructor Role. When the facilitator moves into an Instructor role there can be negative impacts on the discussion. When facilitators make a contribution as Instructors, they are immediately positioned as knowledgeable experts by virtue of the supposed authority of the information provided and possibly by the institutional authority accompanying their positions. Teachers can then be positioned as learners receiving information, a stance more common to traditional modes of professional learning. When examining my videotapes, I found that my contributions while in the Instructor role tended to fall into an Initiate-Response-Follow-up (IRF) (Lemke, 1985) pattern of discourse that felt comfortable and therefore difficult to resist. I found that my participation in the discussion almost always increased after I made an instructional comment and resulted in what I termed a "Ping-Pong" exchange in which I inserted myself after every teacher response for the next several turns at talk. After viewing this discourse pattern on video I made concerted efforts to resist the urge to speak. Gradually, I improved my code-switching from Instructor role to Questioner role in handing control of the discussions back to teachers.

Another constraint resulting from the Instructor role can be seen in the exchange described above in which the teacher quickly clarified her implementation of sharing time. Providing information as an Instructor can reinforce a belief in the existence of "correct" instructional choices and therefore suggests that there are "wrong" choices. By sharing research or information imbued with authority, the facilitator may make teachers uncertain about their own instruction and reluctant to make suggestions that might be "wrong." These situations can break Bereiter's commitment to openness and impede the critical examination of participants' beliefs.

A further constraint of stepping into the Instructor role lies in the temptation for the facilitator to provide a solution to the teachers' instructional dilemma. The goal of lesson study is for teachers to participate in an inquiry-learning setting in which they feel free to explore instructional possibilities and directly observe their effects on students. If the facilitator has a strong content knowledge background or a wide range of experience with the topic under discussion, the temptation can be to share a story about how other teachers addressed the problem or to cite research that explains the phenomenon. Furthermore, if the facilitator carries institutional authority outside the group, perhaps as an administrator or district personnel, then what might be intended as a simple idea or suggestion can be interpreted by participants as the correct solution to the dilemma.

Questioner Role

As facilitator I also acted in the role of Questioner within lesson study sessions and found that the discursive moves of the Questioner differed between stages. While my questions during the initial discussion stage were open-ended and intended to support a sense of openness (see Table 5.1), questions during the planning stages tended to be more focused and served to clarify the teaching plan and the intentions of the group. During the debriefing stages, my questions aimed to first focus discussion on student learning from the lesson and then broaden the scope of the discussion to encourage reflection about the overall process. Throughout all stages the overarching goals of lesson study remained, which were to encourage teachers to inquire into student learning and examine the impact of teaching decisions on learning.

Table 5.1 – Questions Asked At Each Lesson Study Stage

Brainstorming stage (ideational focus)	*What are students struggling to learn?* *What misconceptions do the students have?* *Why are some students experiencing success while others are not?*
Planning stage	*What is our goal for this lesson?*

(interpersonal and ideational focus)	*What do we want students to be able to do by the end of the lesson?* *What problems might we anticipate? How can we avoid these?* *What questions can we plan ahead of time to support students?*
Lesson debrief stage (textual focus: cohesion/coherence/ movement across lessons)	*How is our lesson reflected in the students' work?* *Why do we think student X chose to _____?* *Do we seen any patterns?* *What learning did we observe? What instructional moves may have impacted this?*
Overall debrief (meta awareness)	*What have we learned about teaching and learning that applies beyond this particular lesson series?* *Did anything about this lesson challenge your beliefs about how students learn? Confirm those beliefs?* *Reflect for a moment on the big take-aways from this experience. What will you carry with you when you leave?*

My goal when stepping into the Questioner role was to ask questions that would encourage the group to engage in progressive dialogue. Rather than fall into the IRF pattern that Lemke (1985) termed "triadic dialogue" and that felt to me to mimic a game of Ping-Pong, my intent was to initiate discussion with a question and resist the temptation to follow-up. Due to my lack of experience with inquiry-based professional learning, this was a difficult temptation to resist. I found that discussions in which I was able to ask a question and intentionally wait for multiple responses from various teachers felt more like a game of pinball than Ping-Pong in that my question was picked up and sustained across multiple people, sometimes resulting in further questions asked by other participants rather than by me.

Two examples of the Questioner role follow. The first example is excerpted from the lesson planning stage with the second grade teachers mentioned above. The group had chosen to teach the lesson in Lee's classroom. The transcript can be found in Appendix E.

My exchanges with teachers in this excerpt were more frequent than they had been in the preceding brainstorming stage. In this exchange I asked three questions: I demanded a fact from the homeroom teacher by asking, "Because you're saying that when you ask them to do that

they're either writing 'I wonder' or are they just writing statements?"; I asked for an opinion from the group by asking, "What would we want kids to do here [pointing to Active Engagement on document] in order to prepare them for the Work Session?"; and I asked a clarifying question: "The question is, so how critical is the writing piece? If you – can they do it orally and they can't get it on paper, or they can't do it orally either?" The types of questions I asked during this stage were different than in the brainstorming stage in that these questions narrowed the focus by giving choices (first and third questions above) or making statements and then monitoring ("Right?") or asking clarifying questions (third question) whereas the questions I asked in the brainstorming stage were more open-ended (see Table 5.1). Focused questioning during the lesson planning stage served to clarify the issues and narrow the scope of the discussion based initially on Lee's observations, as the homeroom teacher, and later on our own observations for the follow-up lessons.

In general, I found that the narrowness of the questions varied depending on the group of teachers and how much they agreed or disagreed with each other or participated in the discussion. In the role of Questioner, the facilitator aims to support Bereiter's (1994) expansion commitment to increase the number and scope of propositions the group can agree upon, as well as the empirical testability commitment to bring evidence to bear upon the group's findings. My questions about students' current performance in the first and third questions above were an effort toward this end, although they might have been more effective with the presence of actual student work.

At first perusal, this exchange seemed to me to adhere to an IRF pattern due to the frequency of my participation. On closer examination, however, my first four turns at talk were initiating moves and my subsequent turns were responses to others' contributions. In turn 11,

Kay asked, “Would that be turn and talk? Turn and talk about a question?” This clarifying question shifted the conversation from being led by me. Joy and Kay then asked other clarifying questions, all of which sustained the overall dialogue and positioned me as responding to them. Even though I inserted myself between almost every teacher’s responses, I did not control the direction of the discourse.

As we moved more deeply into actually planning the lesson and tossing out ideas, several teachers made clarifying moves, which served the purpose of making sure everyone was on the same page and in agreement about the direction of the lesson. For instance, Joy asked, “I wonder if [students would] even recognize, you know, statements from questions?” These clarifying moves added to the progressiveness of the exchange, as did the developing moves that served to elaborate or extend previous comments. After my initiating moves at the beginning of the exchange, several teachers developed each other’s comments. For example, Pat extended my suggestion about the active engagement segment of the lesson by suggesting, “You could even show them how to write it.” Sue then elaborated by commenting, “That would be good modeling.” These interactions contributed to the progressiveness of the dialogue as teachers picked up on and expanded one another’s ideas, thus demonstrating a commitment to Bereiter’s mutual understanding and expansion commitments.

Overall in my lesson study video data, I found that teachers rarely confronted or challenged each other in discussions. While Eggins and Slade (1997) state that confrontations tend to sustain dialogue because they invite further negotiation, studies have shown that teachers tend to maintain a collegial atmosphere and avoid critiquing one another (Murray et al., 2009; Timperley et al., 2008). Joy’s move in line 21 is classified as a clarification when she asked, “Would they recog-, I wonder if they’d even recognize, you know, statements from questions?

Where you could have a discussion orally and talk about is this a question or is this a statement. I don't know." Had she continued with her original question ("Would they recognize the difference?") it could have been interpreted as a more confrontational challenge to the homeroom teacher. Joy likely changed her question midstream into the less confrontational "I wonder" so as not to appear to challenge the students' capabilities, which in turn could be interpreted as questioning their teacher's effectiveness. This tendency to avoid confrontations maintains the collegiality of the group but reinforces Bereiter's findings that adhering to the openness commitment is a difficult task.

A second example of the Questioner role came from the debriefing stage with the same group of second grade teachers. In this exchange we reflected on the lesson that Sherry had just taught to Lee's class. The goal had been to move students away from "I wonder" questions. A transcript of the exchange can be found in Appendix F.

