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THE ENACTMENT OF THOUGHTFULNESS IN COLLABORATION:
A CASE OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING AND LEARNING
IN A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SCHOOL

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Sharon Feiman Nemser

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THE ENACTMENT OF THOUGHTFULNESS IN COLLABORATION:
A CASE OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING AND LEARNING
IN A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SCHOOL

By

Michelle Beth Parker

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

THE ENACTMENT OF THOUGHTFULNESS IN COLLABORATION: A CASE OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING AND LEARNING IN A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SCHOOL

By

Michelle Beth Parker

Current educational reforms explore the potential power of professional collaboration among educators, yet little is know about what happens in collaborative work and its consequences for students' learning. Three areas in the literature are addressed: detailed scrutiny of collaborative work unfolding in high school classrooms, attention to establishing and sustaining collaborative work between schools and universities and connecting collaborative work to changes in student learning.

This thesis analyzes one case of professional collaboration between university and high school educators in a professional development school over a two-year period. Focusing on the experiences and thoughts of key team members--two high school social studies teachers, two members of a college of education, and me (serving as an observer, participant, and researcher), the study examines the team's inquiry, what the team did and how, and connections between the collaborative work and students' learning.

Fieldnotes from meetings and classrooms, formal and informal interviews, and document analyses provide the basis for a portrait of the team's development. By identifying an initial problem about students'

learning, and working within supportive contexts, participants maintained a focus on teaching and learning practice. Participants out-of-classroom collaborative work showed intellectual activity, conflict, and teacher learning. Evidence from the high school classrooms illustrates change in one participant's teaching and curriculum design that promoted similar kinds of thoughtful changes in students' understandings. Analyses also illustrate the difficulties of teaching and collaborating about teaching, especially when the content is morally and politically charged.

This thesis suggests a normative framework, the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration, for examining collaboration, and illustrates its viability by using the social studies team as a case. The enactment of thoughtfulness features four characteristics: (1) within caring and supportive relationships, participants would be (2) having conversations through which they would be (3) shaping and reshaping experiments having to do with learning and advancing a (4) certain kind of teaching practice. These features mark collaborative work among teachers that maintains a central focus on students' learning. The dissertation concludes with a letter that summarizes the team's successes while suggesting cautions and implications of enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration.

To my parents, Morris, Irene, and Adele,
for their encouragement and support

and to the

Big C

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How many times I have thought about writing this part of my dissertation! How many drafts I have written, turning to this file as I reminded myself that soon, oh so very soon, I would be finished and ready to write my final acknowledgements.

And now as I face the time, I feel so many different ways. How to begin crafting a very large thank-you to so many folks who helped make this possible...

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my intellectual work, and in my spirit. Thank you, dearest Sharon, for your love, your laugh, your pushing, and for YOU.

And now I close, ready to tell Patty Noell to put this in the "final" file. What can I say about Patty? As my confidante, assistant, supporter, and friend, you remained through the end. Remember: we take relationships with us in our hearts, always.

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CHAPTER ONE
STAGES OF THOUGHT

The following pages recount tales that unfold on multiple theatre stages. The accounts have passion, humor, intrigue, daring, and wit. They show frustration and disappointment, hopefulness and success. All stories reflect similar themes; that is, they are all about curiosity, excitement, frustration, exhiliration, realization--a wondering about ideas. Though unfolding in different locales at times with various players and roles, like any good narrative, themes weave together in intricate ways throughout the stories. Characters, plots, and the theme of thoughtfulness about the teaching and learning of social studies link the tales.

Like members of a theatre guild, the "actors" in the theatre productions are members of a professional organization. They act on different stages, assume different roles, and enact the roles differently. Furthermore, the lead character and the person playing the role changes, sometimes even within the same play as well as across stages. Yet, like in a guild, the elements that tie the actors together are the common goals of "mutual aid and protection"[1]. The collegial spirit that supports this sets a tone in the organization, while providing room for individual aspirations and growth.

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[1] As defined by the Oxford English Dictionary.

THE GUILD: THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEAM

Members of the guild in this case are a group of professional educators who worked together toward the shared goal of understanding and studying the teaching and learning of high school social studies. With a core group of five people, the group has met since June, 1989. They call themselves the "social studies team". The team is an outgrowth of the professional development schools formed in February, 1989 when Hodges High School entered into an association with the Midstate University College of Education. Hodges Professional Development School operates under the ideas and principles outlined in the Holmes Group Reports (The Holmes Group, 1986; The Holmes Group, 1990.)

The Settings

See Table 1.1: Core Team Participants, 1989-91: Roles and Affiliations

The productions that feature the social studies team take place in multiple locations. For the most part, the team acts in Hodges High School and moves around to different classrooms (for meetings and observations) and formal and informal chats in the staffroom and teachers' workroom. At times, the team works on campus observing one member's teacher education class or meeting in conference rooms or offices. I will discuss the settings of the work--Hodges High School, Midstate, and Hodges Professional Development School--in detail in Chapter Three.

Table 1.1
Core Participants on the Social Studies Team, 1989-91:
Participants, Roles, and Affiliations

HODGES HIGH SCHOOL		MIDSTATE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION	
Ken Larson	Hodges social studies teacher (mostly American History) for 26 years	Bill Monroe	Midstate new assistant professor in teacher education; past consultant and researcher in school staff development programs
Gary Gifford	Hodges social studies teacher (eclectic courses) for 21 years	Sally Devon	Midstate teacher preparation program manager and teacher educator
		Michelle Parker	Graduate student; Hodges PDS documentor (1989-90); teacher educator

The Guild Players

This dissertation focuses on the five core members of the social studies team: Ken Larson and Gary Gifford, two social studies teachers from Hodges, and Bill Monroe, Sally Devon, and me from Midstate. These members are "core" because they have been involved since the team's beginnings. At times, 13 people have participated in the team, some staying permanently while others just one or two semesters. Team members include Hodges teachers, Midstate faculty and research fellows, and Midstate student teachers.

The Productions

If different theatre productions could be mounted to portray the work of the social studies team, the episodes I discuss in this section would command center stage. Complex as they are, these events would warrant separate "mini-productions"--almost like one or two act plays--that would be connected by the purpose of thoughtfulness about the teaching and learning of social studies.

I describe two plays which detail the first few months of the social studies team's work. Separated by time, space, and situation, the productions illustrate processes of action and their consequences. After each description I offer a commentary around this question: what is this a story about? These stories provide the groundwork for my analyses of the content and forms of the team's work, its goals, and the relationships among its players. This analysis led me to suggest a new way to think about collaborative work--the

enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration. In the remainder of the dissertation I develop and explore this concept from a theoretical and practical stance.

<div align="center">Stage One: Doing Research</div>

Act One: The Meeting

Over a two-week period in the summer of 1989, Hodges High School met with five other developing PDSs (school and Midstate participants.) During morning sessions, participants went to workshops, studying topics around a particular area (e.g., mathematics, cooperative learning) for three or four days. Afternoon sessions involved meeting with other PDS school participants as well as school meetings for the purpose of planning for the 1989-90 school year. By the fifth day of the summer institute, Hodges PDS had decided to form five working groups in which different inquiries would be carried out: mathematics, science, literacy, social studies, and "organic management" (in which participants would study what kinds of changes needed to happen in the organization and management of the high school to support the new kinds of teaching and learning that might evolve.)

Scene 1. At the summer institute, Ken Larson and Gary Gifford had attended workshops about organization and management of schools and cooperative learning. Having worked together at Hodges for 20 years in the social studies department and as athletic coaches, Ken and Gary knew each other well. They often finished the other's thoughts, and needled each other

all in good humor. They also shared an abiding commitment to organizing students and their curriculum to support learning. Following a system designed and implemented fifteen years earlier, the social studies (and English) departments at Hodges had developed a "fundamental skills" version in the non-elective courses of American History, economics, and government. Ken and Gary believed that the fundamental skills class offered options to students (through self-selection and some teacher assignment) for having a course with less reading and less complicated assignments. In addition, due to the homogenous grouping, students would not suffer from lower self-esteems by being challenged to do something they might not be able to perform. So interested was he in the practices of grouping kids that Gary had also read "The Shopping Mall High School: Winners and Losers in the Educational Marketplace" (Powell et al., 1985) and some miscellaneous articles about teaching high school and grouping kids. So perhaps it wasn't surprising that Ken and Gary began talking about managing students in different kinds of groups--small, large, ability and non-ability grouped--at the first meeting of the social studies inquiry project.

Still in my documentor role, I asked if I could sit with them and listen. Yeah, they told me, but only if you also participate. "Hell, we can always use another person!" Ken assured me by waving me to sit next to him. "These guys have a sense of humor!" I thought. And I recorded these questions in

my fieldnotes, asked by Ken and Gary, as we talked over the next couple

hours:

1. In what ways are the conclusions of researchers like Jeannie Oakes and
Powell et al. about grouping students by ability true for students at Hodges
High School?
2. Do we as teachers have lower expectations for lower achieving students?
3. In what ways is the the self-esteem of students at all levels affected?
4. Are only certain kids learning certain things?

At the heart of some moral and ethical dilemmas in teaching, these

questions invited frank conversation. "Are we doing something wrong?"

seemed to be the recurring question that Ken and Gary asked, especially given

their belief that sorting and separating kids was best for students. Along with

some other names, I was added to a sheet that Gary and Ken were making in

order to tell other people about an intended meeting in three weeks. In

addition to giving the address of Ken's house and directions, the sheet

informed any other interested people that the "social science" group was

interested in

- Clustering students
- Diversity
- Alternative evaluation for all students
- Helping all students gain school and employability skills
- Heterogenous and homogenous student grouping

Scene 2. We spent virtually the whole day together at our first

meeting on July 10 at Ken's "porch on the river" house. We decided to focus

our attentions on American History since Ken taught three levels of it:

fundamental skills level for special education students and others who have

demonstrated a low level of success in academics because of less than grade

level skills especially in reading and writing", general level which "assumes that the skill level for the students enrolled is commensurate with the materials and expectations of the course as currently taught", and Advanced Placement honors, "for those who have demonstrated a high degree of academic achievement and wish to participate in a course in which the level is higher in terms of expectations and materials"[2]. Looking at what students are doing in these different classes, we reasoned, would help us understand the diversity among students and the ways diverse students handled learning American history. Our research questions, then, would be

1. What is happening in these different classes in terms of what students are doing and what they are learning?
2. What are students learning?
3. How do students in these different classes relate to each other?
4. Are there differences in the teacher's level and kind of involvement and attitudes in the different classes?

We formed these questions from ideas gathered through discussions and readings we'd each done in our personal and professional lives, and during meetings at the summer institute[3]. But, especially Gary seemed uncomfortable about some of the questions. He asked, "What will be the

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[2]After this meeting, Ken and Gary wrote these comments for the proposal we needed to submit to our Hodges PDS colleagues.

[3]I both mentioned and supplied copies of Anyon's 1981 study of schooling and knowledge in five elementary schools in New Jersey (Anyon, 1981), Cusick's 1984 study of egalitarianism in high schools (Cusick, 1983), pieces from Cohen's book about grouping students (Cohen, 1986), and chapters from the Powell et al. book about shopping mall high schools (Powell, 1985).

control group?" Gary seemed set on the idea that if we were doing a research project--studying something--that we needed to have a control group and experimental group. Not quite certain about what to say, I replied that the kind of study we could do must be based on the questions we had identified. These questions, I said, are about learning what is happening. Not until we have a sense of what is happening, I added, can we think about the intervention. And not until we implement the intervention do we need to worry about a control and experimental group. Finally, I said, I'm not so sure we would even need to do something in one class (i.e., have an experimental group) that we didn't do in another (i.e, a control group).

My logic seemed to make some sense--neither Ken nor Gary argued with it. But clearly they were not comfortable. I mentioned the readings I'd distributed--upon Ken and Gary's requests--as examples of empirical work done in the interpretive tradition I was talking about, pointing out that these scholars were focused on learning what was happening in different settings. I mentioned research by Jeannie Oakes (which they'd read in the recent summer institute) as an example of combining observation and survey data, which we might choose to do. There are many ways we can learn what is happening, I concluded. But, first we have to look at what you are doing presently before we can know what to change. Though neither Ken nor Gary responded, their lack of agreement or disagreement signaled to me that they remained uncertain and unwilling to commit to a plan of action.

Scene 3. In our second summer meeting, after a couple telephone conversations, we set ourselves the task of constructing a project which we could present to our PDS colleagues at Hodges. A proposal with all the Hodges projects would then go to the Director of Midstate PDSs, who would consider the six school proposals and dole out money according to needs. Ken typed while Gary and I walked around the basement, stirring up ideas. (See Appendix A.)

And the question about research resurfaced. Again I said that what we planned to do was research--and then it occurred to me. Ken and Gary had gone to school at a time when interpretive traditions were in their infancy. Just looking at something and learning what is happening without making some sort of intervention was not research in their classic definition. Yet, I felt uncertain about how I should talk about research. I didn't want to come off as a know-it-all, as the person from the university who comes and tells teachers what to do.

I decided to step into different roles and discuss the research. As a graduate student, I began, this is what I learned about research (here I shared briefly what I learned in a year-long fieldwork research course and practicum). As a classroom teacher, I continued, I disliked people coming and telling me what to do from something they learned with a different set of students and in a different school. Things just didn't seem so generalizable. So I welcome a kind of research that is sensitive to a particular setting. As your colleague, I

continued, I need to be honest. I do not believe we are ready to make a systematic intervention in one classroom. We don't know enough about each set of students (e.g., fundamental skills students), and our design changes for one set of students may be to the disadvantage of another. And finally, I don't feel strong enough in my present understandings to design an intervention and study it.

Everyone was quiet; my talk had lasted about three minutes. Ken spoke first, suggesting we go on with what we have and try it out at the big meeting (scheduled for July 30). We'll just see what people say, he added.

Act Two: Research and the Social Studies Team

September 15, 1989 we had our first meeting at Hodges. Taking on his new job as professor, Bill had also officially joined the group, and he began to call it the "social studies team". Bill asked Ken, Gary, and me what we had planned for the year. We were ready to talk about this, since at the July 30 meeting our Hodges PDS colleagues had overwhelmingly approved and welcomed our project. Other departments in the school had "fundamental skills" classes, and teachers wondered whether they, too, might be differentiating their curriculum and instruction.

Sitting in the staffroom on that mid-September day I didn't say anything, wanting Ken and Gary to say in their own words what they thought we were do. I remained very uncertain about my actions in the previous

meetings. Was I imposing the research on Ken and Gary, I wondered. Did they have enough input into shaping the project?[4]

Gary took the lead, explaining that the setting of our study was the three levels of American History that Ken taught. We are not setting up a control and experimental group, Gary announced, because that is not the kind of research we are doing. First we have to see what is happening in our classrooms, Ken added. Then we can see what we need to change. Gary continued: we will begin by observing the different American History classes we are studying. From classroom observations we will look at the curriculum, whether and how the teaching is different across the three classes, and the assessment procedures. Ken added: we will review the literature about homogenous and heterogenous grouping and how that relates to the realities of Hodges High School.

I remained silent. And while I was happy to hear about the kind of research they appeared to endorse, I still wondered: did they believe it was research, or was this a case of colonialism where they'd simply taken up my ideas?

Commentary: What is this Story About?

Two things stand out from these stories that became important issues throughout the life to the team. One is the way that Ken and Gary's initial

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[4]I discuss my uncertainties about being impositional throughout this thesis.

questions about their curriculum and instruction remained the centerpiece for the social studies team's inquiry project. The initial impetus and work proposal revolved around social studies teaching and learning—the concerns and questions that Ken and Gary had. Instead of imposing an alternate agenda of ideas and issues, my aim was to help Ken and Gary design ways to explore their questions.

Another issue emerging from these incidents is the way participants began enacting the new roles we took on as we began working together. My views at the time—and my initial interpretations around this incident—reveal my discomfort about what I was doing. Throughout my fieldnotes and journal entries I have notes to myself: "What is my role here?" or, "Should I be questioning what they want to do?" To a colleague who interviewed me about my collaborative work in early fall of the team's second year of work, I said,

> I just know I can't be real direct. I worry that I'm being too direct
> and that I'll get people agitated and I'll say the wrong thing. And
> then the invitation to work together will be withdrawn.

What I realize now, examining this and other incidents, is that Ken and Gary began to see me as the person who had the research expertise while they had the high school teaching expertise. Substantively, their questions around teaching guided and became the goals for the inquiry. After all, their interest in examining what they did on a daily basis in their classrooms were the very reasons we even had a project. Since they were the teachers of

record, they had to take responsibility for acting on any ideas we had as well as taking the heat if anything did not go as planned.

I had a different set of responsibilities. I provided the means for making the inquiry. In that role, I acted on my knowledge and skills as a teacher, but I also blended that with what I knew as a researcher. My hesitations around the research design (whether it should be experimental or interpretive) were founded based on my knowledge about research design. By not disclosing what I knew and what I believed about research, I would have been inauthentic and would not have been acting upon my responsibilities in our joint work. I would have fit the classic stereotypes of the researcher who lacks passion for her work and the people with whom she does the research[5].

Stage Two: Observing and Talking

Act One: Observing Teaching

At an early October, 1989 meeting, the team decided to do a round of observations in Ken's classes to determine if differences in teacher and student actions among the three course levels actually do exist. As Ken explained in a PDS quarterly report, written in early November, 1989, from this two-week round we had hoped to

> find out what is going on in classrooms under the present
> system of tracking and current practices of the teachers involved.
> During these observations the teacher activity and student
> activity (will be) 'scripted'.

---

[5]Ken disclosed this idea of researchers lacking passion at the beginning of 1992, when we worked together to prepare a presentation for a conference.

The plan was simple: either Gary, Sally, Bill, Ken, or I would observe periods 4, 5, and 6 each day from October 16-27. Ken could observe 4th and 6th period since his student teacher taught those classes (the fundamental class and general).

The team constructed an observation form in which we kept a running record of the time, "teacher talk and actions", "student talk and actions", and "observer comments". (See Appendix A.) Bill took the lead by creating the actual document and writing out some of the "conventions" the team agreed to follow, e.g., be descriptive about teacher and student actions and talk, keep track of "comments, questions, and judgments" in the "observer comment section", keep track by using a vertical squiggle of gaps in note-taking--"when our concentration breaks or we go to sleep". In addition, Bill decided to synthesize questions the team had asked over the four meetings it had had. He wrote in the memo that he "organized and elaborated the questions that were asked or suggested in earlier plans, in clumps that may help to keep them in the backs of our minds as we observe". These clumps included subject matter, students as individuals, and class organization and interaction.

The observers kept two pieces of information in mind. First, both Ken and Gary at the beginning of the school year had designed something they called "teacher/learner groups" which was a kind of jigsaw grouping. Students worked first in their learner groups to read and decipher the text,

with each group reading a different part of the text. Then, members from the learner groups dispersed and met with students from other learner groups in order to "teach" each other what they'd learned in the text they'd read.

Secondly, Ken's student teacher was in his second placement. He was asked to leave his first placement, the previous academic year, because he could not carry out his teaching responsibilities. Since Jeff was not a strong teacher candidate, Ken carefully supervised and adjusted when necessary his planning, teaching, and evaluation. For the most part, Jeff followed Ken's ideas and added little of his own[6].

Synopsis of Scene 1: The fundamental skills class. The fundamentals students were studying the Colonial Period in the United States and events and problems leading to the American Revolution. While the student teacher led the class and did all the planning, a special education "consultant" teacher also came to class[7]. For the most part, student assignments consisted of filling out teacher-prepared sheets using their textbooks, e.g., causes and effects of the American Revolution, and then listening to what different students wrote while grading each other's papers. At one point they looked at concept maps that the teacher had prepared.

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[6]Eventually, Ken and Sally (his university field instructor) decided not to grant certification to the student teacher.

[7]The district is moving toward an inclusion model in which special education teachers work along side teachers in classrooms that include identified special needs students. The fundamental skills class had approximately eight special needs students.

During the second week, students worked in small groups to outline four chapters of the text. During one class they generated five true and false questions from the "main purposes and important parts" of the text. Across the different groups students copied verbatim sentences from the textbook, inserting the word "not" when group members decided they needed a false statement. At times the students had trouble copying the words, pronouncing them, or understanding their meaning. The next day the teacher led a student reporting out about the main purpose of each chapter. While one student spoke, others wrote in their notes what s/he said (often asking the speaker to slow down). The teacher did not ask students to expand on their ideas, and little discussion of issues or ideas ensued.

Synopsis of Scene 2: The general class. General students spent the two weeks learning about early forms of government in the US. After reading in their texts about the Articles of Confederation, they studied the US Constitution by reading small parts of it in groups. Each group then wrote a summary of the particular constitutional article, and three days later they each read the summary to a larger group of students who had summarized other articles. In the larger group, students generated true/false questions about the constitutional articles that the teacher promised to use on the next quiz. The day before the quiz, in a teacher-directed recitation for about 15 minutes the teacher asked about key ideas in the Constitution, e.g., checks and

balances, three branches of government, why the Constitution came into being. After the quiz the class began a unit about the US Industrial Revolution in which different small groups took particular text chapters and outlined them.

Synopsis of Scene 3: The honors class. Ken taught the advanced placement/honors class. While studying the Jacksonion Era in American History during the 2-week observation period, the class moved between "learner" and "expert" groups. In learner groups, they outlined parts of different chapters within their small groups. Moving into expert groups, they then read their notes to a different set of students. Ultimately, students would be responsible for writing individual essays on an upcoming examination about this era of history.

While the other classes also used this structure of learner/expert small groups, the AP/honors class students had more discussion within their groups than other students. They questioned each other about the content and process of their studies. For example, one group of four students decided to divy up the chapter sections between two groups of two students each. In one sub-group, I heard this negotiation and conversation:

S_1:   Want to take separate notes and compare?

S_2:   No, let's talk about these ideas. Like, what is Jacksonian Politics?

S_1:   It's how Jackson ran the White House. You know, the kinds of spoils

system he had, the kind of "kitchen cabinet". You know, all the things he did to run the government.

After this negotiation and comment, both students returned to reading and taking notes, asking each other questions now and again about what they were reading. Another group took a different tact. They decided to take turns reading the text aloud to each other, and stopping when questions arose. In fact, this group had a disagreement about the the connections between voting restrictions and property qualifications. While one student went to ask the teacher, others offered explanations:

S_1:   So say it's restrictions on voting dealing with ownership of property.

S_2:   When they paid taxes, they knew they were there for voting.

S_1:   Yeah, but the taxes had to be a certain amount--there were restrictions.

S_3:   No, there were qualifications.

S_1:   Well, wait. That's the same (qualifications and restrictions), isn't it?

After this confusion surfaced, the group consulted a dictionary and the teacher and continued to discuss the differences between voter qualifications and the restrictions on it based on paying taxes.

Act Two: Talking about Teaching

In early November, 1989, the team met at Sally's house to talk about the observations we'd recently completed in Ken's classroom and to have what we called a celebration dinner commemorating our two-week round of observations. This "dinner meeting" was actually the beginning of a routine

the team followed for the two years I participated. We met every couple months over dinner, having an hour or so of conversation about our teamwork before dinner and/or after. Dinner conversation included some team talk, usually mixed with lots of humor and wine. 20 At this first dinner meeting, Bill, Gary, Sally and I arrived before Ken. Bill quickly made a strong suggestion/announcement: This could be very uncomfortable for Ken since we will be talking about his classroom and his students, he said. Can we agree on these two policies: 1) that Ken can say at any time, "Stop! I don't want to talk about this anymore." and 2) that Ken can say at any time, "That is not what happened. I saw it this way." We all agreed, and when Ken arrived Bill announced our agreed-upon policies for the discussion. Ken laughed, and said, "Fine. I'm sure I'll survive this."

We talked in Sally's living room for about 45 minutes. I opened the discussion by commenting that students indeed did act differently in the classes, something with which everyone agreed and gave examples of. Noone appeared shy in this group! We focused mostly on the diversity of students' actions. We agreed that the honors students talked in small groups more than other students, and that the honors students appeared more involved with the material they were reading and discussing. Of all students, those in fundamental skills seemed least engaged--a fact that Ken and Gary repeatedly said they could have predicted. More than students in the other classes, fundamental skills' students asked for directions to be repeated, and

for the teacher to say exactly what they needed to do to complete the assignment.

Our discussions ranged across varied issues about the substance of what we saw and its implications (e.g., So all students are not capable of reading the same material. What should we do about students who can't read and understand the course materials?; How can we help all students become engaged with the material?; Was the material worth engaging in? In what ways did the learner/expert group arrangement, with accompanying assignments, help or hinder students as they tried to understand the content) as well as the process of observing (e.g., how hard it is to write notes while observing, the extent to which "observers" can talk with students while they worked in small groups).

Ken and Gary helped us understand the history of the different courses--why they started, why teachers (in addition to themselves) thought they could help students by devising the course. They reminded us of the diversity of students' needs, and the complexity and difficulties that fell on teachers as they planned for, taught, and assessed students. Sally and I assumed the role of questioner, though we enacted the role differently. Sally asked a lot of clarifying questions, e.g., so you started the fundamental skills course in response to students' needs or in anticipation of future needs? and questions about what Ken and Gary did in their practices that we could not see, e.g., what else might you have done to deal with the way that student

spoke out in class? I also asked questions to clarify and expand what was said,

yet in addition I asked questions and made statements as a researcher, e.g.,

when I look cross these observations, this is what stands out to me. From the

patterns I saw, I also usually chose one idea I wanted to explore at a meeting.

At Sally's house, I asked a lot about the role of reading in learning history:

must students be able to read in order to learn history? Bill made a lot of

syntheses, e.g., so we can all agree that we saw differences among the courses.

Or, "we want to create situations where every student can understand

historical ideas, and where every student can "do history"--have the

analytical skills to make interpretations." Little did we realize at this early

meeting that we were defining, communicating

expectations, and establishing personal ways of acting that would continue

through the duration of our work together.

Five days after this meeting, in the PDS quarterly report Ken wrote this

summary of what the team had learned in our two-week round of

observations and ensuing discussions:

> There were differences in the student actions discerned between
> the high and the low groupings. The low students often were
> unaware of what had happened in class the previous days and
> were quite unsure of what was going to happen in the present
> and future class lesson. Thus, there appeared to be a
> disjointedness in the lower level class. In the higher level class
> there was little if any disjointedness with respect to student
> awareness.
>
> With respect to cooperative learning activities, we learned
> that the project task and activities must be clearly defined by the
> teacher. An intellectual model and a group process model must
> be presented by the teacher if the lesson is to be effective.

Commentary: What is this Story About?

These scenes from two connected acts illustrate the diverse forms and content of the team's work. We worked in classrooms observing and talking with students and teachers about the teaching and learning of social studies, and we worked out of the classroom to reason about what happened in the classroom around the teaching and learning of social studies. What connects the two forms of work is its content--the thinking about, and discussion around, social studies teaching and learning. This focus on the teaching and learning of social studies also served as the main purpose for the team's endeavors. Whether the team examined ways to group students across courses or in classrooms, teacher preparation for teaching social studies, students' learning about social studies, team members' views about social studies content, about teaching social studies, or about learning social studies--all these dimensions of inquiry tied back to the purpose of enhancing the teaching and learning of social studies.

About What the Team Observed

In this very early scene from the team's work, we already see that members' suspicions and assumptions were confirmed: differences in curriculum and instruction among the three courses did in fact exist. The fundamentals course was teacher-directed, with little input through questioning or discussion from students. The main vehicle driving the curriculum was the textbook, which had no primary source material.

Students literally at times copied ideas from the textbook (e.g., while writing true/false statements for the upcoming test), and little to no discussion of the ideas occurred. The general class curriculum also relied heavily on the textbook, and consisted of students working in small groups summarizing ideas in the text. Little to no discussion about forms of government in the United States took place in the large group nor in small groups.

While the honors/AP class also worked with the textbook, their text provided significantly more primary source material than the other classes. In addition, the kinds of discussions they had in small groups differed radically from what we heard in other classes. Rather than writing true-false statements (often by lifting sentences from the textbook), students in the honors class had a different kind of assignment which required other kinds of work. Preparing to write an essay exam, students seemed to realize that they needed to talk about ideas, e.g., what is the connection between voter restrictions and paying taxes. The text, moreover, provided interesting examples from primary source material to alternative interpretations of historians to probing questions about interpretation in history. On their own, with no assistance nor push from the teacher, students struggled to understand something that either they themselves or their peers did not comprehend. And, the teacher provided the time, organization, and materials that supported students while they wrestled with their understandings and questions.

Eventually the team coined the expression "doing history" to refer to students' engagement with historical ideas and interpretations. In chapter 4 and 5 I will show how the team realized and changed the curricular content and materials students used, a change that reflects our understanding about how to support and promote active student learning and construction of ideas and interpretations in American History.

About How the Team Discussed Ideas

The way that Bill realized and acknowledged Ken's possible discomfort from hearing four other adults discuss his instruction and curriculum set the precedent for future team conversations. At this meeting and others during the beginning of the team's work, Bill would comment on things we said or did as a team that challenged the isolated and private nature of teaching. Acknowledging that how we acted as a team—the honesty of our comments, the trust we each had that nobody would run and tell others, e.g., the principal, that someone was doing a "bad" job—was quite different from what we'd all done in the past. The acknowledgement of acting differently seemed to make the breaking of institutional expectations and cultural mores less frightening. I discuss and illustrate the substance and processes of collaboration in Chapters Three and Four.

About Roles

Though the roles that participants defined and enacted over the course of the team's work changed, the ways that people acted at this initial dinner

meeting became part of their overall actions in the team. Ken and Gary were and remained the high school classroom experts; Sally and I remained the questioners; Bill continued synthesizing. Ascribed partially by institutional affiliation and expectations (Ken and Gary should be the high school experts and Bill as an academic should be able to play with ideas) as well as personal dispositions and biographies, the roles participants took on and enacted evolved as the team's work changed. For example, the ways I could question and nag about a particular idea changed as my fieldnotes and interpretations expanded. The expertise that Ken and Gary had in the classroom changed as they experimented with their curriculum and instruction. As our ways of acting and thinking changed, the substance and process of Bill's syntheses changed and Sally's questions did not need to clarify as much as expand and challenge team members. Role definition, role enactments, and conflicts between roles (within the same person and across the team) are themes that weave throughout this dissertation.

COMMENTARY: WHAT ARE THESE STORIES ABOUT?

Taken together, these and other stories to follow, span the temporal, spatial and situational contexts of the social studies team's actions together. They depict the process and content of the collaborative work in multiple contexts, showing the slow development of working relationships and roles, themes and purposes of the work, and changing work forms and content. The complexity of collaborative work begins to emerge, with close-up

descriptions of the problems of forging new roles while acting in the same contexts, acting in ways that challenge the salient norms of privacy in teaching, and connecting collaborative work among professionals to teaching and student learning.

The movements that players make in the work I illustrate resembles those of professional actors working with new colleagues and wondering what to expect of the situation, how they should act, what power they might have, and how to express their thoughts about the piece of art they are staging. Rather than operating as a one-person show, the actors become interdependent. They share their interpretations of the play--the character and qualities of human experiences as depicted in it--and act from jointly constructed understandings of the situation. In collaborative work among teachers, Little refers to this interdependence as "joint work". She defines this kind of work as:

> ...encounters among teachers that rest on shared responsibility
> for the work of teaching (interdependence), collective
> conceptions of autonomy, support for teachers' initiative and
> leadership with regard to professional practice, and group
> affiliations grounded in professional work. (Little, 1990, p. 519)

In the remaining parts of this dissertation, I describe the substance of two years of collaborative work by the social studies team as they shared responsibility for enhancing the teaching and learning of social studies. My research questions are: 1. What is the actual collaborative work? How do participants perceive their work? What do they actually do?

2. What are the consequences of the collaborative work, especially for student and adult learning?

3. What are the contexts and conditions of the work between two traditionally separate cultures and institutions--the high school and university? -and its potential and realized influence on students' learning?

I conceive of thoughtful joint work, grounded in teaching practice and aimed at studying the learning of students and teachers as the enactment of thoughtfulness, which I discuss in the Chapter Two. Using this theoretically and practically-derived framework, I then describe and analyse the the social studies team's collaboration and an creating an inquiry (Chapter Three), and team work (Chapter Four) and student learning (Chapter Five). In Chapter Six I conclude the dissertation with an analysis of the ways in which the social studies team is an example of the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration. In that chapter I also have a letter written to colleagues who might try enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration, and the three most important thoughts I've gained from working with the social studies team at Hodges PDS.

CHAPTER TWO
COLLABORATIVE TEACHER RELATIONS:
PROBLEMS, RECONCEPTIONS, AND INQUIRY

THE STUDY OF COLLABORATIVE TEACHER RELATIONS

> Serious collaboration, by which teachers engage in the rigorous mutual examination of teaching and learning, turns out to be rare...Collaborative efforts run counter to historical precedent, tending to be unstable, short-lived and secondary to other priorities...An emphasis on cooperation may place a premium on coherence and uniformity at the expense of individual inventiveness and independent initiative. Cooperation on any meaningful scale will almost certainly require rethinking the present organization of human and material resources. (Little, 1990c, p. 187-188)

Little's conclusion and cautionary note after reviewing the literature about teachers' collaborative relations (see Little, 1990a; Little, 1990b) also accurately portrays the investigations of others. Running contrary to cultural patterns of isolation and individualism in teaching and to the organizational structures commonplace in the profession (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986; Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990; Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989; Smylie, 1992; Waller, 1932), collaboration among teachers seems like an enigma rather than the norm many current policy initiatives hope to promote. The cultural and organizational patterns that maintain the rarity of teachers' collegial relations and instability wreak havoc on efforts to enact thoughtfulness in collaboration that can enhance learning for students and professionals.

When the social studies team began, Bill and I had many conversations about how the traditional cultural and organizational environments in which the team was embedded might thwart the efforts of our group. With many years of

experience working in schools and thinking about professional relations, Bill appeared skeptical about how our efforts could be different from other collaborative ventures that fizzled out over the last few decades. Though our group was part of a professional development school effort, we had no notion of what such an effort might do or enable. My fieldnotes show many of our questions, asked over lunches and quick hallway chitchats, during the fall, 1989: What will this team actually do, and why? Who will benefit from our efforts? How will we learn to cooperate--work in ways that respect the needs of all participants--school and university-based teachers and students? How will teachers with over 20 years experience integrate new ideas, challenge old and new, and enhance the expertise they already have? What will our collaboration have to do with student learning? How can we avoid the pitfalls of other collaborative ventures that show no lasting changes after the funding evaporated? The concurrent question for me, in my researcher role, was: What could I learn from studying this group that might lend something new to our understandings about collaborative professional relations?

The Literature about Collaborative Teacher Work

While participating in the team, and collecting my data, I combed the literature to learn what other teacher collaborative groups did, how they worked, and the kinds of successes they had. Also, I wanted to explore different conceptualizations of collaboration in an effort to understand the various aspects of collaboration that have been studied. My efforts were disappointing; I found few

attempts to conceptualize collegial relations, and little in the way of guidance for either _doing_ the work or _studying_ it.

What Counts as a "Study of Collaboration"?

Deciding what literature to review presented my first major obstacle. Since collaboration is back in vogue as a favored educational reform strategy, discussions about it appear in literature about educational change at the individual, classroom, school, and district level (e.g., (Fullan, Bennett, & Rolheiser-Bennett, 1990; Fullan, 1991; Sarason, 1982). Since establishing and maintaining collaborative relations demands change in current schooling structures and cultures, collaborative work arrangements gain attention in essays about work conditions (e.g., Little, 1990a; Lortie, 1975) and restructuring efforts (e.g., Hart, 1990; Smylie, 1992), and in writings about the nature of teaching and the push toward enhancing the profession (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 1988; Sykes, 1990.)

Since I was studying the actual unfolding of a collaborative relationship, I began looking at literature that described interactions between and among teaching professionals. The literature varied in terms of who participitated in the relationships (e.g., novice and experienced teachers, school-based and university-based educators), for what purposes (e.g., working together to put in place new curriculum and/or instruction in literacy, mathematics, establishing new governance structures) and toward what ends (e.g., learning to teach ethnically and racially diverse students, learning ways to represent content in multiple venues for learners, challenging larger social and political contexts that shape teachers' work).

Studies were based on chronologies of when the work began, what goals the work had, and its "results." Usually reported via surveys, or in a few cases narrative accounts, most empirical work provided little detail and even less interpretive analysis about the processes of participants' enactment of their collaborative work nor what resulted from it.

Methodologies

A range of methodological strategies were used, from surveys with large sampling populations, sometimes connected to open-ended questions and follow-up interviews (Johnson, 1990; Parker, 1986; Ponticell, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1989; Smylie, 1992) to a very small but growing number of case studies. Using a longitudinal design, case studies often incorporate interviews and observations of collaborative meetings and even some classroom work (e.g., Feiman-Nemser & Parker, in press; McCarthey & Peterson, in press; Miller, 1990.) The latter kinds of studies incorporate narrative vignettes that describe processes and offer participants' beliefs about what they are doing, the intended results, and the actual consequences as they see them.

Empirical work focuses mostly on the school as the unit of analysis, sometimes narrowing the analysis to an individual teacher working in a group (e.g., McCarthey and Peterson, in press) or to the whole group of participants (e.g., Campbell, 1988; Rosaen & Hoekwater, 1990), but often embedding individual teacher beliefs and actions in the larger contexts of school-wide, district, or school-university partnership initiatives (e.g., David, 1990; see also empirical work conducted by the

Center for Research on the Context of Secondary School Teaching, Stanford

University, and cases of school-university partnerships detailed in Sirotnik &

Goodlad, 1988). Most of the published literature in journals and books is written by

university-based faculty, who appear primarily responsible for the research and

writing. Many of these researchers also participate in the work, though I found very

few pieces that directly address the enactment, conflicts, and questions within the

participant-observer role in professional collaborations (see Campbell, 1988 and

Miller, 1990 for notable exceptions.)

Identifying My Focus

Wading through this literature while participating in collaborative work

helped me focus my inquiry around learning how professional collaborative

relationships among teachers within schools and between schools and universities

unfold over time. Specifically, I wanted to learn in what ways these relationships

contribute to teacher and student learning. These initial research questions

paralleled the questions that Ken and Gary asked when we began the social studies

team in that their questions--and mine--were concerned with students' learning.