The questions I asked at this stage were intended to focus the group discussion on possible connections between the instructional elements we had chosen to include in the lesson and the student results we observed. I opened with an opinion question by asking, "Do you think that there's anything they're doing differently because of the lesson or is this what you would have expected even without the lesson?" This question was not directly answered by the teachers as they instead discussed the students' reactions to an unfamiliar teacher. In turn 11 Kay picked up my earlier question and rephrased it more directly than I had: "Do you think had she not taught the lesson and just asked them to ask questions about the book would there have been more 'I wonders'?" This put Kay in a strong role and refocused the conversation. Later in the exchange I asked for an opinion ("So what made the difference?") and a fact ("Was it anything about the lesson that we could point to and say, 'This part made a difference'?") in an effort to

focus the conversation on specific elements of the lesson. I was attempting to support the progressiveness of the discourse by asking for empirical testability, as recommended by Bereiter (1994). In each case, however, teachers provided brief answers ("Practice" and "The chart for sure") but did not extend or elaborate each other's answers.

It is interesting to note that each of my attempts to focus the conversation on deeper topics was interrupted directly or indirectly by Sherry, who had just taught the lesson. In line 3 Sherry redirected the conversation away from the potential impact of the lesson and onto the students' reaction to having her as a teacher. In line 28, immediately after Kay mentioned the power of modeling, which was a potentially rich topic of discussion, Sherry deflected attention to an error she made while teaching. Each time Sherry either expressed doubt about her teaching or brought attention to a mistake she had made.

Sherry's deflections and the group's willingness to offer compliments are possibly an indication of the "culture of nice" (Macdonald, 2011) that permeates professional discourse in education. As reflected in Joy's unwillingness to appear critical of another teacher's students in the first Questioner example above, institutional norms typically dictate that teachers not criticize each other and instead offer compliments or silence, thus censoring honest dialogue. In this particular situation, Sherry had just been placed in a vulnerable position by teaching a lesson in front of her peers, thus prompting her colleagues to reassure her. Overall in this exchange, teachers extended and elaborated each other's reassurances to Sherry more than their responses to my questions about the lesson. Unfortunately, these interruptions prevented the group discussion from drilling deeper into possible causes and effects of the lesson on student work.

Affordances of Questioner Role. In many ways Questioner can be seen as the main role of the facilitator in the quest for honest, progressive dialogue in lesson study sessions. By asking

intentional, thought-provoking questions, the facilitator has the opportunity to stimulate conversation and prompt participants to reflect upon visible learning effects for students.

The questions asked by the facilitator can fulfill several goals. Questions such as, “What are some other ways we might address the goal?” can encourage participation and create a space for differing opinions to be offered and examined by the group. By inviting the participation of all group members, the facilitator can draw in reticent teachers and expand the scope of ideas available to the group. As discussions move from topic to topic and the dialogue changes focus, the facilitator can make note of potentially rich areas for discussion and redirect the group to revisit earlier topics not fully explored. For example, my observation, “The other thing is that you did not get them to help you during the modelling,” was an example of an effort to revisit the idea of teacher modelling, which had been brought up by Kay but not sustained by the other teachers. The facilitator can also present questions that focus the discussion on beliefs and assumptions that participants might not otherwise address. In this way teachers can be challenged to think about their existing practice in new ways (Timperley et al., 2008).

Acting in the Questioner role also has the opportunity to enhance the interaction sequences within inquiry discussions. Over the course of the three-year study I worked with a wide range of teachers, grade levels, and professional learning groups, all of whom demonstrated different dynamics and degrees of comfort with engaging in inquiry-based professional learning. Occasionally a group quickly dove deep into challenging each other and examining assumptions, but more commonly teachers were uncertain of their roles and thus less likely to initiate or sustain a topic, particularly when it involved students struggling in their classrooms. In these cases I usually initiated the discussions and my interactions followed an IRF pattern for a period of time. The sooner I could move from this Ping-Pong format, in which I interjected after every

teacher response, towards what I termed the “pinball” format, in which teachers took up the topic and responded to each other, the more quickly ideas were offered and mutual understanding was built. Aspiring to this “pinball” interaction between teachers meant repressing my own urge to speak, even with seemingly innocuous murmurs of agreement that nevertheless resulted in my higher profile role in the discussion. I also found that when conversation appeared to dwindle, simply re-voicing earlier comments with, “So I think I heard you say…” revived the conversation by inviting teachers to extend and elaborate their statements.

Constraints of Questioner Role. A limitation of the Questioner role can be seen in the temptation for the facilitator to dominate the discussion by conforming to an IRF pattern of discourse. The familiarity of this structure in education can lead both facilitator and participants to rely on the prominent leadership of the facilitator, thus positioning teachers in a more passive role. The goal of lesson study, however, is for teachers to engage in inquiry and drive their own learning. A critical struggle for the facilitator, therefore, is to gauge the level of guidance the group requires. It can be difficult to determine, for instance, whether a tangential conversation topic is beneficial to the group, or why some participants appear reluctant to suggest ideas, or how to acknowledge teachers’ ideas without allowing one to dominate the others. This is a delicate balance which I found easier to achieve by attempting to err on the side of less control, stepping up my influence if needed. The quandary of how much control to exert as facilitator is perhaps the most critical issue in guiding an inquiry group.

Participant Role

The facilitation role that provides the least amount of influence on the group is that of Participant. In this role the facilitator interacts as a co-researcher with the group by asking genuine questions and sharing ideas that ideally carry no more weight than other participants’.

The degree to which the latter is possible depends upon the facilitator's role outside the group – an administrator or district representative may find that their institutional authority shapes the extent to which suggested ideas are taken as either suggestions or as the "correct" choice.

Creating the level playing field in which the lesson study facilitator can act as Participant is supported by crafting the lesson in ways that allow it to become a common knowledge-artifact (Wells, 1999). When all teachers have access to revising and editing the lesson through a program such as Google docs, participants have more control over decisions and the facilitator need not act as scribe. The lesson plan as object provides a focus for teachers to negotiate the mutual understanding and empirical testability commitments recommended by Bereiter (1994).

In my study it seemed much easier to slip into the Participant role with groups of teachers familiar with the lesson study process. Once participants had taken part in several lesson study cycles, they understood the goals and expectations of the approach and needed no instruction on roles or protocols. They began incorporating the questions from each stage into their discussions as they negotiated the lesson's goals and examined student work. In these cases teachers naturally took over the tasks typically undertaken by the facilitator, leaving the facilitator the main task of providing outside perspective. In Japan, lesson study often includes such a person who serves as "knowledgeable other" by observing the lesson and subsequent teacher discussion then offering final comments about the process (Takahashi, 2014). As an inquiry approach, the goal of lesson study is that teachers eventually guide the process themselves.

With groups newer to the lesson study process I found it easiest to slip into Participant role during the lesson debrief stage when teachers shared specific student data gathered from the lesson. As the facilitator I found I could also share my observations, genuine questions, and

theories about instruction and student learning. In the excerpt below, the group of second grade teachers shared their observations after the lesson had been taught a second time.

Heather What did the little ponytail girl [write on her sticky]? What was her name?

Sue She said – uh, Lacey – um, she said, she was reading Magic Treehouse, she said [reading from sticky note], "When Jack saw a shark come to them how did he feel?" And she started to write, "He felt scared because" and then she went back and she erased "he felt" and changed it to "I think he was scared" because she didn't have that –

Heather And actually it was because she had, in order to spell the word *because* she looked at the chart. And that made her see the other words ["I think"]

Sue Yes

Heather And that's when she went back and erased.

Sue And she said [reading], "I think he was scared because he was going to be killed by the shark." And then her second question she started, but it was pretty much the same question. She said, "When Jack and Annie saw the hammerhead, how did they feel?" So, I mean, it was the same. But she didn't have time to answer it.

Heather She might have thought she only had to answer feeling questions

Pat Yeah, yeah

Heather And that scene was all going to be about the shark I guess.

Sherry See, that's what I thought Todd was doing, just asking the same [questions].