I narrowed my examination of the literature to two areas. Looking at

literature about professional relations between teachers from colleges and schools,

and what happens within them, led me to close scrutiny of professional

development school efforts and an examination of historic kinds of partnerships

relations between schools and universities (e.g., lab schools). The other arena of

literature I examined is much broader and more amorphous. Wanting to learn

about the substance of collaborative teachers' work, I focused my explorations on work that centered around classroom curricular and instructional change with the aim of altering learning. Many collaborative efforts around issues of school governance, school restructuring, and work redesign aim at enhancing student learning, yet those efforts seem far removed from altering and enhancing pupil learning. Therefore, when looking at the substance of collaborative teacher work, I explored efforts in which educators asked questions about their practices or policies in schools--similar to what we were doing on the social studies team--directly related to student and teacher learning. Since the professional development school literature is thin, I opened my search to include various kinds of structured relations between teachers within schools and within universities (e.g., relations not characterized as PDS). I wanted to find out about the collaborative processes teachers have used to ask questions and to find answers, and what resulted from it in terms of learning for teachers and students.

School-University Relationships

I was struck in my reading with the kinds of partnerships between universities and schools that developed prior to the professional development school movement. Some of these are historically well-known and documented (e.g., the Horace Mann School at Teachers College , established in 1887, and the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago, established in 1899). Other relationships are less advertised and do not fit neatly into an existing kind of structured relationship, like "laboratory school" (e.g., the partnership between

Albuquerque Public Schools and the University of New Mexico--see Auger & Odell, 1992). Lab schools and portal schools share with the current emphasis on professional development schools many similar goals. All three partnerships hoped to be a place where new curriculum could be designed, new instructional practices as well as new teachers could be inducted, and research could be done (Nystrand, 1991; Stallings & Kowalski, 1990; Winitzky, Stoddart, & O'Keefe, 1992).

The professional development school movement seems to differ from previous ventures in that it adopts a systems approach to change, involving a large range of school-based and university-based participants (e.g., school administrators and university faculty in colleges and departments other than education). Furthermore, the PDS effort is infused with these dominant recurring themes in the new wave of reform: fundamental changes in expectations for student learning, the professionalization of teaching, and changes in traditional organizational structures (Elmore, 1990).

Professional Development Schools

Highlighted in two very influential national reform agendas in the late 1980s (the Carnegie Forum's Report (1986) and the Holmes Reports (1986; 1990), clinical schools or the more popular term "professional development schools" are a growing phenomenon in educational reform efforts. Looked upon as places where the education of children and teachers (from schools and universities) can be enhanced, these kinds of partnerships are often seen as panaceas for change. Yet three aspects of the professional development school initiative give us just reason

to hesitate. First, professional development schools lack a clear conceptualization about purposes, nature of the work, and significance of the joint venture. Secondly, there is a paucity of literature about the processes of work and change in professional partnership schools. And finally, partnership arrangements are complex and conflictual since they necessitate significant and lasting changes in the traditional cultural patterns of beliefs and thought, action, roles, and expectations in the two institutions.

Conceptualization of Professional Relations

Though I do not advocate that one conception of a professional development school be adopted and used by all participants--such an idea actually runs counter to the assumption that members of a PDS partnership will each benefit by identifying the nexus of their needs and interests--I do believe that participants must discuss views and identify ideas about what they want to learn, how they want to benefit, and how each member's needs can be met through a professional development school. Different from just laying out purposes, or just planning processes, or just evaluating outcomes, a conception of the work can enable members to connect purposes, work substance, processes, and significance. When problems arise due to cultural differences, structural incongruities, or personal biases, they can be managed by appealing to the broader set of ideas from which the work flows. Goals, content, roles, and processes of work can be altered accordingly.

The paucity of clear conceptions promotes a reliance on old structures; what else is there to work with? And not surprisingly, these structures usually come

from organizations outside the school. For example, funding sources and state mandates often shape and alter innovations (Smith, 1992). In addition, university teacher education programs often provide the basis for beginnings of programs (see Smith, 1992 for her report of a follow-up study of programs that received the ATE Distinguished Program in Teacher Education Awards from 1977-1989). When structural and conceptual guidance come from the university, issues about equity and reciprocity between the school and university arise (we faced this at Hodges PDS; other cases are described in Sirotnik & Goodlad (1988), in a review of literature about professional development schools by Stallings and Kowalski (1990), and in special issues of the Journal of Teacher Education, 1992, 43(1) and Teaching Education, 1992, 4(2).)

Often the difficulty of connecting purposes and collaborative practices is avoided. Cases of the development of professional development schools recount the struggles to find the time, write proposals for resources, learn how to talk honestly and with trust (see the examples I listed above.) Issues like connecting aims, practices, and outcomes in professional development school work, and facing the often associated but unspoken conflicts among participants' orientations and beliefs, require a lot of effort to understand and manage. Probably because of the difficulty in broaching such issues and having extended conversations about them, professional development school members seem to often avoid the discussions and choose to exist with only vague conceptions of where they are headed and why.

Paucity of Literature

The experiences of the social studies team in which we found no literature to turn to for guidance, questions, and a sense of comraderie--a kind of "Whew, they had to face this problem, too!"--is far from unique. Though we see more descriptive material currently about professional development work than we did in 1989 when the team began (e.g., the collections of empirical work and essays collected in Sirotnik and Goodlad (1988), Stallings and Kowalski (1990), and the Journal of Teacher Education, and Teaching Education), this material provides us with what Little summarized as a sense of teachers' beliefs and interests only, concentrating on the forms of collaborative work rather than the substance. Furthermore, when content is discussed, the focus is on categorizing kinds of collaborative discourse and descriptions of programs. Missing from this work, Little concludes, is a

> close-grained account of the moral and intellectual dispositions that
> teachers bring to or develop in the course of their relations with one
> another...(and) careful scrutiny of the actual talk among teachers, the
> choices teachers make in concert, or the ways in which individual
> actions follow from the deliberations of the group. (Little, 1990b, p. 524)

While still emphasizing the structures of collaborative work without explaining what happens, current literature also seems to give precedence to participants' testimony rather than description and discussion of collaborative content. Essays provide different participants' perspectives by presenting their own thoughts in journals (e.g., Bruneau, Henderson, McCracken, Kimble, & Hawthorne, 1992, or taped conversations (e.g., Miller, 1990). Other pieces categorize participants' ideas in order to emphasize different characteristics integral to PDS work (e.g.,

Rushcamp & Roehler, 1992), while still others try to draw conclusions from participants' self-reports about, for example, the importance of a cacophony of voices in PDS work (Navarro, 1992). While compelling and descriptive about the struggles of partnership work, these accounts still provide little information about how relationships develop over time, what happens within them, and in what ways collaborative work supports individual action in classes with students (whether in a school or university). Furthermore, testimony and description of structures continue to provide little in terms of the content of collaborative relations, the consequences of the work, and its pitfalls and successes over time[1].

Altering the Cultures

All the essays I examined about professional development work, as well as the historic patterns of relations between schools and colleges of education, agree strongly about one thing: schools and education colleges have very different ways of thinking about action, understanding and generating new knowledge, and building and maintaining mutually productive relationships. Writers offer lists of characteristics found in worthwhile human relations--for example, caring and trust. We see historic documentation about misunderstandings between institutions; about the lack of caring, trust, and honesty in relations; and about the historic focuses of generating theory at the university and working atheoretically in schools.

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[1]In searching the literature, I went back into the sixties, though concentrated on the seventies and eighties. These were the decades in which modern reform efforts began. But, historic pieces such as Mitchell's (1951) Our Children and Our Schools could have informed the social studies team's efforts in terms of processes and kinds of content that could be explored collaboratively.

What we do not see are close-to-the-collaborative-work[2] descriptions of the ways that people began understanding each other's goals and thinking, the ways they developed caring and trustful relations, the problems they needed to overcome, and the consequences of deriving a new kind of "scholarly activity" that combines scholarship and practice within new collegial structures, invites the creation of new ways of thinking about knowing, and assiduously studies school programs and cultures (Lieberman, 1992, p. 8). Moreover, most descriptions never discuss the ways participants chose to handle--or avoid--the inherent conflict that develops when two differing perspectives are joined. Without such honest accounts that unravel over time, we miss the connections between caring relationships, generating new knowledge, or creating new ways to think about theory and practice.

The Substance of Collaborative Teachers' Work

The bulk of studies about teachers' collaborative work focuses on school-based teachers; studies about university-based teachers' joint work are next to non-existant[3]. Most essays document collaborative work around issues of special education inclusion, adopting and enacting new curricular programs (especially in literacy), and changes in governance (most notably in establishing site-based management plans).

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[2]Here I borrow from Little's (1990c) use of the phrase "close to the classroom".

[3]Some studies are beginning, many in pilot stages. For example, see Schram (1992).

Like the literature around partnership relations between schools and universities, literature about collaborative work even within institutions focuses on organizational outcomes, not process. Everything about the work appears rosy and without conflict. The collaboration itself seems to be only a means toward an end of instituting a policy mandate about structural, curricular, or instructional change. Consequently, the worth and benefit of the collaboration is not treated as a phenomenon for study.

Commentary about the Literature on Teachers' Relations

I draw three conclusions from searching the literature about teachers' collaborative relations. First, the term "collaboration" remains conceptually and theoretically vague. This has implications for recent policy mandates that throw teachers into collaborative work groups with little to no discussion about the intent, potential, and consequences of the endeavors. Furthermore, often "advocates for collegiality do so on the basis of prescription rather than description." The prescription may enable an emphasis on the presumed benefits of collaboration, with a concurrent loss of a close examination of institutional norms, prior beliefs and knowledge participants have about collaborative work, and the substance of the project or problem around which the collaboration will center (Campbell & Southworth, 1990, p. 2). Judith Warren Little calls for clarity by arguing that collaborative efforts do not always result in enhancement of education. Collaborations can be, she writes, "instruments both for promoting change and for conserving the present". Current forms of teacher interactions (e.g., story telling,

providing help and advice, and sharing materials, methods, ideas, and opinions) may actually encourage isolationism in teachers and the belief that what they are doing is adequate and beyond reproach (Little, 1990b, p. 509). Strong empirical evidence for Little's cautions abound in a study of collegiality among British primary teachers. Nias and her associates (Nias, Southworth, & Yeomans, 1989) found that teachers seek out "reference groups" in which they find individuals who support and reinforce the values and understandings they have. Teachers were content with their convictions, supported by some colleagues, and thus did not seek to work with other colleagues with whom they might have to defend their ideas or be challenged to change their ways of thinking.

My related second conclusion is that the literature lacks discussions about the educative aims of collaborative work, both for participants and students. With no conceptual or theoretical grounding, collaborative work often simply flows along with little to no assessment about means and ends relationships. Deliberation and reasoning about goal setting and achievement, learning and arguing about conflicting beliefs and practices, and evaluating consequences are often set aside for the immediacy of the work. What is educative, and miseducative within the relationships and about the outcomes of the work is rarely mentioned.

A final conclusion is that a host of connected socio-political issues around teachers' collaborative relations must also be explored. Campbell and Southworth have gathered a list:

> Democracy and hierarchy, participation and control, leadership and collaboration do not necessarily sit easily alongside one another. In the

absence of case studies showing how these matters are resolved "on the ground", in schools, we await a comprehensive analysis. (Campbell and Southworth, 1990 , p. 3)

To this list I would add the difficulty of talking with school/university colleagues about orientations to teaching and learning and ideological perspectives that differ radically when one teaches along side people day after day . Also, conflict and collegiality often do not sit well together either. In addition to identifying these often competing aspects of collaborative work, we need description of the underlying assumptions about the change that collaborative relations may bring about. At whom are changes aimed, for instance, and upon what criteria—and whose—will new practices be assessed and mandated? These aspects of working together are not resolvable—socio-political issues remain as inherent phenomena in any relationship—but in order that they not stop the collaborative work, these powerfuls dynamics should be recognized and understood when appropriate. Here again, the literature gave little clues about the ways that socio-political dynamics play themselves out and get handled.

Without more exploration and conversations in which we aim to define what collaboration means in situ, what educative dimensions the work supports, and the socio-political aspects of these collaborative relations, our expectations of what collaboration can do remain ungrounded and premature. As we contemplate the process and substance of collaborative work, we first must think about the ultimate goal of it; that is, to enhance education.

Key Missing Points

Keeping in mind the particulars of the team I was studying, hunches I had about what was happening in our team, and pieces of the literature that mainly kept reminding me how little we knew about the process of collaboration, I identified three key missing points I wanted to know more about as a participant and researcher, and on which my study might shed light. These questions eventually helped me shape, and continually reshape, my research questions.

1. What happens in secondary classrooms when teachers collaborate about teaching and learning? What little we know about collaborative work related to classroom practice speaks mostly about elementary school (e.g., Nias, Southworth, & Yeomans, 1989) , and as I've pointed out speaks little to the process and related consequences of collaboration. Although there have been in the last decade a considerable number of studies of American high schools (e.g., Cusick, 1983; Lightfoot, 1983; Perrone, 1985; Powell, Farrar, & Cohen, 1985), along with the creation of the Center for Research on the Contexts of Secondary Teaching, these studies have provided broad views of teaching and learning in high schools with only glimpses of detail about what actual teaching and learning look like. Even the essay by Ball and Lacey about teachers' collaborative work in subject matter departments in four British comprehensive schools focuses on the similarities and differences among teachers' beliefs and the overall departments' strengths to influence school policy. No links to student learning were made (Ball & Lacey, 1984).

2. Two groups of people seemed systematically excluded from current empirical

investigations about collaboration: learners, and university-based people who work

in schools with teachers and students.

3. In what ways is the role of the participant-observer perceived and enacted in a

collaboration? What are the felt conflicts and dilemmas? What can a professional

educator learn about teaching and learning through collaborative work?

Over and over as I read pieces I wondered about the connections between

collaborative work among professionals and learning. Attention to the

methodological and conceptual complexities of hooking student and adult

professional learning through collaboration has not been undertaken (Little, 1990b).

That undertaking would involve thinking about the kind of learning we want to

promote, as well as how we would promote it. Therefore, my dissertation reports

on attempts to use Little's notion of "joint work," described as

> ...encounters among teachers that rest on shared responsibility for the
> work of teaching (interdependence), collective conceptions of
> autonomy, support for teachers' initiative and leadership with regard
> to professional practice, and group affiliations grounded in professional
> work (Little, 1990b, p. 519)

and move one step beyond by linking evidence of joint work with conceptions of

pupil and teacher learning. In addition, I provide a portrait from both the

inside--my two-year participation in the work--and the outside--my analyses made

one year after my involvement--of collaborative work in the social studies team at

Hodges Professional Development School. My research questions, reshaped

through my concurrent analyses of my data and the literature, enable me to describe and study learning by looking at

1. What is the actual collaborative work? How do participants perceive their work? What do they actually do?

2. What are the consequences of the collaborative work, especially for student and adult learning?

3. What are the contexts and conditions of the work between two traditionally separate cultures and institutions--the high school and university? What are the work's potential and realized influence on students' learning?

ENACTMENT OF THOUGHTFULNESS IN COLLABORATION

Preliminary analyses of my data led me to see a common theme in what students, individual teachers, and the team was doing: the evolution of thoughtfulness in talk, action, and thought. I use the phrase "the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration" to refer to the ongoing cycle of talk, experimentation, and inquiry about teaching practice that can go on in a professional collaboration. The concept illustrates certain aspects of the social studies team's essence, and my study of it, as well as an ideal to seek for any collaborative venture.

My definition of the idea begins by defining the terms. "Thoughtfulness" is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary and Webster's Dictionary as that which is characterized by careful reasoned thinking, and given to heedful anticipation of the needs and wants of others. Though now a rare use of the word, the Oxford English

Dictionary adds that being thoughtful can be synonymous with "having the intention or purpose, aiming at or desirous of something (italics in original). "Enactment" means to act out and to represent.

Taken together, these words help me illustrate in concrete and conceptual terms actions and their consequences for the social studies team. Interacting in ways that were heedful of others—high school students, prospective teachers, and themselves, team members carefully reasoned about the plans and actions they took on behalf of these people. Their deliberations resulted in many ideas about what might happen in practice. After bringing ideas to fruition through experiments in the classroom, teammates made systematic inquiries through conversations about what happened in their practices. Conversations took on a kind of thoughtfulness, e.g., listening to colleagues' points, arguing about aspects of them, collective reasoning about the likely success of a set of plans, negotiating ways to talk about ideas to members outside the team.

Thoughtfulness not only characterizes the process of work, but also its consequences. The team's ideas, which individuals acted on in their classes and the members debated in the team's meetings, were filled with diverse thoughts about how to support students (e.g., how to clarify assignments without taking away opportunities for students to do what made sense to them), how to alter curriculum and instruction (e.g., plan thematic units), and how to change school structures (e.g., homogenous grouping by ablility). In sum, the team acted toward each other in

thoughtful ways about teaching and learning practices, and the students they hoped to touch.

Thoughtfulness also defined the team; it described the kinds of changes team participants noted in themselves and in students. What students pointed out in classroom discussions and the ways they challenged, refuted, and built upon one another's ideas sounded very much like the ways team members interacted with one another. Both sets of participants acted in thoughtful ways by bringing to bear multiple perspectives, questions, and issues in discussions about alternative actions to take, whether completing a class assignment or designing a curriculum.

Defining the Enactment of Thoughtfulness in Collaboration

In this section, I elaborate my definition of the enactment of thoughtfulness, and offer it as a framework for examining the social studies team's work. A growing body of literature examines the sources and kinds of knowing that educators use to enact and reform their practices. This literature draws our attention to the fragile, often tacit understandings that guide teachers' actions and shape their inquiries. I draw upon these studies to introduce and define a slightly different concept--the enactment of thoughtfulness--to broaden our ideas about what "knowing" in teaching means when teachers work collaboratively.

When educators work together, they face an intrinsic dilemma in human communication: how do we make the tacit, the implicit, the taken-for-granted explicit so we can examine it with colleagues? In all forms of collaborative work, understanding what others think and do is essential if the collaboration is to be

worthwhile and beneficial. But making beliefs and actions explicit to others, often when they have remained under cover even to oneself, is a formidable task.

In addition to basic communicative essentials of making ideas and beliefs understandable to others, studies of collegial enterprises suggest that conditions of collaborative relations and culturally diverse patterns of action and thought also create difficulties. These factors, along with communicative realities, make for an environment in which people in professional collaborations must design conditions for making the collaboration worthwhile while concurrently wrestling with ideas and actions.

Components of Thoughtfulness in Collaboration

Enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration is a process that touches upon three aspects of teachers' professional relations: the set of beliefs and actions--the thoughts--participants discuss and act upon, the nature of interactions within discussions, and the consequences of collegial work in terms of student and adult learning. In other words, thoughtfulness defines both the nature of the relationships and the substance and outcomes of the work.

See Figure 2.1: Web of Thoughts about Teaching and Learning

In order to describe the interrelated aspects of this concept, I invoke an image of a ball filled with beliefs and impressions, embedded in cultural histories, personal biographies, and practical experiences. These thoughts would constitute the basis for inquiry and action in teaching.
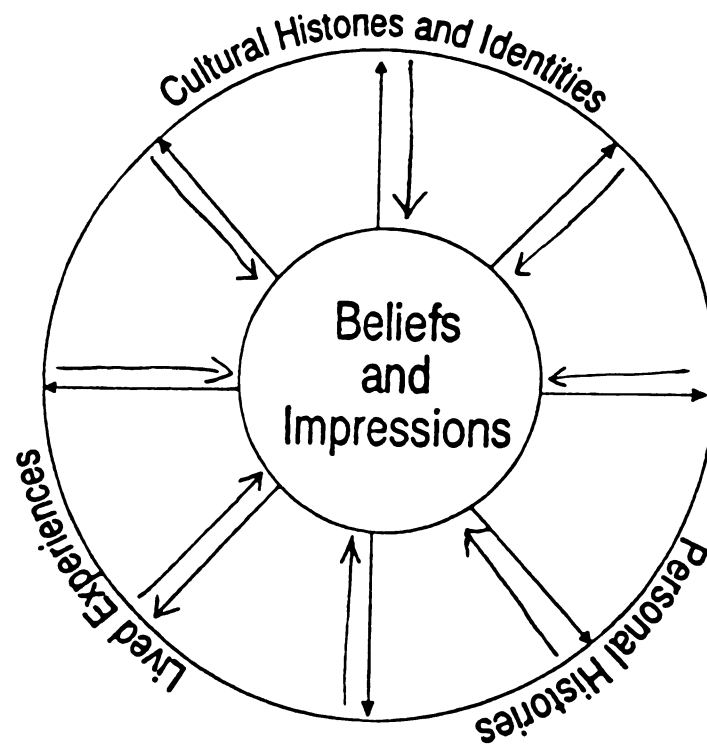
Figure 2.1: Web of Thoughts about Teaching and Learning

See Figure 2.2: The Enactment of Thoughtfulness in Collaboration

We would see people acting upon these thoughts in this way: (1) within caring and supportive relationships, participants would be (2) having conversations through which they would be (3) shaping and reshaping experiments having to with learning and advancing a (4) certain kind of teaching practice.

In the next sections I examine these four aspects of enacting thoughtful collaboration, suggesting characteristics that mark the importance and presence of it. In order to define the characteristics, I found myself drawing upon theoretical ideas and principles from diverse areas and empirical studies and reviews focused on grounded experiences of participants in collaborative work. Moving between the particulars of people's everyday experiences and abstract theory enabled me to see the "reciprocal relationship between data and theory," for as Lather argues

> Data must be allowed to generate propositions in a dialectical manner
> that permits use of a priori theoretical frameworks, but which keeps a
> particular framework from becoming the container into which the data
> must be poured. The search is for theory which grows out of
> context-embedded data, not in a way that automatically rejects a priori
> theory, but in a way that keeps preconceptions from distorting the logic
> of evidence. (Lather, 1986, p. 267)

See Table 2.1: The Enactment of Thoughtfulness

Relationships

The importance of relationships to the concept of the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration is two-fold. First, collaboration involves interaction and interaction necessitates relating to other people. Secondly, enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration involves careful reasoned thinking which can often
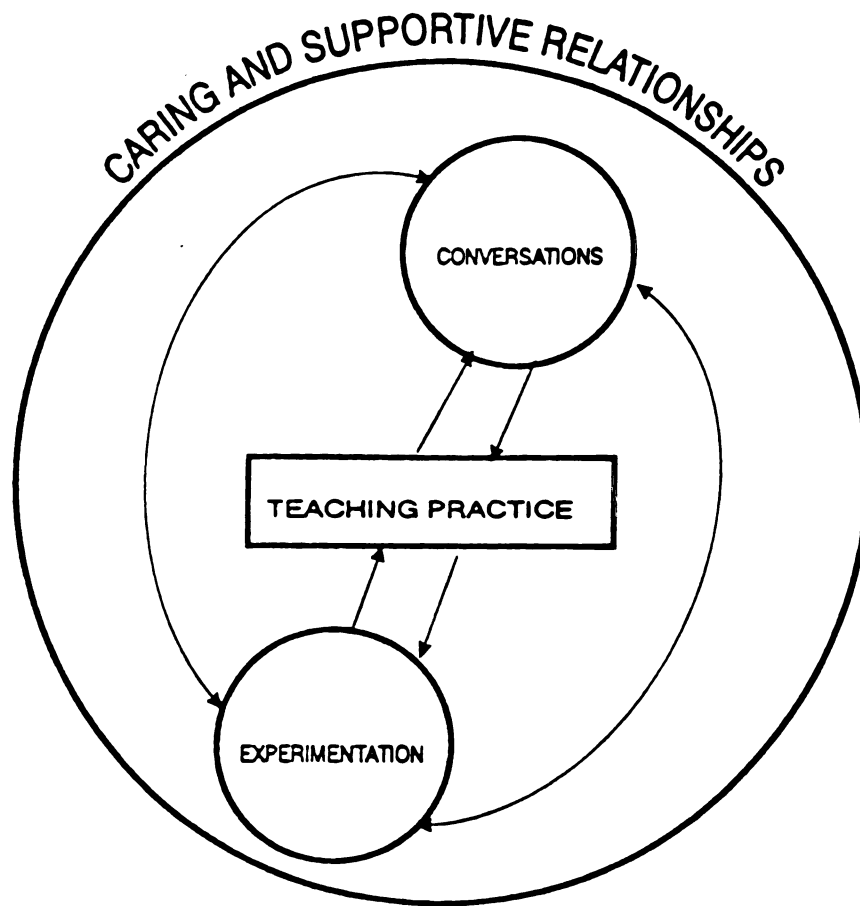
Figure 2.2: The Enactment of Thoughtfulness in Collaboration

Table 2.1

The Enactment of Thoughtfulness in Collaboration

RELATIONSHIPS	CONVERSATIONS	EXPERIMENTATION	SPECIAL TCHG PRACTICE
Attention to caring (Noddings)	Purposes jointly designed and aimed at bettering teaching and learning (Buchmann; Florio-Ruane; Luckmann	Pre-planned and deliberative (Schon; van Manen)	"Teaching against the grain" (Cochran-Smith)
Trust for each other	Openness to new ideas and differing points of view (Belenky; Gadamer; Witherell)	"Thoughtful action"--experimentation on-the-spot (van Manen)	"Adventurous teaching" (Cohen)
Honesty	Taking on different roles	"Conversations with the situation" (Schon)	"This kind of teaching" (Nat'l Center for Research in Teacher Learning)
Form of social contract	Rich descriptions of participants' actions and thoughts (Cochran-Smith;		

be part of generating new kinds of knowing and understanding about teaching. Relationships through which thoughtfulness can be enacted share three features—attention to caring, trust for one another, honesty—that form a set of obligations I liken to a social compact[4].

Caring is the central element in the kinds of collaborative relationships I am describing; it is the piece that enables a social compact to develop. Whether acting in formal collaborations or not, as members of humanity we are bound to each other and in some way must care for one another. The question thus becomes: what is the extent of our obligation to care? Noddings develops two criteria for governing obligations of caring: "the existence of or potential for present relations, and the dynamic potential for growth in relation, including the potential for increased reciprocity and, perhaps, mutuality. The first criterion establishes an absolute obligation and the second serves to put our obligations into an order of priority" (Noddings, 1984, p. 86). In the kinds of collaborative relationships I want to see, obligations of mutuality and reciprocity become a priority as participants operate under a conception of interdependence in teaching that will support mutual investigations of learning. Furthermore, participants are bound together in developing relations in which shared and complementary kinds of learning take place.

Trust and honesty become necessary parts of the caring relationship because they enable reciprocal learning. Trust and forthrightness are themselves connected

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[4]I am indebted to Mark Smylie for the addition of this idea.

when present in collaborative work. Forthrightness in a group demands trust; trust promotes deeper revelations of one's views and experiences. Collaboration in which honesty and trust mark the exchanges invites expertise and commitment to appear next to those views and practices that peers consider less admirable. Thus, the presence of trust and forthrightness can support a conception of teaching as problematic, open to alternate interpretations formed via inquiry. To care, to trust, and to be honest are elements that shape the range of content, forms of conversation and work, and potential for growth within the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration.

Conversation

The enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration holds conversation as a central means toward the goal of enhancing and studying teaching and learning. I focus on conversation because it is the vehicle through which we share our observations, interpretations, questions, and beliefs. Through conversation, the self comes in contact with others and with the cultural communities in which our lives are embedded (Witherell & Noddings, 1991). Through these contacts, we come to appreciate new ideas, challenge beliefs, and alter interpretations in order to create new meanings. Writes Buchmann, "What makes conversation attractive is its reciprocal quality, the breadth of subject matter and variety of voices compatible with it, and the surprising turns it may take" (Buchmann, 1983, p. 3).

What do I mean by conversation? Along with other scholars, Florio-Ruane has argued that conversation is a particular kind of extended dialogue that takes

place within a relationship and has the purpose of drawing out speakers' ideas and knowledge (Florio-Ruane, 1992). Gadamer (Gadamer, 1982) reminds us that conversation is a process in which people try to make sense of a particular subject and arrive at new meanings. The philosopher Robert Nash suggests that in conversation people often exchange opposing ideas formally and informally through daily living (Nash, n.d., as cited in Florio-Ruane, 1992) . Given these ideas, and drawing upon my experiences within the social studies team, I suggest four features of conversations that we would see within the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration: 1) conversations will have purposes, decided upon by the group, aimed at bettering teaching and learning for professionals and students; 2) conversations will be characterized by an openness toward other people's ideas and thoughts, and honesty about experiences and feelings, attention to the personal values that emerge from this kind of sharing, and evaluation of one's own stance vis-a-vis others' points of view; 3) participants will at times take on different roles during conversations; 4) conversations will include rich descriptions of participants' teaching, thinking, struggles.

Conversational purposes. In the enactment of thoughtfulness in the status, and institutional differences, but rather by the thoughts and thoughtfulness about learning that bind the group together. Buchmann (1983) has argued that conversations, rather than argumentation, can help university-based and school-based participants transcend status differences by maintaining a focus on the breadth and depth of content within the

conversations. Ideas informed by theory and practice share the floor (Florio-

Ruane, 1991). The role of conversation, then, is important in the enactment of

thoughtfulness in collaboration because participants bring ideas and beliefs

colored from different experiences, different institutional and political

structures, and different cultural mores of action and thought. These

differences in turn shape the depth and breadth of conversational purposes, in

both momentary discussions (e.g., when colleagues talk after a class observation)

as well as long-term conversations in which one idea braids itself into many

connected conversations (indeed, the idea becomes the connecting tissue among

the conversations.)

Openness and honesty. When conversations are aimed at constructing

thoughtfulness in the enactment of collaboration, they often "grow out of

connections and they cement connections." (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, &

Tarule, 1986, p. 116) I refer here to the connections of ideas, values, and

understandings, and to the important presence of trust and honesty within

conversational exchanges. Conversational connections are formed through

what Gadamer calls the art of conversation, which includes placing in the open

many different issues and ideas (Gadamer, 1982, as cited in McConaghy, 1991).

Doing this often necessitates a lot of explanation and clarification of personal

values and "evaluation of one's ideas through seeing our thoughts from

another's point of view and re-presenting them to ourselves for reflection and interpretation" (McConaghy, 1991). In addition, conversants must be aware that others are listening and thinking with them.

Multiple participant roles. Within both single and multiple exchange conversations, participants may take on different roles, e.g., facilitator, documentor, leader of discussion around a particular issue, questioner when enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration. Role perceptions and enactment within conversations will develop from the thoughtful content, purposes of the conversations as well as broader purposes for the collaboration, and the needs of individuals and the group.

Rich description. Conversations within the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration will at times include talk about the daily routines and events of teaching, with the interpretations individuals give to them, with the puzzles and wonderments of teaching, with the dilemmas of the enterprise. Full and careful description make it possible

> for teachers to make explicit what is often implicit, to remember by
> drawing on past experiences, to formulate analogies between seemingly
> unrelated concepts and experiences, and to construct from disparate
> data patterns in students' learning. When teachers' conversations
> build thick description, they conjointly uncover relationships between
> concrete cases and more general issues and constructs. (Cochran-Smith
> & Lytle, in press, p. 15)

While all conversations will not include such full descriptions, the invitation and possibility will be apparent.

Experimentation

Within the concept of the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration, experimentation is both the grist and result of the collaboration; experimentation is what teachers do as they change their practices. It can have two interrelated aspects. One dimension is of a thought-out, planned and deliberative nature, e.g., planning how to teach about the American Revolution or planning an experience in which preservice students face their anxieties about teaching in urban schools. Often these experiments draw on reflections from past lessons, rememberances of conversations about previous lessons, thoughts about "what I should have done or could have done better." Conversations about these kinds of experiments are the essence of thoughfulness in collaboration. Through listening, debating ideas, and co-constructing new ways of thinking about phenomena, participants in thoughtful collaborations can design lessons that one or more people will enact in classrooms. These "experiments" become the grounds of the cycle of thoughtfulness in collaboration for they provide the basis for further conversations, revised plans, and new ideas. But experimentation can have another aspect, one that has immediacy and is situation-specific. Though conscious of previous plans and designs, goals, and agendas, teachers face what van Manen calls "the pedagogical moment...when the pedagogue does something appropriate to learning in relation to a child or young person" (van Manen, 1991, p. 108). Such moments do not allow the teacher to step back and think about those earlier plans because such moments require usually instant action. They require "thoughtful action," writes Van Manen, and

this kind of thinking differs from thinking done before or after the moment when

one can distance oneself. He continues:

> Living the pedagogical moment is a total personal response or
> thoughtful action in a particular situation. Thoughtful action differs
> from reflective action in that it is thinkingly attentive to what it does
> without reflectively distancing itself from the situation by considering
> or experimenting with possible alternatives and consequences of the
> action. (p. 109)

van Manen's distinctions between reflective action and thoughtful action

that takes place on-the-spot becomes relevant in a discussion about enacting

thoughtful collaboration when we consider how experimentation is shaped through

collaboration. Collaborators can design curriculum and instruction. They can watch

each other. They can talk together and co-think about teaching[6]. They can think

back over situations, becoming aware of actions and feelings not consciously

realized or dealt with in the present. These are examples of reflective thought.

But enacting thoughtful collaboration can also shape on-the-spot thoughtful

action. One's ability to reason, to make sense of the ongoing business at hand, to

make connections between and among ideas within the moment can be greatly

enhanced by the opportunities to encounter ideas prior to the moment. van Manen

provides a compelling example of thoughtful action in the moment when he

describes the multiple changes a teacher makes on-the-spot as he introduces his

high school English class to a poem by Rainer Marie Rilke. The moves this teacher

makes, altering the start of the lesson as he connects it to a student's story about

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[6]This lovely term, co-thinking, is the creation of a teacher par excellence in
Albuquerque, New Mexico, George Winchell (personal communication, 1988-1989.)

playing hockey over the weekend or dramatizing and lengthening the story of

Rilke's life, are created and enacted in the present. The reasons for these moves, the

sense they make in situ, can only be understood in action, though they can be

suggested as possibilities in collaborative conversations and design sessions prior to

the teaching.

This kind of thoughtful action within practice is similar to the metaphorical

idea of having conversations with the materials at hand. Drawing on Dewey's

studies of thinking and logic, Schon speaks of conversations within the situation.

> Here an inquirer, in transaction with the materials of the situation,
> encounters a surprise in the form of "back-talk" that momentarily
> interrupts action, evoking uncertainty. The inquirer goes on to
> transform the situation in a way that resolves uncertainty, at least for
> the moment...The inquirer is in the situation, influenced by his
> appreciation of it at the same time that he shapes it by his thinking and
> doing--in Dewey's words, "instituting new environing conditions that
> occasion new problems." (Schon, 1992, p. 121)

Such conversations with the situation, contributing to thoughtful action in

situ, can be enhanced when collaborators exchange ideas and critiques.

Experimentation, and refining it, can become a kind of design, which in Schon's

terminology refers to the ways that "we make things out of the materials of a

situation under conditions of complexity and uncertainty" (Schon, 1992, p. 126). An

epistemology of practice, asserts Schon, is an epistemology of design. An

epistemology of design both within collaborative relations and resulting from it, I

submit, is an epistemology of thoughtful collaboration.

Conversation and Experimentation within the Enactment of Thoughtfulness in Collaboration

Within groups that are enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration, participants experiment about learning in their classsrooms in two ways. In their classrooms, they can put in place ideas created and designed through thoughtful conversation with colleagues. Another kind of experiment results from the thoughtful on-the-spot alterations teachers make which can be spurred on by the collegial conversations mixing with situation-specific immediacy. When people talk about both kinds of experiments--describe how things unfolded, offer interpretations, ask questions about them, wonder about what they could have done differently--the conversations narrow the gap between the self and other.

Conversations that include planning experiments, reasoning about them, and critiquing them become powerful means for connecting people toward joint goals of educational improvement. Conversations about practices aimed at change break the walls of isolation of the self from work (Grumet, 1991) and of self from colleague. These kinds of conversations can become a powerful means for taking on the difficult task of altering teaching and learning.

Teaching Practice

The kinds of teaching practice that can be supported and promoted through the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration have been called "teaching against the grain" (Cochran-Smith, 1991), adventurous teaching (Cohen, 1988), "this kind of teaching" (Center for Research on Teacher Learning, in preparation).

Cochran-Smith's definition of teaching against the grain, and its socio-political

dimensions, include the commonalities among these conceptions of practice, and

the kinds of practice I hope that enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration can enable.

She writes

> ...teachers are decision makers and collaborators who must reclaim
> their roles in the shaping of practice by taking a stand as both educators
> and activists...Teaching against the grain stems from, but also
> generates, critical perspectives on the macro-level relationships of
> power, labor, and ideology...(p. 2-3)

Five themes braid themselves through Cochran-Smith's concept of teaching

against the grain: 1) problematics abound in teaching, and language, practices,

policies, and assumptions need to be challenged continually; 2) knowledge in

teaching is ever-evolving, and teachers are both creators and users of knowledge

and theory; 3) teachers are creators and interpretors of curriculum; 4) tudents bring

individual experiences and resources to the learning context, and they require

careful observation by teachers from many perspectives; 5) teachers are learners

throughout their lives through systematic inquiry and self-critique. Through these

experiences, teachers become reformers mostly from the "inside-out and bottom-up,

but they also collaborate on reforms spear-headed outside of schools and from the

top-down within schools" (p. 2).

This conception of teaching practice, and learning this kind of practice (which

is the main purpose in Cochran-Smith's writings), posits the importance of

deliberation and reasoning about educational change within a society that needs

socio-political reform. And joint work among educators can enable these kinds of

changes, because together teachers can share the responsibility for conceptualizing, enacting, and critiquing change.

The enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration encourages conversation and experimentation about change, keeping student and teacher learning central. The ever-evolving and cyclical process of work in the collaboration--the conversations and experimentations--take place within caring relationships that bound people within socially-agreed upon compacts. In the next section, I explore the ways I chose to examine the social studies team as a potential example of the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

> The commitment to get close, to be factual, descriptive and quotive, constitutes a significant commitment to represent the participants in their own terms...A major methodological consequence of these commitments is that the qualitative study of people in situ is a process of discovery. It is of necessity a process of learning what is happening...It is the observer's task to find out what is fundamental or central to the people or world under observation (Lofland, quoted in Merriam, 1988, p. 68, italics in Merriam)

The design of this study rests upon a fundamental assumption that people make sense of their world and give meaning to it through social interaction. Within the interaction, individuals create and participate in experiences, forming views and orientations toward the world constructed from their life experiences, experiences which are shaped by the cultural, social, political and individual realities of a person's life. When persons choose to work in a collaborative way, I believe they enter into a situation in which they share their sense-making, alter it,

and take responsibility for social construction of new realities in which they and others participate. A dialectic tension thus exists always between self and other[7].