During this stage teachers shared their observations about the small group of students they had chosen to watch during the lesson. Sue had collected the students' sticky note responses and was reading them aloud to the group. In this excerpt, I asked Sue to read one student's response and then shared my observations about how the student had revised her work by using the chart created in the lesson. When it became apparent that her two questions were very similar, I made an inference about how she might have misunderstood the directions. This brief exchange fell in the midst of many observations shared by teachers as they reviewed their notes. In this instance I was serving as a co-researcher alongside the teachers by simply sharing my own gathered data and wondering aloud about the reasons behind them. These instances of serving in the Participant role allow the facilitator to support the commitments to empirical testability and expansion of ideas by sharing observations and suggesting ideas on the same plane as the other participants.

Analysis of the transcripts for this lesson study revealed that I moved into the Participant role almost entirely during the lesson debriefing and rarely at any other time. This was likely because this was the group's first experience with lesson study and I therefore spent much more time in the Questioner and Instructor roles during the other lesson study stages. In general, the frequency with which I was able to embody this role often depended on the progress of the overall session. In cases where the group of teachers was having difficulty deciding on a focus for the lesson or was experiencing misunderstandings between group members I moved into Questioner role to guide discussion, or even Instructor role to explain a process.

Affordances of Participant Role. In some ways, stepping into the Participant role can be a relief for a facilitator. It oftentimes means that the dialogue is progressing well on its own without the need for an Instructor or Questioner. In these cases teachers are sustaining the flow

of the conversation and adhering to many or most of Bereiter's commitments for progressive dialogue.

Palmer (M. Palmer, personal communication, February 2, 2016) likens lesson study facilitation to building a campfire: after carefully setting up the fuel and starting the fire, the facilitator may need to blow on the embers in the beginning to help it spark before being able to sit back and enjoy the bonfire once it takes off. In some situations, however, the facilitator may need to stoke the fire with more fuel or work harder to keep the embers burning. The goal, however, is for the fire to sustain itself and for the facilitator to step back into a less influential role.

Constraints of Participant Role. A potential pitfall of stepping into the Participant role can come from remaining a Participant when a stronger role is needed. In one lesson study that I facilitated the group chose to study how to teach students to analyze theme in fictional stories. In my determination to research how our district reading assessment asked questions about theme I moved entirely into Participant mode and forgot to lead the group. The videotape showed me single-mindedly flipping through the assessment for an extended time as the teachers talked of field trips and told student stories. In another instance I intentionally tried to take a less influential role in an effort to encourage the teachers to facilitate themselves, but the first day of lesson study ended without a lesson plan, requiring that we delay our teaching. While the Participant role is an admirable goal to aim for, the facilitator should be willing to shift between roles when needed.

Discussion

This study sought to understand the roles assumed by a lesson study facilitator and, more specifically, how the facilitator occupied those roles and shifted between them in order to

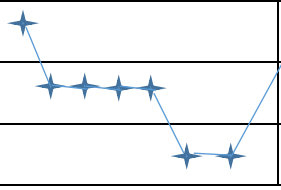
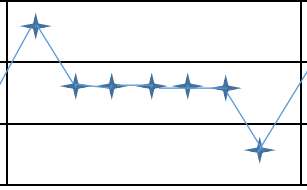
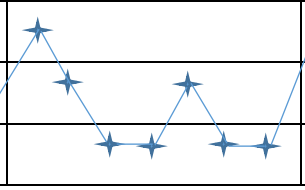
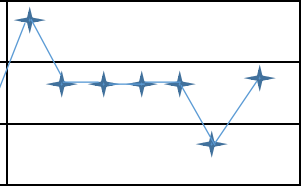
support progressive discourse. While very few studies have been conducted about facilitation of lesson study, Lewis (2016) found that novice facilitators struggled with managing the use of time within lesson study sessions, negotiating teachers' discomfort and resistance to the unfamiliar format, and stepping back to allow teachers to lead the process. Lewis stated, "Facilitators struggle to define for themselves a form of leadership that is, on the one hand credible and valued, and on the other hand respectful of teachers' choices in directing the process" (p. 10). Data from my study also indicated that decisions surrounding the degree of influence the facilitator wielded were a continual concern. At the beginning of this study I struggled a great deal with defining my role within this unfamiliar professional landscape, feeling guilty at times for increasing my influence when I stepped into Instructor role. However, over time I came to realize that lesson study facilitation is multi-faceted, and that each role simultaneously allows and constrains the progressiveness of the discourse in unique ways.

The three roles discovered in this study offered me varying degrees of control as the facilitator within the lesson study cycle. When I stepped into the Instructor role I assumed a high level of control and positioned myself in a more directive stance as provider of information. While I eventually wanted teachers to drive the lesson study process themselves, serving in this role allowed me to orient teachers to the process and promote the concept of progressive dialogue. Perhaps the most influential facilitation role was that of Questioner, as it allowed me to influence the discourse while still allowing the teachers' responses to drive the discussion. By asking thoughtful, well-placed questions I was able to support open dialogue, expansion of ideas, and mutual understanding between participants. Instances when I acted as Participant provided me with the least amount of control and positioned teachers as directors of their own professional learning while I served as co-researcher alongside them. In these cases, the teachers supported

each other towards engaging in progressive discourse by questioning each other, pressing for empirical testability, and striving for mutual understanding.

An important question for this study involved the factors that might cause facilitators to shift between roles. Two major influences on these shifts were the structure of lesson study and the context of each lesson study situation. Shifts due to the structure of lesson study can be seen in Table 5.4, which shows a rough illustration of what I found to be the major shifts in roles over the course of the four main stages of lesson study when working with teachers new to the lesson study process.

Table 5.2: Major Role Shifts During Lesson Study

	Brainstorming	*Lesson planning*	*Lesson Debrief*	*Overall Debrief*
I				
Q				
P				

Each stage of the lesson study began with the facilitator stepping into the Instructor role to explain the goals and protocols for that stage. This shift allowed me to encourage progressive dialogue by explaining Bereiter's (1994) commitments to the participants. I then stepped down to Questioner role fairly quickly to encourage discussion among participants and remained in that role for much of the brainstorming stage, as teachers discussed their problems of practice and narrowed their focus, as well as the lesson planning stage, when I asked how suggested instructional strategies might address the lesson goals. My goal as Questioner was to stimulate discussion in order to encourage the group to commit to the expansion of ideas and sustain topics by clarifying and developing their own and others' ideas. It was important for me to avoid the

temptation to insert myself in the discussion using an IRF dialogic pattern and thus impede the opportunity for teachers to contribute progressive dialogue.

While the facilitator might step into Participant role at any time, I found that the lesson debrief stage was the most natural time to share observations and genuine questions alongside the teachers. The final overall debrief was a chance for participants to reflect on what they had learned from the cycle and while I also shared reflections, the major goal was to broaden participants' reflections beyond the immediate lesson to the larger implications for ongoing instruction.

The decision about when to shift roles is not as simple as Table 5.4 might imply, however. While the structure of lesson study stages did affect these shifts, another strong influence on the facilitator role was the contextual situations in which each lesson study cycle was embedded. As Fairclough (1989, 1992b) described, every discursive situation is dialectically related to the institutional and social practices surrounding it. Lesson study cycles exist as a "countercultural" (Lewis, 2016) approach to professional development situated within an institutional context that is increasingly standardized and stress-inducing for teachers (Brown, 2012; Markhow & Pieters, 2012; Pearson, 2007). The discussion topics within each lesson study cycle are dependent upon the teachers who participate, who are in turn influenced by the institutional and societal contexts surrounding them. The institutionalized "culture of nice" that was seen in teachers' reluctance to criticize each other or push deeper into difficult conversations in this study is perhaps one example of institutional discursive practices influencing lesson study discourse.

The context surrounding each lesson study cycle impacts how the facilitator interacts with the group. Group dynamics are impacted by the experience level of the teachers, their

personal histories with each other, their relationships with the administration, and the expectations communicated by the principal, district or state. The facilitator's decisions to assume particular roles are dependent upon these group dynamics. For instance, the facilitator may need to step into Instructor role more often if teachers lack experience or openly resist the process or each other. "Conversation is *always* a struggle over power – but the struggle goes 'underground', being disguised by the *apparent* equality of the casual context" (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 65). Different than a casual conversation between peers, lesson study is a designated form of professional development and thus carries with it the unequal power distribution between facilitator and participants implied by the educational institution, regardless of the inquiry-based nature of its structure.

An opportunity for further research lies in comparing lesson study discussions between novice participants, of which this study primarily consisted, and teachers comfortable with the lesson study process to determine if and to what extent the facilitator's role might change. In addition, analysis of these teacher discussions might reveal whether experience with the lesson study process allows teachers to break through the "culture of nice" and engage in the genuine conversations characteristic of progressive dialogue.