In my role as researcher, I must describe and derive meaning from the talk and activities of social studies team participants which reflects the negotiation and conflict between their individual perspectives as well as their negotiated meanings. Such a task is made complex because of the multiple interpretations participants have which will not be the same. Individual perceptions are influenced by different and differentially-accessible knowledge, expertise, opportunities, power and status dynamics, differences in motivation, and so on. I can work toward describing and analyzing a reality formed by team members by comparing and contrasting interpretations among individuals (including myself), yet that work must be done in a fair and just way which celebrates each individual.

My burden as observer is complicated by my moral obligation to represent in a just manner the world as it appears to the people in the social studies team at Hodges High School, a world that I am both a part of and am studying. To what extent and in what ways shall I exercise the knowledge I gather and construct from my inquiry to effect the team's work? In what ways will my interpretations preclude me from "seeing" the others' viewpoints? What will I do when I realize that participants' interpretations may be alterable given new information or new insight, which I might gain through the inquiry? As Lather points out, a key

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[7]The work of George Herbert Mead has greatly influenced my thinking, especially the essay entitled "The Self" (Mead, 1934).

challenge for a "praxis-oriented research paradigm (is) how to maximize the researcher's mediation between people's self-understandings (in light of the need for ideology critique) and transformative social action without becoming impositional." (Lather, 1986, p. 269)

Such dilemmas lie at the heart of this study and its design. In this section, I discuss methodological aspects of my study, beginning with the sources of my data, collection, and my analyses. Throughout these sections, and especially at the end of the chapter, I address my multiple roles as participant and researcher. In this chapter as in the entire thesis, my changing roles as participant and researcher, the ways I struggled to blend them together, the ways they stood in stark contrast, and the ways the dual roles presented moral, political, and intellectual dilemmas become salient themes throughout this thesis.

Exploring Thoughtful Collaboration: Data Collection and Analysis

My whole dissertation, including the data collection, is a study of a phenomenon that naturally emerged. As a participant I explored the overall effort of establishing a PDS, establishing a team within that effort, and establishing relationships and purposes for work within the team. I played a variety of roles within these efforts, putting on and taking off the costumes for each many times.

My Roles

I began my PDS participation as a "documentor." Hired by the university, and supported through state funds that required documenting the newly-designed "Professional Development Effort," I attended the very beginning meetings between

Midstate, the school district, the union, and eventually Hodges High School (I

describe some of these meetings in Chapter 3.) I listened attentively and kept

detailed fieldnotes noting mostly verbatim what different people said. After

meetings, I often spoke with key people and noted their reactions in my fieldnotes,

too. When Hodges PDS was established in spring, 1989, I attended all the initial

meetings in which participants identified their interests and designed missions

statements and goals. In fall, 1989, when Hodges PDS established a Coordinating

Council for PDS governance, I began attending those meetings (which I continued to

attend throughout the year), and took fieldnotes which I often shared with the

assistant principal who wrote up minutes for the Council and communicated via

memos and newsletters to the Hodges faculty about PDS governance. In addition, I

spoke with PDS participants informally during the 7-10 hours I spent at Hodges per

week as well as having one formal interview with each member of the team during

the 1989-90 school year. In these conversations I learned what participants did in

their PDS work, how they conceptualized this new phenomenon, and how they saw

themselves fitting into it.

Designing the Documentor's Role

What does a documentor do? This was a question that participants from both

Hodges and Midstate asked often. The question became a frequent one in bi-weekly

meetings I had with two colleagues who also "documented" at other PDS schools.

We soon realized that we needed to think about the purposes we served, both for

the state documentation and the participants in the PDS. Our notes of meetings,

and our perceptions from talking to people and seeing many different aspects of PDS work, became valuable to participants. And as documentors, we soon realized that the more we talked with people the more we moved "inside," the more we became participants in this effort. Withholding our perceptions seemed not in the spirit of the collaborative venture, and also felt uncomfortable personally to me. Are we simply notetakers or secretaries, we wondered, or active participants in crafting a new form of joint work?

The documentor role, then, became complex in that at times I took notes while remaining silent. At other times, within the same meetings, I was called upon to review the notes I'd taken (and by doing so I was offering my interpretation since all reality is seen through our subjective lenses), or provide information about Midstate, or offer something I'd seen or heard while talking with people in the school. Privy to participants' views at both institutions, which at times were far from complementary, I straddled my position carefully so that participants at both Hodges and Midstate would still share their honest reactions. I also struggled, with my documentor colleagues, to know which views and information I should include in quarterly reports I wrote, and how I could insure accuracy about facts (e.g., who participated in a project and what the project intended) and sensitivity to individuals in choosing what to share.

Reshaping My Role, and Beginning Dissertation Data Collection

While still in my documentor role during summer, 1989, I became interested in the questions that Ken Larson and Gary Gifford asked (see Chapter 1). Cautious

about taking on yet another responsibility, I reasoned with myself that studying the evolution of the social studies team would help me in my documentor role by providing me with an in-depth case about PDS work in Hodges. Perceiving my participation in this way, I began meeting and working with the team members in fall, 1989[8].

I soon realized that my interests for dissertation study were peeked by the relationships and work I observed in the social studies team. In November, 1989, I informed the team that I'd begun thinking about the possibilities of studying our work. This caught the Hodges-based members by surprise; what happened to mentoring (which was my dissertation topic to that point), they asked. My interest is peeked here, I explained, because in this group we are doing a kind of mentoring of each other, of teacher candidates eventually, and of our students. And I'm here, watching this naturally unfold; what better study about schooling than one that is actually happening? Participants gave their okays, and appeared quite unaffected by seeing me walk around with my fieldnote book and jot things down. They each told me that in their eyes, nothing had changed.

Defining my New Role

In addition to being the "documentor" for the school, I now saw myself as the "documentor" for the team. Teammates' perceptions clarified this, e.g., Bill used to ask me if, "in your documentor role," if I could talk with different people about how

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[8]I review the content and process of this early work in Chapter 1.

they were seeing each other. He never asked me to check back with him; I sensed that he simply wanted it documented.

I began to see myself as something different from a documentor, because I defined a documentor as someone who primarily took notes and shared the notes when asked. I was doing more than that, though. When Bill asked me to talk with team members, especially at Hodges, I found myself being a "liason" between the university and school. Often I would explain administrivia from Midstate, e.g., when the term began and ended. Other times I would explain why some university-based participants were not at Hodges as much, having to clarify roles and expectations of university faculty and graduate students.

In addition to being a liason, I began to feel like a researcher--which had dual implications for me. In early October we felt ready to begin responding to some of the research questions we had designed, and participants often turned to me with questions such as, "How many classroom observations should we do?" "What should we focus on when watching teaching?" "What might a classroom observation form look like?" Having taken a year-long practicum course in fieldwork methods, and having been employed for three years in a national research project using qualitative inquiry methods, I believe that participants felt that I was positioned correctly to design our inquiry. Their belief that I could do this--and my disbelief that I could--forced me to focus throughout the two years of my team involvement on carefully checking the connections between our inquiry methods,

research questions, and conclusions. For me, this new role of "researcher" became extremely educative.

Overlapping roles. These conceptions of my work as documentor, liason, and researcher overlapped as I participated in the team. Beginning with Ken's classes, and then branching out to observe Gary, Bill, and Sally, I observed classes and took fieldnotes. I jotted down what the teacher and students were doing and saying during instruction. When students worked in small groups, which they did especially in Ken's classroom, I circulated. Often, I would jot down bits of their conversations or the ideas they raised and show this to Ken. When I observed in a class, whether at the university or Hodges, I made it a point to have a brief chat with the teacher after class or at lunch or after school. I would mention a question or issue I had heard in a discussion, or something I saw happening that I wasn't certain the teacher had seen. In the months to follow, Ken, Gary, and Bill became used to me lending an extra perspective, and they sometimes asked me to watch a particular thing and give them feedback (e.g., what a specific group of students do, or how students participate in a discussion.)

As a seasoned classroom observer, I felt comfortable watching teaching and learning and talking with participants about it. I entered a new realm, though, when I began recording team meetings. I found it difficult to record the proceedings while participating. I announced to the group, in spring, 1990, that I would probably begin concentrating more on notetaking rather than verbally participating during meetings. Ken, Gary, and Bill each approached me separately with essentially the

same message: your dissertation should not take you away from participating in this team. You were first a team member, and we need your input <u>especially</u> because you are our documentor, they each echoed.

During the summer, I read researchers' ideas about participant-observers (e.g., Erickson, 1986; Merriam, 1988; Spradley, 1980), talked with my committee members, and mulled over the dilemmas of participating in while studying the team. I decided on this strategy: I would tape record team meetings to capture the interactions as they happened as a way of supplementing, but not supplanting my fieldnotes. I reasoned that my tape recording would also help me in two ways. First, team participants had taken to asking me for reminders of what we had said or agreed upon in previous meetings. I had the notes, and I could answer these queries easily except that answering often took my time away from keeping notes. With the tape going, I could recapture after the event what I had missed. Secondly, with the tape going I could participate as a fuller member, and not be consumed by the task of notetaking. Participating fully, (e.g. helping set up student interview protocols and schedules, helping other members learn to interview) was important because my team members counted on me <u>and</u> because <u>I</u> wanted to continue learning through my participation. Also, because the team clearly wanted me to continue participating as a full member, it seemed very selfish to me to change my role to that of "observer only" for my own ends (the dissertation).

<u>Overlapping roles and data collection</u>. In addition to tape recording meetings and taking fieldnotes during naturally occurring events--conversation between

members, classroom observations, and team meetings--I kept a journal about my participation. Through this journal, I realized that my own perceptions of the work as well as my changing roles were important in the overall analyses. Also, I learned that my data collection strategies changed to mirror changes in work processes and aims that the team took. Strategies changed as I became more and more certain of my research questions, which changed as I participated and did research on the team. Strategies also reflect my growing understanding of the importance of the participant-observer role.

Data Sources

In this section I list the data sources that informed my analyses. I gathered them in four categories that capture the range of information I have about individuals and the ways they work: 1) interactions and relationships; 2) classroom happenings; 3) team happenings, and 4) miscellaneous documents.

Conversations and Interviews

• Fieldnotes of naturally-occurring interactions with team participants, including me or those I observed

• Fieldnotes of naturally-occurring interactions about social studies teaching and learning and/or PDS work between team participants and people outside the team (e.g., Ken and special education teachers meet with assistant principal about collapsing fundamental skills American History class into the regular class second semester)

- Fieldnotes and some audiotapes of conversations I had with participants after a key event, e.g., a very conflictual meeting or the end of a set of events, e.g., co-teaching between Bill and Ken

- Fieldnotes and audiotapes of 3-5 hours of formal interviews with key participants in spring, 1990 and spring, 1991

Classroom Happenings

- Fieldnotes from class observations, 11/89 through 6/91

  Ken   (22), plus working with two student teachers

  Gary (7),   plus working with two student teachers

  Bill   (5),   plus leading some student teacher seminars

  Sally (17), including seminar leading and field instruction

- Accompanying documents from class observations

- Students' weekly journals, essays, and matrices from a two-week period around the teaching of a specific unit in spring, 1991

The Team's Records

- Fieldnotes from meetings, 7/89 through 6/91 (over 40 meetings)

- Audiotapes and selected transcriptions of meetings during 8/90 through 6/91

- Documents produced by the team about the team, e.g., reports to the School Board

- Reports written by me in my documentor role

Miscellaneous

- Reports and other historic documents covering the time between the beginning of the Hodges PDS and summer, 1991
- My journal reflections, questions, concerns

Data Analysis

> ...all manner of discovery proceeds by a see-saw of analysis and integration similar to that by which our understanding of a comprehensive entity is progressively deepened. The two complementary movements are a search for the joint meaning of a set of particulars, alternating with a search for the specification of their hitherto uncomprehended meaning in terms of yet unknown particulars. (Polanyi, 1969, 130)

Polanyi's description of what it means to come to know something describes my coming to know about a certain kind of collaboration. I moved between exploring my fieldnotes, coming to understand the meanings that participants gave to their collaborative endeavors, and trying to integrate my hunches with descriptions and analyses of other collaborative educational ventures. Doing these things in tandem enabled me to develop the concept of the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration, which arises from the similarities and differences I saw between the empirical literature and interpretations of my data.

Steps in the Analysis

My analyses followed a cycle of looking at the data, making assertions based on my hunches, testing assertions by writing vignettes, pulling quotations from interviews, examining documents, stringing together assertions in research memos, writing analytic memos in which I revised my analyses based on my findings, and

then returning to the data to test hunches and begin the cycle all over. As I explored my data, I developed questions which often sent me to the literature, e.g., "Isn't that idea like what Duckworth wrote about curriculum?" As I looked at the ideas and findings of others, I looked at the ways my findings agreed and disputed others'.

Analytic Memos

After connecting assertions, I could begin identifying particular questions and themes across my data; these major themes eventually became the topics for my chapters: what the contexts of the work are(Chapter 3); what does the work look like (Chapter 4); how do the collaborative endeavors connect with students' learning (Chapter 5). Triangulating my data by connecting assertions and interpretations, I wrote analytic memos in which I described events, and then made interpretive commentaries; these memos actually served as the beginnings of my chapters. My interpretive commentaries included what the event meant through the eyes of the participants, including my perspective as participant and my distanced eye as researcher one year later. My chapters include descriptions of particulars and general descriptions of connected situations; e.g., the unit I discuss in Chapter Five. I interweave commentary throughout, ending each chapter with a discussion of the overall meanings I glean from participants and my distanced perspective. In addition, I connect the events and meanings of participants with ideas and beliefs expressed by others outside the team (e.g., scholarly inquiries)[9].

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[9]Analysis steps are informed by a fieldwork seminar and practicum with Douglas Campbell; Erickson (1986), and Spradley, 1980.

Analytic Categories

With over two years of data, I found myself in a deep pool of things to look at, and unable to find paddles with which to row a boat through! I eventually identified two paddles. First, I focused on my question which emerged from looking at literature and wondered, "Could I connect learning and collaboration?" Secondly, I reexamined my research questions and followed my hunches about what aspects of the collaborative work could enable me to talk about the processes of our work. These questions and hunches became my two main analytic categories: 1) What kinds of learning are happening, especially for high school students? and 2) What situations over the two years highlighted the team's processes of work?

Looking for learning. My search through the data began with the analytic question: What evidence can I mount that convinces me of a relationship between the professional collaboration and students' learning? I focused my response to this question around a complete unit of study I observed in Ken Larson's classroom. For two weeks, I observed classes in which students read about and discussed the Japanese internment camps and Nazi concentration camps in World War 2. I followed the trail of connected data: fieldnotes, documents from the class, samples of students' work (including their journals, oral presentation materials, and essays), conversations with Ken, and discussions about the unit with teammates in and out of team meetings. As a way to reduce the data and continue thinking about it, I wrote many analytic memos in which I gathered data and wrote interpretive commentary about a particular theme or trend (e.g., "connecting team meetings and

lassroom work," "Journal writing and student change through the eyes of the teacher"). I explored hunches that sometimes led me to dead ends, e.g., What ways did Ken respond to students' journals? At other times I was struck by the comparison and contrast I noticed in the teaching and learning in this unit compared with other units I had observed Ken teach. I culled instances from other data that confirmed or disconfirmed my hunches about changes in Ken's classroom.

I eventually realized two main patterns from these data. First, contrasting the curriculum and instruction in this unit of study with other teaching and curricular activities I'd seen illustrated the extent and kinds of change Ken Larson had made within the two years of his participation in the team. Secondly, I saw the connections between the struggles we had in helping helping students wrestle with conflictual content, and the struggles we had working together as professionals.

Following hunches. Another strategy for reducing my data was following my hunches about something, e.g., a particularly stormy team meeting or interesting class I had observed Bill teach. When I identified an interesting event that might shed light on my research questions, I followed the same cycle I have mentioned of writing analytic memos around particular themes.

Analytic memos around these events took into account a framework I had devised while in the field. In the field, I faced daily questions about which events I should be attending and taking notes about. Thinking about my original research questions helped me define aspects of the work that would allow me to get inside the process. Examining purposes, occasions, content, and roles people played in the

work gave me access to the process and guided my notetaking and questions of informants. These categories also served me well as I analyzed the data. Therefore, for each situation I pulled out of the data, I analyzed purposes (e.g., why did this topic arise?), occasions and circumstances of the work (e.g., informal conversation, planned meeting with the assistant principal, sudden agenda item at a team meeting), the content (e.g., what was happening; what was talked about), and roles people played--including their perceptions and enactment of roles (e.g., who led meetings?, to what extent and in what ways did "observers" become "teachers" in the high school and university classes?)

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The framework of this thesis reflects the kinds of analyses I did. Chapter Three highlights the contexts of the team's work, Chapter Four speaks to key aspects of the team's work, Chapter Five discusses connections between the team's thoughtfulness and growing student thoughtfulness. The stories illustrate the very non-linear development of the team's thoughts and actions, the complexities of our struggles and successes, and the difficulties and dilemmas we faced together and separately as we learned through collaborative relationships about the teaching and learning of social studies.

CHAPTER THREE
THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEAM'S PROBLEM

As a participant and researcher, I explained to outsiders what the social studies team did like this: we thought about, and experimented with, different ways to group social studies students to help them be thoughtful about disciplinary content. Toward that end, our work together enabled and supported our struggles with major curricular and instructional dilemmas. Most core participants, including me, believed the team worked because people respected each other, laughed together, and cared deeply about what we were doing.

But I always wondered what made the team click; why did our collaborative effort seem so worthwhile? Embedded in my question were two assumptions. First, I believed that the team did work; we did worthwhile things. Secondly, I believed that there was a "something" that I could say, "Ahha! That is what made the team work!" But that "something" remained elusive.

While analyzing interviews and fieldnotes from the team's work, however, one "something" began appearing over and over. I found that the original questions Ken and Gary posed in June, 1989, about the educational worth of grouping students (see these questions in Chapter One) seemed to be a common denominator for the team. These questions invited thoughtful conversations and experimentation in practice for both school-based and university-based teachers. While varying in their thoughts and practices, given their personal and professional interests, team participants remained connected to each other around the common pursuit of this inquiry, and the ways the original problem broadened. Additionally,

The team gained support from the environment in which it worked, support that enabled the inquiry to evolve.

In this chapter I explore the multiple aspects that enabled the social studies team to evolve. My analyses draw on personal and contextual factors that supported the team's work. Looking at these factors provides evidence for me to argue that from the original quandary that Ken and Gary identified, the team conceptualized an inquiry that everyone cared about. Institutional conditions operating in the context of Hodges PDS, furthermore, enabled participants' pursuit of their own needs while inviting challenge and change in teaching beliefs and practices.

SOCIAL STUDIES TEAM PARTICIPANTS

In this section I introduce the members of the social studies team. Five people participated on the team continuously in fall, 1989 through summer, 1991: Ken Larson and Gary Gifford, based at Hodges High School, and Bill Monroe, Sally Devon and me, who are Midstate-based[1]. These folks were the core of the team, since they were part of the group since its inception. In addition to these core participants, other people from Midstate and Hodges have been active during different phases of the team's life. At any one time, up to 13 people have participated in the team's work.

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[1]Ken, Gary, Bill, and to a lesser extent Sally, participate currently.

Categories of Participants

Participants on the team fall into three main categories:

1. "Key" Participants: Bill, Gary, Kent, Sally, and me

2. Additional Midstate-based Participants

    a. Student Teachers: Jeff and Barbara (fall, 1989); Fay and Joe (fall, 1990)

    b. Undergraduate Interns: Barbara (winter and spring, 1991); Joe (winter and spring, 1991)

    c. PDS Interns: Walt and Teresa (fall through spring, 1990-91)

    d. Additional Midstate Faculty: Leon, and the Midstate PDS Coordinator

3. Additional Hodges High School-based Participants

    a. special education teachers: Susan (1989-90; worked only in Ken's fundamental skills history course); Lisa (1990-91; worked only in Gary's fundamental skills economics course)

Key Participants

I refer to Ken, Gary, Bill, Sally, and me as "key participants" for a few reasons. First, as I've said, we were the original members. Secondly, other participants often looked upon the original members as sages of wisdom, asking questions they thought we had begun to untangle, e.g., what should be my role?; What is a PDS?; What could be and should be my contribution? What can I and can't I say in this context? Additionally, Gary and Ken were key because they acted as hosts for the team's work. The team tinkered with and observed the curriculum and instruction in Gary and Ken's classrooms. Team meetings happened in their rooms, and we

stored materials in their classrooms. Bill and I qualify as key, also, because of our regular attendance at Hodges on Fridays (year one) and Wednesdays (year two.) Sally joined us on Wednesdays during year two. Like me, she also popped in during other days to observe student teachers.

Hodges High School

Ken Larson. Teaching American history for most of his 26 years at Hodges High School, Ken Larson taught three kinds of American history classes: fundamental skills, regular, and honors/advanced placement. Ken seemed to love American history, both teaching it and talking about it. He kept many books in his classroom, about a variety of historical issues, and even more lined his many bookshelves at home.

Ken seemed to enjoy almost every aspect of teaching; he could even tolerate the paperwork! Hardworking and motivated, he arrived at school by 7:15 a.m. (often earlier) to get ready for the day and give students any tests or quizes they missed. He promptly returned students' assignments, which ranged from textbook chapter outlines to essay exams. In addition to working hard with students, Ken served on many school committees. He was, in fact, one of the original seven teachers who helped craft the beginning professional development school plans. As a loyal and very active union member, Ken served for many years as building representative and played an important role in state-level union affairs. His advocacy for professional development activities has been a prime reason for the currently healthy partnership between the union, school district, and Midstate.

What I believe Ken liked most about teaching was talking with adolescent kids. Whether helping a small group understand the difference between Jacksonian and Jeffersonian Democracy, coaching girls' tennis, explaining an assignment, talking with students in the hallway, or meeting with the German Club, Ken's dry wit and humor always pervaded his conversation. Seen by Hodges students as a very demanding teacher, Ken expected thought and commitment about American history from all his students. Over the two years we worked together, I saw him reassess many of his assignments. But he always based the changes on what he thought counted as good practice; he never let his standards of excellence for teaching and learning drop. He expected all students to excel, and his occasional frustration with kids (especially in the fundamental skills class) was based on his perception that they weren't trying hard enough. Most students realized his sometimes gruff exterior covered a humorous, caring interior, and a teacher intent on the worth of learning American history.

Gary Gifford. Gary has also spent all his 21 years of teaching at Hodges, playing the dual role of teacher and social studies department head for eight years. Trained as a social scientist, Gary taught a variety of courses--psychology, sociology, comparative political systems, US government, economics (and he has taught fundamental skills and regular classes in government and economics). An avid reader in many areas of literature, Gary loved changing his courses in part because it provoked his reading in a variety of areas.

Gary's humor and positive view on life filled any room when he walked in, and his ability to be teased (about his almost constant coffee drinking and uncanny knack of being able to "wax eloquently" on just about any subject!) made him one of Hodges' most liked teachers among the faculty and students. Like Ken, he served on many different committees in Hodges as well as at the district level (e.g., he chaired the district K-12 curriculum committee).

Also like Ken, Gary seemed to enjoy his teaching. His manner was very warm and friendly with students, and students enjoyed talking with him about lots of different topics, e.g., sports, school, current affairs. Rarely did I see Gary sitting in his classroom without a student popping by to tell or ask him something. Gary also coached in cross-country running (in the fall) and track and field (in the spring). Often he'd arrive home past 8:00 p.m. after taking students to a meet and giving rides home.

Gary's teaching seemed less planned and structured than Ken's. Whereas Ken usually produced a "packet" of reading materials and assignments that constituted a "unit," Gary would distribute materials as it popped into his mind. Often students saw very recent editorials from newspapers, or <u>Newsweek</u>. Whether reading or writing tasks, Gary often made the assignments as the idea struck him. Also, Gary's teaching seemed more teacher-directed than Ken's; he lectured a great

deal[2] whereas Ken through the years moved into a mode of teaching in which he rarely lectured to students (students worked mostly in small groups.)

Midstate College of Education

Bill Monroe. A new professor at Midstate, Bill joined the team in fall,1989. When asked about a PDS group he would like to join, he chose the social studies team because of its initial inquiry problem about tracking.

Bill seemed to have a natural affinity for PDS work. He had an abiding interest in thinking about the ways teachers work together. Trained as a sociologist before gaining his doctorate in education, Bill worked on a variety of projects with different role groups in mostly social arenas, e.g., teachers, social workers. He had done extensive work with these groups of professionals, too, in a consultant status. He focused on adult relationships, studying what elements promote successful relationships that support efforts to accomplish productive work. For about six years before coming to Midstate, he had studied mentoring among teachers. Working with a noted scholar in the field of professional teacher relations, Bill had written a number of articles and chapters about the dilemmas within mentoring practices in the particular contexts he had studied.

Bill's teaching experiences with K-12 students were minimal—under a year. Yet he enjoyed translating his thoughts and experiences from studying how adults learn in groups into thinking about student learning in groups. In both 1989-90 and

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[2]Gary and I always disagreed about what to call his teaching style. While I called it "lecture," with some questions, he called it "recitation" with some lecturing.

1990-91, he conducted a "cooperative learning circle" for all teachers at Hodges who were interested in thinking about ways to use cooperative learning. He organized these groups by asking teachers to talk about what they did in their classrooms, and why. As one teacher presented, colleagues chimed in to critique and make suggestions. The social studies team also look to Bill for similar advice about arranging cooperative grouping activities (see Chapter Four for a lengthy description of one such activity).

Sally Devon. In her seven years at Midstate, Sally served in many capacities as a staff specialist. She managed the teacher preparation program that placed student teachers at Hodges, and she also supervised student teachers (in fact, she supervised the first student teacher Ken had in fall, 1989). In the teacher preparation program, Sally led the seminars for the social studies teacher preparation students throughout their preservice studies, developing relationships that extended through student teaching (even when she wasn't supervising them). In addition to her program work, Sally advised students in other college of education programs, and was also involved with recruitment and admissions at the college level.

Sally came to her position with over ten years as a middle school interdisciplinary teacher in different metropolitan areas in the US. Since moving to Midstate, she worked with preservice teachers exclusively. Like Ken and Gary, Sally seemed to enjoy teaching a great deal. She talked with students a lot--over the phone or in her office--and continued asking about their progress even when they moved beyond student teaching. In addition to taking her teaching seriously, Sally

also focused a lot of attention on her student advising, recruitment, and admissions

obligations. Even with all these obligations, though, Sally always seemed to have

time for a quick joke or a laugh.

Sally joined the team due to her social studies interests and teacher educator

responsibilities. She started her involvement when she asked Ken to work with

a student teacher (Jeff) who'd not been successful and needed to repeat student

teaching. She and Ken talked often about Jeff's progress, and therefore Sally hung

out at Hodges often in fall, 1989. Due to work obligations elsewhere (and me taking

on the student teaching field instruction with Ken's and Gary's student teachers in

1990 and 1991), Sally lessened her attendance at Hodges after fall, 1989 to once a

week[3].

Key Participants: Similarities and Differences

While participants shared many common interests, drives, and experiences

(which I discuss in the next section), their individual life histories were also quite

unique. Their teaching experiences differed: three members have taught high

school (Ken, Gary, and Sally); Bill consulted in many projects, often in schools, but

had rare K-12 teaching stints, and I had taught elementary school. Participants'

initial views of what counted as inquiry differed, e.g., setting up experimental and

control groups, while I envisioned a different set of methods based on our

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[3]During spring, 1992, Sally and Ken co-taught social studies secondary
methods, making the course mostly field-based in Ken's classroom. Ken and Sally--
and according to Sally, mostly Ken--planned ways to help the preservice teachers
take on planning, instructional, and assessment responsibilities across the 10-week
course.

questions. My teammates' ways of talking about phenomena differed, both in the vocabulary they used and in the discussion style they assumed (some members seemed comfortable with posing questions and deliberating about the outcomes, while others wanted to talk only about what the team would do and when.) The different experiences people had working collaboratively probably helped them bring to the team's work fresh ideas, questions, and strategies. In short, the differences in members' knowledge, expertise, experiences, and thoughtfulness about teaching, learning, and conducting inquiries varied at times in the same degrees to which they were similar!

Additional Midstate-based Members

Four categories of team participants were based at Midstate: (1) student teachers, (2) undergraduate interns, (3) PDS Interns, and (4) additional faculty. Two student teachers from a Midstate teacher preparation program, one each assigned to Ken and Gary, taught at Hodges during each fall term[4]. They attended team meetings and contributed to curriculum and assessment redesigns (e.g., Fay, Ken's 1990 student teacher, helped redesign quizzes and tests in the fundamental skills course). Student teachers also heard a lot about the team, because members often attributed changing ideas and beliefs to "something I heard in the (team) meeting."

We usually hired one of the student teachers as an undergraduate intern. Interns provided one period of reallocated time for Ken and Gary during the second semester of the year. In Chapter Four, I talk about some conversations in which

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[4]I served as the university supervisor for Ken and Gary's student teachers.

Barbara (who was Gary's student teacher in fall, 1989 and the intern for Ken and Gary in spring, 1990) played an important role.

During the 1990-91 school year, Midstate received outside funding to support professional (pre and post-doctorals) interested in learning about the workings of a professional development school. Teresa, a veteran history teacher, and Walt, based at a state university (other than Midstate), were hired as PDS interns and began work at Hodges. They spent the first semester mostly talking with and observing many people at Hodges along with the members of the team. By second semester both tried to become involved with the actual instruction in Ken and Gary's classrooms, but neither person felt very successful. Walt tried to design a mastery learning program for an economics class. By mid-semester Walt and Gary changed it, and Walt spent most of the rest of his time at Hodges learning about school-level issues (e.g., faculty motivation to engage in PDS tasks). I talk about Teresa' participation in Chapter Four.

Additional faculty members from Midstate also joined team discussions over the two years. Leon became very involved in designing a new social studies course, and contributed to team discussions usually by donating resources (e.g., computer data bases for students' use). The Midstate coordinator for Hodges PDS also attended some meetings, typically at dinner meetings which might have provided him with an overall sense of the team's work[5].

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[5]Good food and good conversation, as he often mentioned to me, might have been reasons he joined and even hosted one of our dinner meetings, too.

Hodges-based Members

Hodges special education teachers, as they moved toward an inclusion model across the district, worked alongside classroom teachers in classes that had a relatively higher percentage of special needs students. Usually these were the fundamental skills courses, whom both Ken and Gary taught. When Susan worked with Ken in 1989-90, and when Lisa worked with Gary in 1990-91, they both attended some team meetings (Lisa was especially active in meetings, and attended regularly during second semester of 1990-91). Both teachers remained committed to helping the team consider the potential affects of changing curriculum and instruction for special needs students. Susan and Lisa would remind us that many of these students had been spoonfed through their schooling. Susan and Lisa helped us design appropriate directions for tasks, and build in assessments.

KEY PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE TEAM

How did participants define the team, I wondered; did they see the team's problem as central and uniting like I did? To check out my hunch, I looked back to interviews I had done with each core participant in spring, 1991, nearly two years after the team formed. I wanted to learn about how my teammates envisioned the social studies team's "problem"--in some sense, the team's raison d'etre. Throughout this dissertation, I look at my teammates' perceptions in addition to my own interpretations. Doing so allows me to give meaning to the team's endeavors through participants' perspectives as well as my own (see Erickson, 1986).

Most responses I analyzed came from the first four questions in the interview (see Appendix B), and they show the range of ways participants responded to the questions "what is the social studies team?" Everyone interpretted my question as a time to talk about the team's goals, though not everyone mentioned the same ones. My analyses suggested strongly that participants defined the team's raison d'etre in personal ways that fit with their curiosities and professional roles.

In Table 3.1 I display interview responses connected to the question "What is the social studies team?" Though this table is very full, I could not disentangle participants' ideas for fear of disrupting the meaning of their ideas.

See Table 3.1: What is the Social Studies Team?

What is the Social Studies Team For?

Team participants seemed to define the team's purposes according to their professional duties and roles. Ken's and Gary's responses showed this clearly, as they both connected the team's work to the work they do in classrooms. Gary claimed the team was "looking at strategies for trying to allow the kids to learn better, taking a look at what we're doing and what is it exactly that we're doing in the classrooms," while Ken stated that the team was "collaborating in order to change what happens in classroom practice." Also, both Ken and Gary commented that the team's work was about high school students' learning. Gary believed the team looked at ways "to allow the kids to learn better." Ken expounded on learning, recalling the connections between learning, understanding, reading, and thinking

Table 3.1

What is the Social Studies Team?

Participant	Positions	Definition of the Social Studies Team
Sally	Program Manager	...Intention at the beginning was to look at the social studies curriculum at Hodges, and decide whether we wanted to make changes...A second part was to also look at teacher education...how were we helping the student teachers in social studies learn how to teach...Teacher education is now kind of looked at across departments so the team looks more at the courses...People have come more to accept the idea that breaking kids up into these different groups was just arbitrary and we need to think about what it is that we're teaching all these kids...
Bill	Assistant Professor	...It's purpose is to improve teaching in the school and teacher education both on the campus and in the school. And to do research that's upportive of those two things...People have some aims in common. The aims have been negotiated a number of times. What they mean exactly on a given day seems to be sometimes obscure. We try to figure that out. But there is this joint commitment to those aims...And there have evolved a set of half worked out working routines that have to do with watching each other teach, talking aobut what we see, conducting interviews gathering data on what's going on, som planning together...We assume that the people who are involved in the team may have different interests in school but they have some overlap of interests which makes it fruitful for them to work together.

| Gary | High School Teacher | ...As I envision it is a group of people from Midstate and Hodges who are interested in some of the fundamental questions concerning teaching and learning. The issue of tracking is kind of central to some of the things we're looking at, althought I think we've gotten past the point of being consumed by that issue. We are looking at strategies for trying to allow the kids to learn better, taking a look at what we're doing and what is it exactly that we're doing in the classroom. One of the really important things that the team is doing is as a group taking a look at what we're doing, how we're doing it and the planning---and looking at alternative assessments and some other things that we could do to try to get at what the kids know. |

Ken	High School Teacher	...A group of individuals interested in learning and teaching who work for Hodges and Midstate and they are collaborating in order to change what happens in a classroom practice. This is to the end that students will be able to think critically, or that sort of thing that has to do with learning for understanding and reading for understanding and read critically; those sorts of goals--that kids will attach meaning to what they learned. That they will be able to make connections between ideas and information and other ideas. That they will hopefully actually do history, rather than just be passively exposed to it. We're interested in tracking, probably to a lesser extent than we were originally because we want to find out why kids are in various levels of classes and should they be. Now we are interested in the interdisciplinary course, a course that might be an extension of what we do in history classes...We're also interested in teacher education and how to establish collaborative relationships so that those folks that are in the university attempting to become teachers might have a better chance of being that if they're in a professional, collaborative relationship...We are thoughtful, mature individuals who are really interested in what each other has to say about whatever the conversation is about, who seem to have great sense of humor, and in large part seem to feed off each other in what one thinkgs the other extends. People have great respect for one another. People who can disagree with one another without personalizing that disagreement. People who enjoy each other's company. People who are really interested in what they're doing.

critically. He wanted students to "make connections between ideas and information and other ideas."

Though Sally and Bill also mentioned the team's work connecting to classroom practices, they gave the classroom connections a different kind of attention. Sally commented that the original intention of the team was to examine the social studies curriculum at Hodges, and Bill mentioned that the team's purpose was to "improve teaching in the school." Like Ken and Gary, Sally and Bill also referred to learning, though much less explicitly. Sally alluded to learning on the part of team participants when she said that "people have come more to accept the idea that breaking kids up into different groups was just arbitrary and we need to think about what it is that we're teaching all these kids." The explicit part of Sally's comments about learning focused on student teachers, and the ways the team helps them learn to teach. Bill alluded to learning when he talked about "evolving a set of half worked out working routines." These actions represented a changed way of teaching, working with colleagues, and enacting the role of teacher. Teachers needed to learn new ways of carrying out this new role.

The Team and Official Role

The focus of Sally's and Bill's talk, and the degree and nature of its references to classroom practices, differed from Ken's and Gary's. The nature of the differences fit with participants' official positions as either school-based teachers or university-based teacher educators. Given their positions. it made sense that Ken and Gary would focus on the classroom practice aspects of the team's work.

Likewise, it made sense that Sally would focus on student teachers' learning, while still seeing changes in classroom teachers' thoughts and actions (since it is in those teachers' classrooms that student teachers learn to teach). And finally, Bill's reference to research (and he is the only person who referred to research) and his attention to altering norms and routines in schools and between schools and universities fit with some expected duties of a university professor (e.g., research and PDS work).

Definitions Linked with Personal Curiosities

Looking at Bill's comments suggested an additional assertion about participants' definitions of the team: participants' ideas linked with their personal dispositions, which I define as their interests, curiosities, and inclinations to act in particular ways. To check this hunch, I referred to Table 3.1 again, and compiled the main ideas that people touched upon into Table 3.2. In addition, I examined observational data (from meetings and classroom work) to gain a sense of how people acted on their personalized definitions.

See Table 3.2: Summary Statements for What is the Social Studies Team?

Hodges Participants' Ideas

Ken's Ideas

In his definition, Ken explained his ideas about learning as

...students will be able to think critically...that kids will attach meaning to what they learned...they will be able to make connections between ideas and information and other ideas

Table 3.2

Summary Statements for
"What is the social studies team?"

Participant	Position	Summaries of definitions of the team
Sally	Teacher Preparation Program Mgr at Midstate	• Examine social studies c'm • Examine teacher education in terms of how we help STs learn to teach 　• Now a school focus • Examine tracking, though we've changed the focus on that issue 　• Now a c'm and instructional focus
Bill	Asst. Professor at Midstate	• Examine teaching in Hodges and teacher education at Midstate • Do research • Design and negotiate aims and work routines • Assume overlap of interests on the part of participants
Gary	Hodges Teacher	• Examine fundamental questions of teaching and learning • Examine tracking, though we've changed the focus on that issue 　• Now looking at our teaching, what is happening in the happening in classrooms, our planning, and "trying to allow the kids to learn better" • Examine alternative assessments "to get at what the kids know"
Ken	Hodges Teacher	• Collaborate "in order to change what happens in classroom practice...to the end that students will ...attach meaning to what they learned" • Examine tracking, though we've changed the focus on that issue 　• Now focusing on "why kids are in various levels of classes and should they be" • Examine teacher education by beginning professional collaborations that preservices teachers could join • Mentioned the personal dispositions of participants, and team members' relationships

(and)...will hopefully actually do history, rather than just be passively
exposed to it... (5)

This focus on the need for students to make their own sense of history, and not

merely passively accept others' interpretations, as well as make connections across

historical issues and themes is something I had heard often in our two years of work

together. Ken focused his energies on writing curriculum that he believed would

enable all students (in the three different tracks) to understand historical ideas.