Finally, the facilitation roles uncovered in this study apply beyond the lesson study process. Leaders of any sort – principals, instructional coaches, teacher leaders, parent liaisons – would benefit from examining the ways in which they lead others and share control as they interact with others. Similarly, teachers facilitating student discussions might study the ways in which shifting between the roles of Instructor, Questioner, and Participant changes the dynamics of discourse and invites the group to engage in progressive discourse. Oftentimes, the tendency of leaders is to remain in Instructor role, retaining a high level of control while doing much of

the cognitive work of the group. Varying our roles, and the degree of control that accompanies them, may be a way to empower others and contribute to more progressive discourse for all.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Overview

This chapter begins with a review of the overall study and the embedded three articles. It then reviews the overarching research questions for the study and connects them with each article before synthesizing and discussing findings for the research questions. Finally, implications for future research are considered before ending with my final thoughts.

This participatory action research (PAR) multi-case study involved four coaches, including myself, engaging in an inductive exploration of coaching discourse. Over the course of three years we each videotaped ourselves as we interacted with teachers in a range of contexts and structures, with our initial intention being to simply observe how our interactions with teachers were impacted by our discursive choices. Each coach met with me individually approximately every 4-6 weeks and the group met as a whole a few times each year to discuss our observations. Over the course of the study each of us observed and chose to focus on different aspects of our discursive interactions with teachers. While a great deal of data about each coach was collected over the course of the study, the three articles in the dissertation analyzed only a small portion of the data, leaving a large collection of data for potential future research. All coaches who participated in the study are not necessarily represented in the included articles.

Early in the study I co-authored the first article, “Courage to Love: Coaching Dialogically Toward Teacher Empowerment,” with Michelle, one of the study coaches. The article, written for and later published by the practitioner-oriented journal *The Reading Teacher*, described our journey during the first year of the study as we discovered the work of Paulo Freire (1993) and discussed the implications of his conditions for dialogue on our work as coaches. Freire argued that thoughtful dialogue in which ideas are exchanged and carefully considered is necessary for individuals’ empowerment and that participants in this type of dialogue must agree to embody the conditions of love, humility, hope, faith in humankind, and critical thinking. Michelle and I found these conditions were equally valid for the coach-teacher relationships in which we engaged and had captured on video. Our article described our growing understandings of Freire’s approach and the ways in which we applied each of his conditions to our coaching work.

The second article, entitled “Changing Language, Changing Beliefs: A Case Study in Coach Reflexivity,” used systemic functional linguistics to examine Mandy’s appraisal of teachers both in her discourse about teachers and during her interactions with teachers. The article analyzed excerpts of Mandy’s discourse over the course of the three year study and illuminated ways in which her appraisal of teachers changed over time. Mandy’s reflexivity regarding the impact of her discourse was viewed through Brookfield’s (1995) four lenses of critical reflection: an autobiographical look at oneself as a teacher and a learner, as well as through students’ eyes, colleague’s perceptions, and theoretical literature. The article described Mandy’s changing views and applications of directive and responsive approaches to coaching as well as her changing beliefs about teachers’ and her own capabilities.

The third article, “Leading Lesson Study: Navigating Facilitation Roles in Inquiry-Based Professional Learning,” utilized my own data gathered during the course of the study as I worked

with teachers implementing Japanese lesson study. I described my struggle with handing over control to teachers in this inquiry-based professional learning that differed significantly from more traditional approaches in which the coach is viewed as an expert presenter of knowledge. The goal of lesson study is for teachers to delve deeply into an examination of their practice, which corresponds well with Bereiter's (1994) idea of progressive discourse, dialogue that moves beyond the sharing of opinions towards progress in the sharing of ideas that lead to new understandings. SFL analysis of speech functions in videotaped recordings of my coaching sessions allowed me to see how I enacted three common roles of the facilitator – Instructor, Questioner, and Participant – and how these roles impacted the progressiveness of the dialogue. The article described the allowances and constraints of each role during lesson study sessions and the ways in which the facilitator might shift between them.

Revisiting Research Questions

In this section I return to the research questions from the study and connect the specific research questions from each article back to these overarching questions. This study developed from my curiosity about discourse and the significant impact that seemingly minor differences in language could have on my coaching interactions with teachers. Thus, my first research question was: How are interactions between coaches and teachers shaped by coaches' discourse? Once the structure of my study began to take shape, my second question arose: What happens, in terms of reflexivity, when coaches engage in a dialogic process about coaching discourse and practice?

The first research question was addressed in each of the articles in the study. In the first article, Michelle and I chose to examine how our language choices served to empower or disempower the teachers with whom we worked. In the second article, which examined Mandy's appraisal of teachers, I considered how the coach discursively constructed the identities of the

teachers with whom she worked. Finally, in the third article about facilitating lesson study, I asked how the facilitator occupied and shifted between specific roles in order to support progressive discourse during lesson study. Each of these questions took a slightly different perspective of the overall question about how interactions between coaches and teachers are shaped by coaches' discourse.

The second research question was directly addressed only in the second article, "Changing Language, Changing Beliefs." In that article I asked, "How is coach reflexivity impacted when coaches view videos of their coaching interactions and participate in collegial coaching discussions about those recordings?" While the first and third articles did not overtly refer to this second research question, elements of reflexivity were still evident in Mandy's and my discussion of the impact of Freire's conditions for dialogue on our practice and in my growing understanding of my role in lesson study. These implicit and explicit realizations of reflexivity contribute to the findings outlined below.

Summary of Findings

The following findings are syntheses of the findings outlined in each of the three articles.

Coaches' discourse

Finding 1: Interactions between coaches and teachers are shaped by the ideologies embedded within coaches' discourse.

This finding is directly related to the first research question and yet also addresses the second research question regarding coaching reflexivity. Analysis from each of the articles included in the study revealed ways in which our ideologies were reflected in our discourse, and how changes in our discourse resulted in shifts in our ideologies and vice versa. For example, in the first article Michelle and I realized Freire's conditions for dialogue were often not evident in

our discourse. As I learned humility in my interactions with teachers and as Michelle created spaces for critical thinking with teachers, our ideologies about our roles as coaches and how power was shared began to change. This shift was even more evident in the second article, which outlined Mandy's changing discourse and ideologies over the course of the three-year study. In addition, the third article described my shifting understanding of professional learning structures that allow teachers to direct the focus and how this shift in ideology impacted my discourse with teachers as I facilitated lesson study sessions.

These findings highlight the importance of taking a critical approach to discourse analysis as a way of surfacing hidden assumptions about power and positioning in education (Fairclough, 1989, 1992b). The coaches involved in this study, myself included, began our journey not understanding the connection between our discourse and our beliefs and ideologies. Over time as we watched videotapes of our body positioning, facial expressions, physical orientations, pronoun usage, choices of metaphors and other discursive elements, we began to understand Butts' et al. (2004, p. 288) assertion, "It is not that language can be used ideologically, it is that the very use of language is ideological." Our discourse subtly positioned ourselves and teachers in ways that had previously been invisible to us.

Fairclough (1989) argued that our ideological assumptions are often buried under the surface so as to appear to be "common sense," thus remaining unexamined. As we watched and re-watched ourselves interacting with teachers, we began to question our common sense notions about coaching. Ideological assumptions, according to Fairclough (1989), can perpetuate unequal power relations and we found this to be true within our coaching discourse. For example, Mandy's initial framing of questions to teachers in yes/no structures beginning with "Can you" or "Have you" subtly revealed her lack of belief in their capabilities. As her ideological

assumptions about teachers changed over time, her discourse mirrored her changing beliefs. Each of us in the study was forced to examine and evaluate the ways in which our discourse revealed ideologies about our roles, teachers' capabilities, and our place in the educational hierarchy. Coaches occupy a critical space in education, in every sense of the word. Coaches can be an important support to teachers as they grow in their profession, however as coaches we must be aware of the power inherent in our positions and the ways we communicate with teachers.

Finding 2: Coaches' discourse is influenced by the institutional pressures exerted on coaches.