Later in the interview he returned to discussing student learning. When I asked

Ken "What stands out to you about the work of the social studies team?", he

spontaneously talked about his students' learning.

> The only thing I can use, what I'm concerned about, is the classroom
> and the students. My measure...is a subjective one, but it comes about
> as a result of the journals that students write each week about what
> goes on in the classroom. (12)

Ken said he is now quite interested in reading the journals students write because

he is

> ...entertained and (the journals) are interesting. Before they weren't so
> interesting...(Now) students are writing reflectively about what's going
> on in the classroom.." (14)

According to Ken, many students' journals also were filled with discussions

about the classroom "content, and writing about it in a reflective way" (12-13). He

got so excited about what journals could indicate about students' learning that he

started sharing them. He urged Bill and me to begin looking at them as part of our

team's investigations into students' changing understandings. Ken also copied

journals for students' counselors so the counselors could see what their students did in class.

Ken described in the interview one usually non-verbal student who used to write sentences in her journals that didn't make sense, and who now was "writing a lot of neat stuff. She is really thinking about what's going on in the classroom by virtue of what she is writing down" (13). I asked Ken what talking about his students' journals had to do with the work of the social studies team. His response again showed his disposition to pay attention to and be interested in student learning:

> (Things have changed) because of the work of the team and because of the ideas generated and because of what has been put into practice in the classroom...because the activities and the lessons involve active engagement of all students. They (students) are put in situations where, like the young lady I talked about, they can express themselves, where she had to express herself, where she became more responsible for her own learning. (13)

Ken defined for himself a rationale for participating in the team. The team enabled him to create opportunities in his classroom where even less successful students could learn. Furthermore, these students could learn in ways that made them accountable. I talk more about Ken's focus on learning in Chapter Five, when I discuss a unit of study in his classroom, and highlight changes in curriculum and instruction that Ken made. My point here is that Ken, like the others, defined the work in part according to his personal dispositions and commitments.

Gary's Ideas

Examining Gary's actions and beliefs on the team presents a different kind of case that still has to do with participants linking the team's work to their personal dispositions. Gary struggled throughout the life of the team with the issue of "to track or not to track." He and I, just like he and other teammates, disagreed often about the student grouping policies at Hodges. I believed that the three levels of courses (fundamental skills, regular, and AP/honors) offered in some science, social studies, and English classes were different tracks, while Gary believed that Hodges did not track its students. In our spring, 1991 interview he told me

> I really don't think we track. I mean it's a shopping mall high school.
> Nobody is made to take anything. Now people may be encouraged and
> okay, so there's some subtle pushes there and sometimes perhaps not
> so subtle. But no one is made to do anything and those kids that are in
> the challenging curriculum aren't made to be in there other than by
> their parents...We don't make them. (5)

Originally the issue of tracking had been at the center of the team's work, and though many of us had changed ways of thinking about it (mostly by appreciating the complexities of why it exists and what it means for students' success), Gary had held firm to many initial beliefs. Also, he held onto beliefs not shared by his teammates. Gary believed he had in fact "modified" his position because in the two years of the team's work

> ...we've learned that the differences between the kids is a motivational
> difference. Now that puts a whole different light on grouping...what
> we really have are kids that want to function abstractly and other kids
> who do not want to function abstractly...It's not a matter of one who
> can and one who cannot; it's a matter of interest, motivation, and
> desire...(6)...I would love all of my kids to be able to function at a high
> level in a similar way, not making them all alike, but it's important to

me that they all get to the same point. The problem is, I don't know
how to do that with them all together. (7)

Long-held beliefs--over 20 years of teaching practice--are tough to shake, and
even perhaps more so when the stance has moral and political overtones like issues
around grouping students. In addition, Gary was a lonestar on the team in a few
ways. Everyone else on the team had adopted the stand that whether students were
placed in classes by ability or motivation, teachers still needed to provide
stimulating opportunities that would invite sustained and active engagement with
worthwhile content. That belief invited the kinds of actions the team took, e.g.,
setting new curricular themes, designing alternative class activities, changing the
role that teachers and students played in classrooms. Gary skirted around making
these kinds of changes, and seemed to harp on the idea that students were placed in
courses based on their own motivation, and not ability. In team meetings he
seemed to distance himself often from discussions about what we might do to create
opportunities for all students to wrestle with worthwhile content. Stuck on
convincing teammates about the problems with grouping students--students'
motivation, as Gary saw it--seemed to take all Gary's energies and stopped him short
of taking decisive action to change what happened in his classes.

I have a hunch that another struggle Gary faced was what counted as valid
research. I talk about this in Chapter One, when Gary asked where the control and
experimental group would be as we initially planned our collaborative work. He
continued to worry about whether the research we did would be too "soft, and not
have full validity," as he explained at a February, 1990 team meeting. When Ken

wondered, at the same meeting, whether the statistics about deleterious effects of tracking (as reported in a few research articles we were reading) applied to his students, Gary made this conclusion and suggestion:

> Students should not be separated, especially between the regular and AP/honors classes. But we need to work on the motivation factor. We need to raise the level of expectations, not necessarily create smaller classes (as Ken had suggested.) We can't dumb down to students with different texts, tests, and questions. We need to use a high-level book and the same kinds of assessments. Now the fundamental kids; they are still a problem. They used to quit school when they were in with the other students. Now (separated into fundamental skills classes) they don't. (2/21/90 mtg.)

Motivation, opportunities, expectations; these were the ideas that Gary tossed around over and over in team meetings, conversations with teammates, and interviews and conversations with me. He offered good advice about changing practice, like not scaling curriculum down to what we believed students could and could not do. He offered sound rationales, also, for the creation and maintenance of the fundamental skills class. His definition of the social studies team reflects his ways of dealing with his beliefs that differed from the team's. In his mind, issues around tracking remained central to the team's work, but now the focus moved to "looking at strategies for trying to allow the kids to learn better" by looking at what is happening in the classroom (Table 3.1). I am not certain whether he meant examining ways to _motivate_ students, but I could speculate that looking at what one is doing and what is happening would include watching students' motivation. In other words, Gary also seemed to define the team in terms of personal interests and concerns.

University Participants' Ideas

Bill's Ideas

Bill connected the team's work to his interests in promoting professional relationships through changing the cultures of schools and teaching. In Table 3.2 we see that three of the five main points Bill made were about understanding the nature of teachers' collaborative work. I knew this was a major line of inquiry for him. He had worked with another researcher for 14 years, and their studies centered on the organizational and cultural conditions of teachers' collaborative work.

Throughout the two years of our work together, I'd heard Bill say and think aloud very consciously about "moves" or "strategies" or "tactics." He constantly used these words in conversations with teammates. For instance, when talking with me he often commented about "moves" I made, referring to questions or ideas I said. When working with Ken to plan a semester unit about "Conflict and Wars,"[6] he would talk about the strategies for engaging students in certain activities and for helping them critique ideas. And at team meetings through the years he would conjure up the same images of strategies and tactics, e.g., "A good strategy would be to have students write a business plan and use it for your (the teacher's) evaluation (9/5/90 meeting).

By "strategies," Bill seemed to mean the approaches he might use when planning and acting on an idea for one of the Hodges classrooms, for his own classes, and/or for supporting discussions in team meetings. In our Spring, 1991

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[6]I describe and analyze this unit in Chapter Five.

interview I asked Bill about his focus on tactics, wondering "What, if anything, do

you get out of having conversations about the moves that you or others make?" Bill

replied,

Bill: For as long as I can remember I've loved to talk tactics. My father
           always used to tell me, "If you want to know how to do something,
           watch people who do it. And you can do it, too." And so I guess he
           encouraged me to watch him doing things around the farm. And
           forever long as I can remember, I've loved to watch people work and
           figure out what they're doing. I just love to talk tactics. That was
           embedded (in work I did years ago with a professor who told me): "We
           are always analyzing our practice (--which for us was in juvenile
           delinquency and training volunteers, training police officers, and so
           forth.) We constantly examine what did we do, even down to things
           like presentation of self, the use of self as an instrument. Why are we
           doing this? What is going on?" I formed my habits there. I just love
           talking to people.

Michelle: So you could have gone on and on talking tactics about Ken's
           classroom (which is what we'd been doing.)

Bill: Yes. It's our stuff. It's what we do.

Michelle: So is that what the social studies team does, talk about Ken's classroom,
           watch it, talk about it?

Bill: Yes. I think that's the main thing it's about. Watch and talk. Watch
           and talk. Watch and talk. Sort of plan, too, but more watch and talk, I
           think. (32)

Bill enjoyed watching what people do and talking with them. He defined his

work on the team as just that--"watching each other teach and talking about what

we see" (Table 3.1). He defined his work as fostering routines that would allow the

practices of watching and talking to occur in schools, where they usually do not

happen. I believe Bill saw watching and talking as the means for doing what he said

the team does--"improve teaching in the school and teacher education on the

campus and in the school"--and for examining ideas and actions he found

personally engaging.

<u>Sally's Ideas</u>

Sally's definition rang of her personal interests, too. In her spring, 1991

interview responses, Sally talked about how teacher education had been part of the

team's original work. With the advent of the Teacher Education Seminar at

Hodges[7], in Sally's view the teacher education aspects of the team's work moved

aside and gave way to a focus on "what it is that we're teaching all these kids

(Hodges High School students)." I wondered if Sally's responses indicated a

disconfirming case; I wasn't certain how looking at Hodges students connected with

Sally's official position or personal interests.

But at the end of the spring, 1991 interview, Sally helped me understand what

she gained from being part of the team. She told me

> I'm glad that I get to go into a school. I like being connected directly
> that way and seeing what's going on...In the work I do with the junior
> and senior preservice students in learning how to teach, if you don't
> have one foot in reality, which is where these students are, I don't
> think I'd be very good. (33)

Sally saw her participation on the team as a reminder about what happens in

schools, and what her teacher candidates face. When she led seminars for student

teachers, I often heard her make a reference to something she either saw or heard

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[7]This seminar became part of Hodges High School's restructured Wednesday
morning schedule (I discuss this restructuring in the next section of this chapter.)
Aimed originally at supporting student teachers' growth and their work with
Hodges teachers, the seminar also became a place to think about what it means to
help someone learn to teach.

about at Hodges. And her comments were not only about the social studies team; she commented about other things she heard or read about happening at Hodges (e.g., what the science and special education teachers learned through clinical interviews with zoology students; the kind of performance mathematics final a teacher gave in his Algebra 2 class).

Sally also said she learned from team conversations, especially pointing to discussions of Ken's and Gary's teaching.

> I have a better understanding now of how to try to work with these undergraduates in helping them to learn to be teachers. There is a parallel...The parallel is that when Ken or Gary or whoever talk about teaching their students, I can think about teaching my students. When I hear them talking about how their kids try to make sense of something or what methods they're going to use, I can think about the same things in relation to social studies (teacher candidates). (34)

Sally's comments indicated her beliefs that whether talking about high school students or preservice teachers, both kinds of teachers wonder about the ways students make meanings from ideas and what teachers can do to help them. In fact, most of Sally's activity on the social studies team was in team meetings or one-on-one conversations with Ken and Gary when they worked with student teachers[8]. Conversations about teaching interested her, in personal ways and as part of her official role as teacher educator. In a way somewhat different from other

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[8]Even when I did the field instruction for Ken and Gary's students teachers, Sally still talked with Ken and Gary about teacher candidates' development. This information was important since she led student teaching seminars, and also cared a great deal for the teacher candidates having taught them for one year in other campus coursework.

members, Sally also personally defined her work on the team by encompassing both

the high school teaching and teacher education aspects.

The Missing Voice

I have not included myself in the charts nor analyses I have done so far. I

decided to do that because I did not interview myself[9], and so data on me are not

comparable in the ways I could compare responses from Sally, Bill, Gary, and Ken.

At the beginning of this chapter I offered my definition of the team: we thought

about alternative ways to group social studies students to help them be thoughtful

about disciplinary content, and working together enabled and supported our

struggles with major curricular and instructional dilemmas for high school and

teacher preparation students. While reflecting my role responsibilities (as a

documentor and teacher educator) and my interests (talking about teaching), this

definition also illustrated my hopes to learn something in the company of

experienced school teachers (Ken and Gary) and teacher educators (Sally). I also

greatly respected Bill for the kinds of studies he'd done about teachers' collaboration.

Essentially, I believed I could learn from watching these professional experts.

Though that certainly happened, I would also say that I learned <u>with</u> my

teammates. I actually realized the power of collaborative learning. I experienced

first-hand how working together could help me generate ideas, discuss them, mold

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[9]I originally considered doing this, in order to capture my ideas at the time
and in response to the same questions. I knew I needed to do the self-interview
before beginning the interviews with my teammates, and time ran away and I did
not get to it. After beginning the interviews, my own thoughts flew in too many
directions.

them into class activities, and assess students' understandings. Though this awareness may sound trite, for me this "new" learning was not obvious. I actually realized that while my colleagues knew a lot, putting our heads together (so to speak) could challenge our perspectives and change even our most fundamental beliefs. In my own case, the biggest example of that challenge had to do with the very question our team began with—to track or not to track.

I had always believed, beyond a shadow of a doubt, that to track students by ability and set up homogenous groups in classrooms, across departments, or across schools was a fundamentally inequitable practice. "If you learn one thing in this class," I would tell undergraduate preservice students in my exploratory teaching introductory course, "let it be that you think twice before you set up ability groups or accept unchallenged your school's common practice of streaming kids. Such forms of grouping kids are morally, intellectually and politically very problematic, and you should never do this without serious consideration of the consequences for your students now and in the future." I started working with Gary and Ken holding firm to this belief, except that such a belief did not fit neatly with the kinds of facts Gary offered, e.g., more kids stay in school now that the fundamentals classes exist. Just collapsing the fundamentals class, as I once aimed to do, without considering what might happen with kids who had been homogenously grouped by ability throughout elementary, middle and junior high school (as many students in Hodges were), I came to realize could easily end in comments like, "I guess I might

just be brain damaged" (as one fundamentals student, placed in a regular classroom and not succeeding, told a special education teacher[10]).

"So what do you believe about tracking now, a year after your work on the social studies team?" a member of my doctoral committee asked me in April, 1990. I responded that anything that doesn't provide all kids with the best possible ways to learn is wrong. Usually tracked situations don't provide the best chances, I continued, but my verdict is still out about what to do about tracking. Now, a few years later, I would point to how I've learned with my colleagues about ways to investigate questions around grouping students. I've learned ways to explore the issues by observing in classrooms, with real kids and teachers, who themselves are struggling to understand the moral, political, and intellectual dimensions of teaching and learning social studies.

Commentary about Key Participants' Perceptions of the Team

How they defined the work, and ways they came to formulate and alter their definitions, suggest that social studies team members found ways to connect themselves to the original problem Ken and Gary posed in summer, 1989. Ken's and Gary's original question invited different opinions and ideas, because the question about ways to group students is a fundamental dilemma for teachers. Furthermore, due to its moral, political, and intellectual aspects and consequences for action, responding to the question provoked debate . The fact that the original

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[10]I raised this story in a team meeting October, 1990, which I discuss in Chapter Four.

question they posed gave way to a broadened set of questions about, for example, planning tasks for students, the content of tasks, and grouping practices in teacher education, testifies to the ways participants came to care about this problem. They didn't simply join a different PDS group or begin a new one. Rather, the very quandary that Ken and Gary originally posed held the team's attention while allowing participants to expand and explore different aspects of it.

Even though participants seemed to own the team's inquiry--really care about it and broaden the scope of it along the lines of their personal curiosities--I still wondered what enabled them to do the very hard work that the inquiry entailed. Just caring about a problem won't always enable action. We all have experienced things we care about, but feel helpless to change (especially moral and ethical issues, which are part of the essence of the teaching enterprise). I believe that elements of the contexts in which the social studies team worked fostered and enabled its inquiry to flourish and remain fruitful. I turn my attention now to examining the three kinds of institutions in which the work of the social studies team happened--Hodges High School, Midstate College of Education, and Hodges Professional Development School--and the factors in these contexts that combined to support the individual meaningfulness that social studies team participants constructed.

WORKPLACE CONDITIONS FOR THE TEAM

Hodges High School

Opened in 1957, Hodges is the only high school in the town of Hodges, which is a small community on the outskirts of the state capitol. Once a mostly rural community, Hodges has witnessed a lot of change in the last decade. Members of two professional communities--persons working in the state government apparatus and those associated with the major state university--have started moving to the community in part due to the reputation that the school district holds. The community has remained mostly white, but now adds to its once predominant working class a growing middle class. Small businesses are being resurrected, and the business community has recently become more involved than in the past with Hodges High School. Representatives meet with students; businesses open their doors to students who are on work/school programs; many students hold part-time jobs in the community.

Five elementary schools, one middle school and one junior high school channel students to Hodges, which is a 10th, 11th, and 12th grade high school. Approximately 1000 students attend the school. A survey of 1984 high school graduates show that about 72% of students took some college courses, though the college completion rate is unknown.

Fifty full-time teachers are on faculty at Hodges. The average teacher has 16-22 years of experience. Most of Hodges' teachers began their teaching at Hodges after earning bachelors and masters degrees mostly at Midstate. About 65% of the teachers have their masters degrees or are earning them presently.

In 1989 and 1993, Hodges High School was chosen as one of ten state "Exemplary Schools." The award is based on the school's innovative practices and programs. Teachers in the school often refer to five years preceeding the award as a time of real improvement in the school. One teacher would regularly leave each morning to buy donuts for the staff, recalled one current English teacher. When I asked who would stay with his students, the teacher smiled and said, "Oh, the students? Few teachers ever thought of them." Other teachers recall the very low morale among the faculty, and the ways that students seemed to run the school. Numerous discipline problems went uncontrolled. "No one ever wanted to be near the hallways when classes switched," explained one teacher. "That was like taking your life into your hands."

Most teachers point to changes happening in the school when the current principal came on board in 1986. He stopped the donut runs; he tamed the hallways. He seemed to be guided by one principle: that Hodges High School would focus on students and their learning. He took steps to ensure that learning could happen by enforcing a set of school rules shaped through ongoing conversations with teachers and students. And he also spent time walking around the school, in the hallways, in teachers' classrooms. An example of his commitment became apparent when

Hodges considered becoming a professional development school. In a clear, articulate manner he underscored the importance of the vague but very open PDS agenda, adding that it provided a "great opportunity to get in on the ground floor of a cooperative effort with the university to better train new teachers and better ourselves."

<u>Restructuring Efforts at Hodges</u>

Given the support for school improvement since the principal's arrival in 1986, the school faculty continually seeks ways to alter itself and the school. In late spring, 1990, a faculty group studying restructuring designed a totally new schedule for Hodges. The purpose was aimed at providing time for people to do the collaborative professional development activities they wished to pursue. With support from the district's board and superintendent, school officials presented their plan in three separate meetings to community members. When the school board met to deliberate about the plan, not one parent or other community member advised against it.

"Wednesday mornings," the appropriate name given to the Wednesday morning restructured time, is still alive. The schedule is actually quite simple. Teachers arrive as usual on Wednesdays at 7:30 a.m. However, classes for students do not begin until 11:30. Teachers use the first three hours with no students to meet

in fourteen faculty groups (during the 1990-91 school year)[11] aimed at improving

teaching and learning in Hodges.