The findings of this research demonstrate that the pressures of the educational institution, whether it be from local school systems or the larger political arena, noticeably impact coaches' discourse. Coaches often act as a link between teachers and administrators and thus feel pressure from both sides. For instance, my first article described how a group of teachers, frustrated with limited power to make decisions within their classrooms, used the power they did have to arrive late to meetings with the coach and to voice complaints. On the other hand, coaches may feel compelled by administration to assist in modifying teachers' instructional practices or turning around a failing school, demands which are then subtly transmitted in coaches' appraisal of teachers' efforts and abilities as seen in Mandy's discourse in the second article.

In addition, ideological assumptions about the roles coaches fill are influenced by the messages received from administrators and policy-makers about what it means to be a coach and what "success" looks like within a school. My struggle in the third article with clarifying my position as a facilitator of lesson study was a result of the tension I felt between the unfamiliar, inquiry-based professional learning format of lesson study and the more traditional, top-down methods typically expected within education. Fairclough (1989; 1992a; 2014) might argue that

my struggle resulted from a shift in the genres and styles typically utilized within professional learning to mediate between abstract institutional structures and the concrete goals of teachers. Lesson study, as an inquiry-based form of learning, positioned teachers in ways that did not fit the institutional expectations to which I had become accustomed. The struggle was evident in my discourse as I strove to adjust my assumptions and therefore my discourse by releasing control to teachers.

The influence of institutional pressures on coaching discourse could also be seen in the tension felt by each coach participating in the study when choosing between directive and responsive approaches to coaching. Research varies on whether coaches should choose an approach or balance between the two (Armstrong, 2012; Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; Gibson, 2006; Heineke, 2013; Hunt & Handsfield, 2013; Ippolito, 2010), and during conversations with each coach in the study a consistent theme emerged regarding their difficulty in deciding how to approach interactions with teachers. All three coaches worked at Title 1 schools with high poverty rates, two of which scored in the bottom 10% of the state, and thus they each experienced pressure to improve scores from federal, state, and district levels. These institutional demands on the teachers and coaches then were recontextualized in the coaches' discourse as ideological assumptions about roles and capabilities.

Together, the above findings suggest that coaches would benefit from becoming more aware of the ways their ideological assumptions and pressures from institutional expectations impact their discourse as they work with teachers. Professional learning for coaches might include support on balancing directive and responsive approaches to coaching, as well as ways to identify and address the ideological assumptions evident in their discourse. Exercises for this

professional learning might include elements of reflexivity found to be successful in the findings below.

Reflexivity

Finding 3: Coaches become increasingly critically reflective by videotaping themselves and engaging in reflective dialogue.

Analysis of the data shows that the process of reviewing our videotaped coaching interactions and then reflecting with colleagues about the results had an impact on our awareness of our ideological assumptions. The first article revealed Michelle's and my new understandings early in the study of the impact of the conditions surrounding dialogue and our growing realization of the ways these conditions were missing in our interactions with teachers. Mandy's reflexivity regarding the impact of her discourse was evident in the second article when she stated, "I've also changed a lot of things that I do also. And I've been more reflective myself and shared that with [teachers]. I've asked more open-ended questions and allowed them to talk more and me less." Mandy attributed these changes to the regular conversations we had in the study as we viewed each other's videotapes.

In addition, field notes from discussions with Kay and Rachel revealed a theme of growing personal awareness over the course of the study. Watching themselves work with teachers made them aware of the subtle messages they sent with body language, the impact of particular questioning structures, and the influence of emotional stress on the tendency to be more directive. Kay described how the study impacted her practice as a coach:

> I have slowed way down and have become a better listener. I don't worry so much about having an answer, but instead, I have been more concerned about really listening to the teacher and what she/he wants. I realize now that my job is

> to empower teachers to make their own decisions and to improve on their skills, not to have them become a mini-me.

Likewise, Rachel also felt that participating in the study made her more reflective as a coach: "In reflecting through the videos, I feel like I have grown in the choice of words that I use, and it has helped to have a core group of individuals to help me reflect on my language as a coach!" These findings corroborate the small amount of research that has demonstrated benefits from teachers and coaches reviewing their videotaped practice (Bradley et al., 2013; Hill, Beseigel, Mitchell & Herlihy, 2014; Knight, 2014; Marker & D'Onfrio, 2011). The findings suggest that viewing oneself on videotape combined with dialogic discussion with one or more colleagues can significantly impact coaches' reflexivity as well as their practice.

Implications for Future Research

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of coaches' discourse on their interactions with teachers as they engaged in a dialogical, reflexive process of videotaping themselves and participated in collegial discussions about their self-observations. While findings indicated the process resulted in increased awareness of discourse on the part of coaches, one acknowledged missing perspective is that of teachers. Data collected for this study focused entirely on the coaches and their interpretation of the effects of their discourse on coaching interactions. Therefore, a potential focus for future research might be to include teacher perspectives about the effects of particular coaching discursive moves. For instance, as a coach's questioning shifts from closed to open structures, as Mandy's did in article two, how did this impact teachers' views of collaborative planning? Similarly, what are teachers' thoughts on the differing roles of the facilitator during lesson study and how might these roles influence teachers'

participation or understanding of the topic? Broadening the data base to include teachers' voices would add a more nuanced perspective.

Secondly, while videotaping oneself and reflecting on the results has been a reflexive process for over 20 years with the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (Cowan & Goldhaber, 2015), the practice has recently become increasingly popular as a method of coaching and self-reflection (Bradley et al. ,2013; Hill, Beseigel, Mitchell & Herlihy, 2014; Knight, 2014; Marker & D'Onfrio, 2011) with business models such as Edthena (www.edthena.com) and Iris (www.irisconnect.com) catering to video-coaching. Thus, one area of potential future research would expand beyond the bounds of this study of coaching discourse and into the effectiveness of video self-reflection with teachers. Little research has focused on the effects of teachers and coaches engaging in video-coaching or on teachers choosing to review their practice in peer-based video clubs (Bradley et al., 2013; Marker & D'Onfrio, 2011). The results of my small study indicated that coaches felt the process impacted their coaching discourse and practice, thus the field is ripe for exploration of this growing trend with classroom teachers.

Thirdly, very little research is available combining the use of critical systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and coaching discourse. SFL allows researchers to explore the ideas and power embedded within discourse and is thus an appropriate tool for examining multiple aspects of coaching discourse. For example, in what ways are institutional discourses about particular initiatives such as Common Core Standards adoption represented in coaches' discourse and does this change during the course of implementation? In what ways do teachers take up coaches' discourses related to topics they consistently discuss, such as growth mindset or Common Core Standards? How and in what ways does new coaches' discourse change over time? These

questions represent a small fraction of the potential research topics possible with the combination of critical SFL and coaching research.

Finally, the data collected in this study has implications for the continuation of my own research. With data on four coaches collected over the course of the three-year study, the three articles included above only begin to touch the surface of potential research. For instance, I used appraisal theory to examine Mandy's discourse in the second article, but I am eager to do the same with Kay and Rachel as well. Both of these coaches have unique ways of interacting and relating with the teachers with whom they work, and while I have a sense that Kay's self-deprecation endears her to teachers and Rachel's folksy metaphors make her more relatable, analysis with SFL will allow me to tease apart their discourse and know for sure. I am also interested in continuing my research on Japanese lesson study to learn more about teachers' perspectives as well as how sessions differ when conducted with teachers familiar with the process as compared to the newcomers to lesson study represented by my current data. Finally, I am interested in the practical aspects of our group's "video club" and what elements the study coaches found particularly helpful that we might communicate to other coaches interested in the process.

Implications for Coaching

The roots of this study are buried deep in my early years of teaching and coaching. As a classroom teacher, coaches had asked to bring new teachers to visit my reading workshop and principals had requested that I present at parent nights. I felt that my ideas were honored and I had valid ideas to contribute. In short, I was an empowered teacher. This understanding of myself developed as a result of the ways people treated me, the ways people talked to and with

and even about me. I wanted to become an instructional coach in order to support other teachers in these same ways.

And yet. When I became a coach it seemed that there were many obstacles to creating the egalitarian spaces I yearned for: the overtly hierarchical structures and routines permeating many schools that made some voices seem more valued than others, the institutional pressures felt by schools to constantly achieve at higher and better levels, the extremely wide variety of interpretations of the role of a coach, and the daily stress and pressure that prevented self-reflection. I know of many coaches who felt the same way, trapped between their vision of what they would like coaching to be and the constricting reality.

The foundations of this study are built upon Freire's concept of critical theory because of its focus on action for social justice and the creation of egalitarian cultures in which all voices are valued. Literacy coaches, as they straddle the divide between teachers and educational leadership, have the responsibility to attempt to create egalitarian cultures within schools so that they become empowering places for learners of all ages. When people feel valued and safe, we all benefit from the multiplicity of voices at the table. What actions does this study suggest coaches might take that could open up school spaces to be more egalitarian, inviting places to work? The findings of this study point to the importance of community building, discourse strategies, and enhanced reflexivity for instructional coaches in schools.

Communal, Dialogical Spaces

The word "community" implies a shared space in which people feel safe and secure. The coaches in this study, myself included, wanted to create such spaces and yet we began the study unaware of the ways in which our discourse unintentionally eroded teachers' trust and confidence. Mandy's initially asking teachers, "Can you…" and "Have you…" subtly called into

question her belief in their capabilities. My tendency to talk at length and guide lesson study conversations created asymmetrical relationships, implying that some opinions mattered more than others.

Coaches have the responsibility to create spaces within schools in which teachers feel a sense of community, a willingness to share ideas, and the safety to disagree with one another and have that disagreement honored rather than avoided. Whether we use Freire's (1993) dialogical conditions of love, hope, faith in humankind, humility and critical thinking, or Bereiter's (1994) commitments to progressive discourse to frame our work, coaches have an obligation to create oases of safety amid the institutional pressure and sometimes fear felt by teachers. Coaches can support teachers in ways that allow all voices to be considered and celebrated for the broad perspectives they bring. Freire argued for open-mindedness by asking, "How can I dialogue if I always project ignorance onto others and never perceive my own?" Brookfield (1995) agreed, stating that our natural tendency is to reflect with likeminded people and thus simply confirm our existing views rather than broadening them.

The ease with which coaches are able to create these communal spaces depends heavily upon the leadership of the school. Principals set the tone of a school, and whether that tone is one of fear, comradery, or laissez-faire leadership, the coach must work within the circumstances in which they find themselves. In some situations, creation of a communal atmosphere wherein all voices are valued will be counteractive to the prevailing tone of the school, making the coach's job more difficult. However, when coaches value teachers' perspectives, that belief will be communicated in subtle ways, regardless of the surrounding school culture. By creating communal spaces in schools, coaches can support the expansion of ideas and a sense of confidence in the value of all perspectives.

Reflexive Spaces

All of the coaches participating in this study felt the benefits of having created a space in which we regularly reviewed and discussed our work as coaches. By combining intentionality, a sense of inquiry, and a willingness to be honest and vulnerable with each other and ourselves, we became more reflexive about our discourse and impact as coaches. We created a setting that invited us to closely examine our practice and the results rather than submit to habitual action or thoughtless obedience to outside forces.

These same reflexive spaces can exist for teachers as well, and coaches can be the catalyst for their creation. As a direct result of participating in the study, both Mandy and Kay invited teachers to videotape and reflect about their teaching. In the same ways that Mandy and I used Brookfield's (1995) reflective lenses of self, students, colleagues, and theoretical literature to support our re-visioning of ourselves in the second article of this dissertation, teachers can also use video and reflection to take control of their own development as teachers. It's important to note that our reflexive conversations within the study were not lead by one member telling another the "correct" way to coach. Rather, our conversations with one another enabled our growth through exposure to each other's perspectives while we maintained control over our own responses. This egalitarian approach allowed for meaningful self-discovery at differing paces for everyone and created a means for us to empower ourselves through reflexive practice.

We also found that in order to become empowered, we had to be able to name contextual elements that had previously gone unnoticed. We had to become aware of the circumstances surrounding us, how we fit within and relate to those circumstances, and our choices therein. At the beginning of the study Mandy had an uneasy feeling about the grade level collaborative

meetings, that it “was not going as it should” but she couldn’t put her finger on why. I had the same reaction to my meeting with a teacher described in the first article, in which I had been overly sure of her needs and thus less responsive in the moment. In order to become active, intentional actors within these circumstances, Mandy and I had to be able to view and review the situational context, to become conscious of how the speech events unfolded and the ways in which we influenced others’ discourse and actions through our own. Our meetings to review our videos allowed us to create a metalanguage to name our discoveries. And by naming them, we were then able to make choices about them. Mandy could choose to ask different types of questions, and I could choose to listen more and talk less. But only after we had named the circumstances as they were, were we able to change them.

Thus, part of coaches creating reflexive spaces with teachers includes an understanding of the need to name the parts that make up the whole. Coaches can work with teachers to create a metalanguage about practice that allows for nuanced discussion. In the same way that I labeled lesson study discussions as falling into “Ping-Pong” or “pinball” structures, it may happen that our metalanguages are self-created and yet descriptive enough to allow us to first name practices and then act upon them. Engaging in reflexive conversations with colleagues creates the necessity of developing a metalanguage to capture our observations. Coaches can encourage teachers to reflect and experience the freedom that comes with a self-created metalanguage to describe instructional challenges.

Intellectual Spaces

When the coaches in this study met with me individually or as a group, part of our time was spent reading theoretical literature about power, empowerment, and dialogical spaces. These coaches commented that Freire’s (1993) work was new to them and that they had not been

exposed to theories about power. In these cases, and in much of my experience, schools are generally not seen as places in which theory is read and discussed but it is instead shuffled to the side in favor of discussions or even administrative mandates about practice. Indeed, sometimes there seems to be a divorce between theory and practice, an assumption that theory is reserved for universities and academia while teachers must deal in practice, where the rubber meets the road. These assumptions, reinforced by the stress and urgency that accompany high-stakes testing and teacher evaluations, can send the message to teachers that learning about theory is a waste of time, impractical, or worse, beyond teachers' capabilities.

Jones and Rainville (2014), in their introduction to a coaching-themed issue of *Reading & Writing Quarterly* argue that, "when literacy coaches position themselves as intellectuals in their in-between-ness, they can encourage, nurture, and participate in collaborative cultures that work on the side of the weak and unrepresented" (p. 187). Coaches need not subscribe to the assumption that theory does not belong in the classroom, or that teachers only want to learn practical methods. Instead, coaches have the unique opportunity to create spaces in schools in which teachers are intellectually challenged and where theory and practice can be remarried.

Coaches may also choose to involve teachers in inquiry-based professional learning as a way to encourage them to engage in intellectually challenging action research. Stephens and Mills (2014) found that when coaching was structured around teacher inquiry, teachers changed their beliefs before changing their practices, but "eventually succeeded in living into their new beliefs". They realized that, "if we wanted to promote genuine transformation, we needed to teach at the belief rather than the practice level" (p. 196). Thus, coaches wanting to contribute to substantial impact on teachers and students might envision ways to create intellectually stimulating spaces in schools.

In sum, coaches occupy a unique position in schools that allows them to create and encourage more egalitarian approaches to student and adult learning. By creating communal, dialogical spaces in which teachers can be reflexive and intellectually stimulated, coaches can exercise power in fostering a shift in institutional discourse to support school cultures where teachers' voices are more valued.

Final Thoughts

I began this study three years ago out of curiosity. I had noticed the power that my specific discursive choices had in the classroom, and I had read and observed master teachers such as Debbie Miller (2002) and Peter Johnston (2004) teach me ways to support students' growing identities and agency with the words I chose. I sensed that the same applied to adults when I became a coach and yet I needed to know more. This study has begun to teach me more. There is, however, a great deal more for me to learn.

Each of the coaches in this study has expressed that the process has been powerful and that we are completing this third year different people than when we began. I have discovered that it is not possible to simply watch oneself from the outside and remain outside – the process insists that we delve deeper and dig down to understand ourselves more thoroughly. I have discovered aspects about myself and my coaching that I was not excited to find, aspects that forced me to dig deeper inside to understand myself. Seeing ourselves on video and seeing how others respond has the potential to change us, if we allow it to.

Recently, I was listening to a webcast by Gravity Goldberg (2016, January 25), author of *Mindsets and Moves* (2016) as she discussed the idea of a "learner's high" in students. She described the "aha" moment we teachers strive for as not simply an emotional response in students, but a neurochemical process, one in which dopamine, adrenaline and serotonin are

released as a new synapse is forming in the brain. This rush of chemicals results in a feeling of accomplishment as the student creates new understandings. Goldberg's argument, however, is that teachers too often prevent this learner's high by solving the students' problems for them. We jump in too quickly, made anxious by the student's struggle, and thus we prevent the eureka moment from occurring and instead cause students to become dependent on us. Goldberg added: next time you are tempted to jump in to answer, step back and ask yourself – are you jumping in because YOU want the learner's high?

This question socked me in the stomach. In the weeks and months since I heard Goldberg speak, I have faced the idea that I might be a neurochemical junkie, addicted to getting the learner's high however I can find it. I have confiscated others' learner's highs under the guise of helping them by providing answers rather than patiently waiting and allowing productive struggle. I know this because I have observed my interactions with teachers on tape, and while I have learned a great deal about myself and coaching from this process, Goldberg's question helps me realize that I have only just begun. There is always a great deal more to learn.

All of us in the study understand there is more beneath the surface and so we are committed to continuing our work together. Each of us has ongoing goals related to our work with teachers that we hope to study, write about, and present in the years to come. We have formed strong friendships, built through honesty and vulnerability, that have caused us to change our language and our beliefs, both about teachers and about ourselves.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A - Coach participant Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
CONSENT FORM
Impact of Instructional Coaches' Language: A pilot study

Researcher's Statement
I am asking you to take part in a research study. Before you decide to participate in this study, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. This form is designed to give you the information about the study so you can decide whether to be in the study or not. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Please ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you need more information. When all your questions have been answered, you can decide if you want to be in the study or not. This process is called "informed consent." A copy of this form will be given to you.

Principal Investigator: Michelle Commeyras
Language and Literacy Education
706-542-7866 commeyra@uga.edu
Co-investigator/Student: Heather Wall
Language and Literacy Education
770-533-3842 Heather.Wall@hallco.org

Purpose of the Study
The purpose of this study is to explore the language that instructional coaches use and how that language impacts the teachers with whom they work. The study is set up as an inquiry project to encourage involvement from participants, so as a participant you would have the opportunity to explore your beliefs about the effects of coaching language and pose your own questions and ideas alongside the researcher's. You are being asked to participate because your past experience as an instructional coach can contribute to the depth of questions asked and the potential findings throughout this process.

Study Procedures
If you agree to participate, you will be interviewed for approximately one hour to discuss your beliefs, theories, and understandings about coaching language. Afterwards, both you and the co-investigator will separately videotape yourselves leading professional learning activities with teachers and then together you will analyze the language you each used and its effects on the teachers, exploring alternative possibilities and developing theories about language as you go. This process of videotaping yourselves and debriefing together afterwards will repeat periodically as you explore your questions and theories and develop new ones. At a minimum, you will meet for a total of ten hours over the course of four months. You will allow the co-investigator to keep a copy of each of your professional learning activity videos to allow for transcription and further data analysis for the study. The meetings between you and the co-investigator will also be videotaped and transcribed to allow stated ideas and theories from the discussions to be accurately captured.

Risks and discomforts
Risks and discomfort involved in this study are minimal, but it is possible that your self-perception may suffer if you recall having used harsh language or disempowering teachers in the past. This may not be avoidable, but

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can be viewed as a possible or even expected consequence of continual improvement and self-reflection. We can talk through these feelings as they occur.

Benefits
Potential benefits you might experience from participating in this study include an increased knowledge about the nature of discourse and its impact on others and improved self-awareness regarding your coaching decisions.

Overall, this study has the potential to benefit the field of education by adding to our understanding of the impact of discourse on the professional learning of teachers and could help illuminate the effects instructional coaches have on the professional learning process. Depending on the results of the study, it is possible that this study could contribute towards a movement to re-empower teachers in their classrooms, their schools, and beyond.

Incentives for participation
You will not receive any incentives for participating in the study.

Audio/Video Recording
Video recordings will be made of both the professional learning activities you conduct with teachers as well as the meetings between you and the co-investigator. This will allow for transcription and further data analysis for the study as well as to allow stated ideas and theories from the discussions to be accurately captured.

These videotapes will not be shared beyond viewing by yourself or the investigators unless expressly allowed by you in writing. Upon completion of this study the videotapes will be archived in a secure location. If occasion arises for them to be used in future research studies, the co-investigator will request permission from you in writing.

Privacy/Confidentiality
All data from this study, including interview transcriptions, video transcriptions, and field notes, will be de-identified of personal information and will refer to you by pseudonym only. If any email correspondence occurring between you and the investigators serves as data, it will be saved as a PDF file and redacted of identifying information. The project's research records may be reviewed by departments at the University of Georgia responsible for regulatory and research oversight.

Researchers will not release identifiable results of the study to anyone other than individuals working on the project without your written consent unless required by law.

Any results from this study included in future publications will refer to you by pseudonym only and will not include identifiable information.

Taking part is voluntary
Your involvement in the study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision on whether or not to

participate will not affect your relationship with the school district. If you decide to withdraw from the study, the information that can be identified as yours will be kept as part of the study and may continue to be analyzed, unless you make a written request to remove, return, or destroy the information.

If you have questions
The main researcher conducting this study is Dr. Michelle Commeyras, a professor at the University of Georgia and the co-investigator is Heather Wall, a doctoral student at the University of Georgia. Please ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you may contact Dr. Michelle Commeyras at commeyra@uga.edu or at 706-542-7866. If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a research participant in this study, you may contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) Chairperson at 706.542.3199 or irb@uga.edu.

Research Subject's Consent to Participate in Research:
To voluntarily agree to take part in this study, you must sign on the line below. Your signature below indicates that you have read or had read to you this entire consent form, and have had all of your questions answered.

Michelle Commeyras	_____	7-3-2013
Name of Researcher	Signature	Date
_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Signature	Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

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Appendix B - Teacher participant consent form

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
CONSENT FORM
Impact of Instructional Coaches' Language: A pilot study

Researcher's Statement
I am asking you to take part in a research study. Before you decide to participate in this study, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. This form is designed to give you the information about the study so you can decide whether to be in the study or not. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Please ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you need more information. When all your questions have been answered, you can decide if you want to be in the study or not. This process is called "informed consent." A copy of this form will be given to you.

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Language and Literacy Education
706-542-7866 commeyra@uga.edu
Co-investigator/Student: Heather Wall
Language and Literacy Education
770-533-3842 Heather.Wall@hallco.org

Purpose of the Study
The purpose of this study is to explore the language that instructional coaches use and how that language impacts the teachers with whom they work. You are being asked to participate because your instructional coach has chosen to participate in this study.

Study Procedures
If you agree to participate, at least one professional learning activity in which you take part will be videotaped and later analyzed. Your coach and the investigators will be looking at the language used and its effects on the participating teachers. The purpose will be to determine effective language choices and explore alternative possibilities and theories about language.

Risks and discomforts
Risks and discomfort involved in this study are minimal. Only regularly scheduled professional learning activities will be videotaped and the study will not impact the intended outcome of the activity.

Benefits
This study has the potential to benefit the field of education by adding to our understanding of the impact of discourse on the professional learning of teachers and could help illuminate the effects instructional coaches have on the professional learning process. Depending on the results of the study, it is possible that this study could contribute towards a movement to re-empower teachers in their classrooms, their schools, and beyond.

Incentives for participation
You will not receive any incentives for participating in the study.

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Audio/Video Recording
Video recordings will be made of the professional learning activities you participate in with your coach. This will allow for transcription and further data analysis for the study.

These videotapes will not be shared beyond viewing by the coach and the investigators unless expressly allowed by you in writing. Upon completion of this study the videotapes will be archived in a secure location.

Privacy/Confidentiality
All data from this study, including interview transcriptions, video transcriptions, and field notes, will be de-identified of personal information and will refer to you by pseudonym only if at all. The project's research records may be reviewed by departments at the University of Georgia responsible for regulatory and research oversight.

Researchers will not release identifiable results of the study to anyone other than individuals working on the project without your written consent unless required by law. Any results from this study included in future publications will refer to you by pseudonym only and will not include identifiable information.

Taking part is voluntary
Your involvement in the study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision on whether or not to participate will not affect your relationship with the school. If you decide to withdraw from the study, the information that can be identified as yours will be kept as part of the study and may continue to be analyzed, unless you make a written request to remove, return, or destroy the information.

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CONSENT FORM
Impact of Instructional Coaches' Language: A pilot study

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The purpose of this study is to explore the language that instructional coaches use and how that language impacts the teachers with whom they work. You are being asked to participate because your instructional coach has chosen to participate in this study.

Study Procedures
If you agree to participate, at least one professional learning activity in which you take part will be videotaped and later analyzed. Your coach and the investigators will be looking at the language used and its effects on the participating teachers. The purpose will be to determine effective language choices and explore alternative possibilities and theories about language.

Risks and discomforts
Risks and discomfort involved in this study are minimal. Only regularly scheduled professional learning activities will be videotaped and the study will not impact the intended outcome of the activity.

Benefits
This study has the potential to benefit the field of education by adding to our understanding of the impact of discourse on the professional learning of teachers and could help illuminate the effects instructional coaches have on the professional learning process. Depending on the results of the study, it is possible that this study could contribute towards a movement to re-empower teachers in their classrooms, their schools, and beyond.

Incentives for participation
You will not receive any incentives for participating in the study.

Approved by University of Georgia
Institutional Review Board
Protocol # STUDY00000142
Approved on: 8/5/2013
For use through: 8/4/2018

Appendix C – Interview Guide

Interview Guide

1. Talk about what you feel is the purpose of coaching?

2. What do you enjoy about coaching? Not enjoy?

3. What are your thoughts on the language a coach uses when working with teachers and how it might impact those interactions? Do you have theories about what works and doesn't work? How does body language contribute?

4. What language have you found creates openness or willingness on the part of teachers to try new instructional methods?

5. Can you describe a specific example?

6. Why do you think teachers are resistant? Give examples of specific situations without naming names.

7. What language have you found creates resistance?

8. Can you describe an example?

9. What does empowerment mean to you? For teachers? What could/should it look like in schools?

10. What language do you feel a coach can use to create a sense of empowerment in teachers?

11. What do you wonder about regarding the language coaches use? Have you had situations in your past that were confusing or that you'd like to explore more?

12. Talk about what you feel a successful coaching situation would look like. How do you know it's successful?

13. What do you wish for teachers? (i.e. wish they could/would do?)

Appendix D – Potential Questions for Video Viewing

Inquiry meetings – possible questions

As an inquiry setting, these meetings will follow the questions and theories of the researcher and participant; however possible lines of thought/questions include:

1. What do you notice about the teachers' reactions during this [specific section] of your video? What did you say or how did you say it that might have influenced their reaction?

2. What questions did you ask that opened up or shut down the interaction with teachers?

3. How did your body language influence the interaction?

4. How did the setting influence the interactions that occurred?

5. Who appears to be in charge of this conversation? What makes you say so?

6. What was successful about this interaction with teachers? What might you change?

7. What questions do you have about this interaction with teachers? Does anything about it puzzle you?

Appendix E

Questioner Role Transcript 1

Open: Give: fact	1	Heather	So we want kids to ask, [reading from shared document] our goal is for kids to independently read and write a genuine question on sticky notes.
R:acknowledge	2	Kay	OK
Append: extend	3a	Heather	And we're saying it doesn't have to be about characters and stuff, we just want an actual question that's not an "I wonder"
Cont: monitor	3b		right?
	NV1		[general nodding by all teachers, murmurs of agreement]
Demand: fact	5	Heather	Because you're saying that when you ask them to do that they're either writing "I wonder" or are they just writing statements?
R: answer	6	Lee	Statements, yes.
Demand: open: opinion	7	Heather	OK, so then what would we want, let's think about the Teach [section] and the Active Engagement [section] close together. What would we want kids to do here [pointing to Active Engagement on document] in order to prepare them for the Work Session?
R: answer	8a	Sue	The Active Engagement would be to write a question,
C: monitor	8b		right?
C: prolong: elab	8c		What we're going to teach them.
R: agree	9	Heather	Um-hmm
	NV2		[several people begin speaking at once]
Rej: track: clarify	11	Kay	Would that be turn and talk? Turn and talk about a question?
Rej: track: clarify	12	Heather	The question is, so how critical is the writing piece? If you – can they do it orally and they can't get it on paper, or they can't do it orally either?
R: answer	13	Lee	It's been my experience they can't do it orally either.
R: acknowl	14a	Heather	OK, OK,
R: dev: elab	14b		so we could maybe, you think, practice it during the active engagement orally
R: agree	15	Kay	Um-hmm
R: dev: elab	16	Heather	And then
R: dev: extend	17	Pat	You could even show them how to write it.
R: agree	18	Heather	Um-hmm
R: dev: elab	19	Sue	That would be good modeling.
R: agree	20	Heather	Yeah
Rej: track: clarify	21	Joy	Would they recog-, I wonder if they'd even recognize, you know, statements from questions? Where you could

			have a discussion orally and talk about is this a question or is this a statement. I don't know.
R: acknowl	22a	Heather	And maybe that's part of it.
C: prolong: extend	22b		If part of it is the "I wonder" then we can say, "You're just telling us what you wonder." Maybe what they need is the question words: who, what, when, where, which, why
R: agree	23	Joy	Right
R: dev: elab	24	Lee	Yeah, we went over that before, I mean, we made a chart of questioning words when we did questioning
Rej: track: clarify	25	Kay	Would the Teach part be the teacher reading a part of a book and asking-
R: dev: extend	26	Sue	Asking the questions
R: agree	27a	Kay	Yes,
C: prolong: extend	27b		modeling and then actually having them to then ask their own questions

Appendix F

Questioner Role Transcript Two

Open: demand: opinion	1	Heather	Do you think that there's anything that they're doing differently because of the lesson or is this what you would have expected even without the lesson?
R: answer	2	Lee	Well, I'm actually pretty happy. I was worried that they might not be able – you know?
Rej: track: probe	3	Sherry	I was kind of wondering how they would respond with me. Like, I figured they were kind of looking at me like, "What are you doing in our class?"
Resp: acquiesce	4	Lee	Yeah
R: dev: extend	5	Joy	They turned around and looked at Lee.
R: agree	6	Sherry	Yeah, they were like -
R: elab	7	Lee	Yeah, they did turn around and look at me.
Append: elab	8	Sherry	Why is she doing this? But they seemed to handle it well.
R: agree	9	Lee	Yeah they did
R: dev: elab	10	Joy	They were VERY well behaved.
Demand: open: opinion	11	Kay	Do you think had she not taught the lesson and just asked them to ask questions about the book would there have been more "I wonders"?
R: affirm	12	Lee	Yes
R: dev: elab	13	Heather	So there was an impact
Append: elab	14	Lee	You know, I think that the chart definitely helped.
R: agree	15	Heather	Yeah
Append: extend	16	Lee	Without the chart it would have been difficult for them to just do it on their own.
R: dev: elab	17	Sherry	Yeah, cause I saw a lot of kids look up, they kept looking up [at the chart]
Give: fact	18	Heather	OK. So, the chart made a big difference. Like having a physical –
R: dev: elab	19	Lee	And I had a chart before, but…
Demand: opin	20	Heather	So then what made the difference?
R: answer	21	Sherry	Practice
R: agree	22	Lee	Practice
Rej: track: confirm	23	Heather	Yeah?
R: dev: elab	24	Sherry	I do think there is a gap. Well, there is that [gap] between Kindergarten and first, and then second. And she's right, the I wonders, I wonders, I wonders, and now we're kind of changing that shift and they just had to get used to it.

Demand: fact	25	Heather	Was there anything – so was it just time, or was it anything about the lesson that we could point to and say, “This part made a difference”?
R: answer	26	Lee	The chart for sure.
R: answer	27	Kay	I think the modeling too. Definitely the modeling.
Open: demand: fact	28	Sherry	Did you notice the one time I said, “I wonder” and I was supposed to put a question mark?
R: acknow	29	Kay	Yes! But that’s ok!
Append: elab	30	Sherry	And I said, “Oh! I need to use a question mark!”
R: dev: extend	31	Joy	I thought that was planned when you went [strikes pensive pose]
R: agree	32	Heather	Yeah!
R: agree	33	Lee	I thought it was planned too! So you did a good job.
R: dev: extend	34	Kay	You tricked us, you tricked the kids.
Give: fact	35a	Heather	Yeah, and the other thing is that you did not get them to help you during the modeling.
Prolong: elab	35b		That is SO hard.
R: acknow	36	Sherry	That was hard for me because -
R: acknow	37	Lee	I could – that would be my downfall