At 10:30, many teachers take 30 minutes (and sometimes their 30-minute

lunch from 11:00 - 11:30) to have extra meetings with students. Lost instructional

time from the three hours is made up by adding five minutes to every class period

during the week and reallocating four half-days of professional development time

allotted by the district. Students come to school 25 minutes earlier and leave five

minutes later.

Midstate College of Education

Boasting a beautiful sprawling campus, Midstate University is a land-grant

university with its beginnings dating back to 1855. It has 12 colleges, and the College

of Education is one of its largest in terms of budget. In the mid-seventies to

mid-eighties, the College gained national attention when it pursued a research

agenda focusing on research on teachers' thinking. Researchers from the College

frequented classrooms to see teaching and learning, often collaborating with

teachers to shape and investigate research questions. They held forums with local

teachers in which they explored the benefits of and designed inservice education.

Many researchers introduced debates about the connections between theoretical and

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[11]Groups included the four previously existing PDS groups: math, science, social studies, literacy, and the cooperative learning circle that Bill led had organized in fall, 1989. To these groups the school added: teacher education seminar, inquiry, assessment, technology study, community service task force, at-risk learners study, restructuring, developing senior-level outcomes, and developing a new course called "global studies".

practical ideas into the educational literature. Numerous reports and scholarly articles stand as hallmarks to researchers' and teachers' efforts during this period.

Concurrent with the end of funding for this research, the College leadership became involved with the Holmes Group national reform efforts. The climate for educational reform was once again very warm, especially following the 1983 report by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, entitled A Nation at Risk. This report called upon educators to think about large-scale reform instead of implementing peicemeal innovation.

Both Holmes Group reports (Tomorrow's Teachers and Tomorrow's Schools) called attention to the worth of creating and implementing change in the teaching professions and in schools[12]. Following the ideals of the Holmes Group, College leadership initiated small funding requests to create partnerships with public schools. After two years of seeking and being turned down for funding, in November, 1988 the College finally secured a small amount of start-up money from the state department of education. Midstate promised to generate, implement, and study new practices in three areas of education: 1) K-12 teaching and learning, especially for at-risk students; 2) preservice and continuing education for teachers in public schools and universities; 3) the organization and management of schools to support these kinds of changes. This process was to come about through the

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[12]See Labaree (1992) for an excellent analysis and critique of the different styles of rhetoric in these reports.

partnership between the Midstate College of Education and six public schools in four districts.

When Midstate began its work with Hodges, four faculty and one research assistant assigned to document the development of the PDS (that was me) were assigned from the College across the 1989-90 school year. Another professor provided some support for the literacy teachers, but only on a very part-time basis beginning midyear. Since this small beginning, the number of Midstate-based persons has increased to over 20, including faculty, research assistants, and certified teachers (called "co-teachers"). Co-teachers provide reallocated time to some Hodges teachers involved in professional development projects who have particular time constraints and needs.

"Being assigned" meant that the College provided funding for its staff's work in Hodges (or in other PDSs). Assignment load time, for both faculty and graduate students, was and remains usually 10 hours a week. The university coordinator went to the school every Monday afternoon to work with the assistant principal to plan PDS functions, participate in the Coordinating Council, and troubleshoot. In his concurrent role as mathematics educator, he also worked with mathematics teachers as they conducted classroom experiments in algebra 1 and 2 and practical mathematics.

Hodges Professional Development School

When faculty at Hodges agreed to participate in defining and planning what Hodges PDS might look like in February, 1989, nothing spectacular happened at the

school. In other words, the school still looked the same. It sounded the same. It had the same odd mix of smells at lunch, after PE classes, in the halls. And to this day the school retains many elements and problems that high schools with its size and in its locale experience, e.g., tardiness, handling racist attitudes among students, dealing with students whose part-time jobs take time away from studies.

What differs is the sets of routines, actions, and people in the school. While it may seem odd in a school to see another adult sitting in a classroom taking notes or talking with students, that is pretty commonplace at Hodges. Or it may seem out of place for a college professor to be teaching Algebra 1 every day during second period in some places, but not at Hodges. Just about any period of the day you might hear Hodges faculty members in the staffroom, often accompanied by faculty and/or research assistants from Midstate, discussing a lesson or planning a unit or wondering about a particular kid's performance.

Joint work in teacher education is also growing, albeit at a slower pace. During two terms over the last three years you would have seen about 20 prospective teachers arrive in a bus ready to take their mathematics methods course from a Midstate professor and Hodges mathematics teacher. Or, a Hodges science teacher or social studies teacher sprints to campus to co-teach a methods course or introductory teaching course with a Midstate faculty member. And finally, for one week every spring and for 10 weeks every fall 12-14 student teachers work at Hodges. For two years Hodges teachers have held "teacher education seminars" as part of their Wednesday morning routine. These seminars are aimed at supporting

beginning teachers, which includes the student teachers and new teachers hired to provide reallocated time for Hodges teachers doing professional development work, as well as the experienced teachers who work with the novices.

The actions of Hodges and Midstate people and the routines of talking, observing, co-planning, and assessing learning with colleagues combine to make Hodges PDS. Certainly these occurrences aren't happening with all Hodges faculty; some teachers still work mostly on their own and/or do not mix with Midstate staff. But currently, about 90% of the Hodges faculty are involved in some collaborative endeavor with Midstate staff participants.

Enabling Conditions within these Settings

Many factors in the contexts of Hodges High School and Midstate College of Education combined to support collaboration in Hodges PDS. One very salient factor in the contexts of the team's work were core participants' personal dispositions. Curiosity and interest about, for example, reasoning about tracking, and improving teacher education seemed to act like driving forces for participants' questions and observations (see the section above). Participants' curiosities about the original inquiry spurred them onto questioning and studying connected ideas and questions. I reiterate the importance of personal dispositions here because these dispositions also acted as enabling factors in the sense that they probably helped participants find the strength and drive to continue through the demanding nature of changing teacher practices.

Another set of enabling factors were the resources to which Hodges PDS participants gained access. Participants in Hodges PDS gained access to resources they had never had before. The partnership between Midstate and Hodges provided extra person-power and access to different materials, which enabled change in teaching, curriculum design, and assessment. Midstate participants could present ideas and ask questions from their university perspectives, take notes in classes which allowed teachers to examine what happened, and track down curricular resources. Likewise, Hodges faculty suggested alternative plans and ideas to Midstate teachers about what preservice teachers needed to know before student teaching, and what they needed to think about during it. Whether teaching in a high school or college, participants in both places found new resources by talking with colleagues about practice, and appreciated the conversations as another kind of resource.

The time to talk, design curriculum, or track down materials seemed very precious to Hodges PDS members, and probably this time was the most cherished resource. Participants needed time to meet, time to plan, time to assess experiments, and time to talk about teaching and learning. Through PDS funds and commitment to use the funds in certain ways, Hodges-based teachers had reallocated time, away from students, to plan and assess curriculum and instruction. Realizing the value of the time, Hodges-based teachers designed the Wednesday restructured mornings which provided forums for exploring a multitude of issues around teaching and learning.

New Ways of Thinking about Schooling

Another kind of enabling condition was more amorphous than the resources of personal dispositions, time, personnel, materials, multiple perspectives, and conversation which I have mentioned. Instead, this enabling factor was a way of thinking and taking action that challenged traditional ways of operating in schools and universities. In Hodges PDS, the usual routines were under scrutiny, question, and change; just the very action of Hodges teachers taking time away from teaching students to talk with university-based teachers about teaching is evidence of the differences. Building on practices at Hodges and Midstate College of Education in which non-traditional forms of instruction and curriculum were accepted (e.g., a lot of small group work, creating and teaching different pilot courses), Hodges PDS participants seemed poised for change.

Combining the resources I have mentioned helped Hodges PDS members create a cultural environment that differed from other school settings (even other PDSs). Hodges PDS became a place where change was not only tolerated, but also promoted and supported.

Policy Contexts

Promoting change seemed to be the message in policy initiatives under which Hodges PDS was created. Two concurrent agendas helped form the idea of Midstate and Hodges becoming a professional development school: the Holmes Group reports, and a Midstate proposal to the state board of education. The first Holmes Group report, entitled Tomorow's Teachers (1986), called for "an agenda for

improving a profession" in which changes in the nature of teaching as well as the workplace conditions would be supported by changes in universities and schools. Although ideas for developing changes in universities and schools, by way of partnerships that would subscribe to the six "design principles", were promised in the second Holmes Report, Midstate needed to craft a funding proposal before that report (eventually entitled <u>Tomorrow's Schools</u>) appeared. Therefore, the Midstate proposal took into account the idea of change in the nature of teaching and the potential for partnership relationships between schools and universities as one way to effect change. In its proposal, Midstate created a definition for PDSs that served as a guiding principle throughout the life of the social studies team. Midstate stated that PDSs were schools in which to 1) implement and 2) study exemplary practices in K-12 education, teacher education, and organization and management in education.

The social studies team developed within these connected reform efforts of the Holmes Report and Midstate proposal. The team was one of five professional development projects within Hodges. Broadening the scope just a bit, the social studies team was one of the many professional development projects within six PDSs that operated within the Holmes Group agenda. Concomitant with operating under the Holmes agenda, the social studies team operated under Midstate's PDS definition (as stated in the proposal). And, finally, social studies team participants operated under their own agenda formed around their personal interests and dispositions as well as institutional positions.

Commentary

Enabling factors of personal dispositions, resources of time, personnel, multiple perspectives, and conversation, and loosely-defined policy initiatives combined to create a supportive environment for the social studies team. Members took on educational issues and topics that team participants felt committed to investigate. Teammates seemed to welcome the multiple agendas in Hodges PDS as chances for new ideas and practices to be infused into Hodges, Midstate, and the beginnings of Hodges PDS.

DISCUSSION

By describing participants' perceptions along with my own, and showing the multiple contextual layers in which the team's work was embedded, in this chapter I tried to account for why the team seemed to click. My analyses point to one sustaining factor: the presence of a problem team members continually sought to solve. Ironically, the actual questions as originally conceived by Gary and Ken were not the enduring factor. Those questions about the worth of grouping students by ability in high school social studies changed, broadening to an inquiry about the substance and process of changing curriculum and instruction that would enhance all students' learning. Yet still, the original questions provided the fodder, so to speak, from which broader issues could organically develop from the collaborative work. The team purposes and work remained tied around an inquiry.

One enduring substantive part of the inquiry emerged as important. In all its iterations, the team's inquiry was in the form of a problem about student learning.

The effort to learn about ways to promote and support students' understandings about a range of social studies--American history, economics, government, psychology, sociology--remained as the team's core as well as shared interests. All team members cared about student understanding and learning, and felt committed, motivated, and invested in learning about it.

The Problem, the Conditions, and Reflective Thinking

Trying to understand the stability and richness of the team's inquiry, I examined the characteristics that made up the contexts of the team's work. I believe that these conditions prominent in the Hodges Professional Development School--e.g., opportunities for people from a school and university to join their expertise and understandings, time to talk together--provided enabling conditions for reflective thinking, as Dewey defines it, to happen. When Hodges and Midstate linked efforts, and participants began talking together to find mutual interests, participants became exposed to different ideas that challenged long-held beliefs. Like others at Midstate and Hodges, Ken and Gary formed a problem based on something they'd begun to question about their teaching. Students they taught were divided into ability groups, and though Ken and Gary and teachers at Hodges believed for years that they were doing the best thing for students, after reading and discussing some of the literature about the deleterious affects on students of ability grouping, Ken and Gary became uncertain about their practices.

Gary and Ken asked questions in summer, 1989, that provided, in Dewey's words, "an intellectualization of the difficulty or perplexity that ha[d] been felt

(directly experienced) into a <u>problem</u> to be solved, a question for which the answer

must be sought." Elaborating on his "aspects of reflective thinking," Dewey writes

that after identifying a problem, the reflective thinker tries many different

suggestions or hypotheses" to initiate and guide observation and other operations in

collection of factual material," moves onto "mental elaboration of the idea or

supposition," and then begins testing hypotheses "by overt or imaginative action"

(Dewey, 1933), p. 107, italics in original).

This flow of activity that counts as reflective thinking takes into account past

experiences as well as future anticipations. When thinking reflectively, Dewey

suggests, the person conjures up a past question or experience from which the new

quandary arises. Or, we compare and contrast our new ideas with the previous

experiences, looking for ways the new is alike and different from the old. In all

cases, the reflective thinker who is thinking about practical matters continually

thinks about her actions, potential actions, and consequences. She sees her motions

and acts within the cycle of reflective thinking as problematic and changeable. In

Dewey's words,

> [S]he makes a problem out of consequences of conduct, looking into the
> causes from which they probably resulted, especially the causes that lie in
> (her) own habits and desires. (Dewey, 1933), p. 116)

Individuals on the team began their work together by forming a problem

(Ken and Gary) or connecting with (Midstate-based people) a problem they actually

felt or experienced. Together the team could struggle to find solutions, and test

ideas. They could jointly deliberate about the consequences of their actions and

thinking, and become acutely aware of the ways their beliefs, curiosities, and needs affected their teaching and inquiry about teaching.

Reflective Thinking and PDS Work

I draw on Dewey's theory of reflective thinking because I believe it suggests a rationale for undertaking professional development school work. Talking about the functioning of reflective thinking, Dewey writes that "The way (the aspects) are managed depends upon the intellectual tact and sensitiveness of the individual" (Dewey, 1933), p. 116, italics added). When engaging in reflective thinking within a social forum, participants can nourish and strengthen how they manage elements of reflective thinking, how they access the past and envision the future, and how and in what directions they change habits of action and thought. Within thoughtful collaborative undertakings, more than just one individual is challenging and critiquing suggestions, hypotheses, and experiments. Collective memories, visions of the future, and suggestions for new actions and thought contribute to the intellectual as well as moral and political aspects of action and thought. Through providing the conditions that enabled participants to do these kinds of activities, Hodges PDS enabled social studies team members to develop and continually revise a problem requiring reflective thinking about student learning.

CHAPTER 4
OUT OF CLASSROOM TEAMWORK

What does the social studies team do, and how? In this chapter I look at the team's efforts over two years, providing rich descriptions of the work. I begin with participants' perceptions of the work, and then draw on observational and interview data to discuss how the work was enacted. Analyses focus on defining the work, routines and roles participants played as they carried it out, and the substance of team interactions. Three vignettes show examples of the team in action. By looking at ways that beliefs, intentions, and practices shaped and were shaped by discourse and action, I call attention to the substance of collaborative relations because "It is precisely (this) content (what is discussed in collegial exchanges) that renders teachers' collegial affinities consequential for pupils" (Little, 1990), p. 511).

PARTICIPANTS' SELF-REPORTS ABOUT THEIR WORK

Throughout our relationship, members of the team referred to "the team's work." What counted as teamwork in participants' perceptions? Wanting to capture what they meant by this, and not just report my own interpretations about what constituted "the work," I looked at the spring, 1991 interview data. During these interviews, I asked participants to say what I would see them doing on the team. I also asked this question as a probe, if appropriate, when respondents answered other questions. In Table 4.1 I display the responses I heard.

See Table 4.1: Self-Reports about Teamwork

These responses suggest that the team's work, according to its participants, included listening, watching, and talking about teaching high school students. Team work involved "teaching, developing, and changing courses" (Sally) and, for Gary and Ken, dealing with the daily struggles of teaching and "interpreting" the team's thoughts (Ken) in order to put them into practice.

Two aspects of the team's work were alluded to only by Sally and Bill. Only Sally mentioned work with teacher candidates (something I wrote in my journal when I responded to this question). Another aspect of work I mentioned in my journal was attention to process issues, like those mentioned by Bill. Bill saw himself working on two fronts. First, he built conversation by fostering worthwhile habits of collaborative work, e.g., agenda-building, and "monitoring" conversations to check how means and ends were or were not complementing each other. Secondly, he participated in discussion by "putting in (his) two cents."

Overall, the responses fit with the ideas I discussed in Chapter 3; that is, participants report that they would be doing the kinds of things expected given their role responsibilities and personal interests. I noted one exception, though. While all participants talked about how the team developed and assessed Hodges' courses, only Sally mentioned teacher education goals. This surprised me because Bill, also, had responsibilities for teacher education at

Table 4.1

Self-Reports about Team Work

Participant	Position	Self-reports about team work
Sally	Teacher Preparation Program Mgt at Midstate	"What you saw me doing would depend on the time of year you looked because if you came out during student teaching...you would see me more engaged in the discussions around student teaching. If you came at a time when people were mostly talking about the courses, and developing and changing them, then you would not see me taking a very big role...I just don't have time, and the only real thing I've done is kind of helped out with some student interviews." (4-5)
Bill	Asst. Professor at Midstate	"I would be building up the conversation...watching how it is going and asking whether it's fruitful...I make moves that help to model the kind of conversation that could be had, describe the sort of norms that seem to be emerging or suggest what kinds could emerge, and try to introduce habits like forming an agenda the first thing during the meeting...That would be half of it. The other is just participating...A recent topic was what kinds of clinical interviewing we should do in the applied economics course and why...I'm just trying to contribute to that discussion...I suppose one thing I try to do is keep track of the relation between the specific talk and aims. One of the aims is trying to teach in a way that provides greater conceptual understanding and greater interest...So I'll be subtracting to see in my own mind whether we are getting at the point of conceptual learning, of connected learing, whether the way we're talking about teaching or what we're talking about doing contributes to that and how the cooperative learning methods, if relevant, tie in. So we're just trying to monitor that...Otherwise I'm must putting my two cents worth in. (5-6)
Gary	Hodges Teacher	You would see people engaged in the nitty gritty, day-day struggles of teaching and learning. We don't get real lofty...we've gotten past some of that real theoretical bull. I mean, we actually have to teach this class, now what are we going to do? (2-3)
Ken	Hodges Teacher	You would see me probably talking (smile). I would also be the one, at least with the high school classes, actually carrying out the thought of the team...writing the lesson, managing it, working out the logistics, interpreting the ideas of the team into a lesson...(3)

Hodges. Yet I believe he saw these as separate from his team work, while Sally and I integrated teacher education with our team efforts. Sally and I worked directly with the student teachers (in Sally's role as program manager and Social Studies Coordinator and my role as field instructor) in helping them learn to teach social studies in non-traditional ways. Bill, however, had no teacher education responsibilities during the team's first year, and in year two he worked in a school-wide teacher education effort (helping to design and coordinate a Teacher Education Seminar for all mentors and student teachers) and program-wide effort at Midstate (coordinating secondary student teaching). Teacher education, therefore, was not part of Bill's team responsibilities as it was for Sally and me.

Another pattern is that both Sally and Bill focused their comments around out-of-classroom team work, while Ken and Gary emphasized in-classroom work. Sally said I would see her "engaged in the discussions around student teaching," and not so involved in course development. She mentioned doing student interviews as her only in-classroom work. Bill talked about his focus on building and sustaining discussion, which is also mostly out-of-classroom work. Ken and Gary focused on their in-classroom responsibilities. They mentioned how they "have to teach this class" (Gary) and actually "carry out the thought of the team (by) writing the lesson, managing it, working out the logistics" (Ken). All participants noted the worth of conversation, something that happens in and out of classrooms.

ENACTING THE WORK

See Figure 4.1: Forms and Content of Social Studies Team Work

In Figure 4.1 I graphically display the two kinds of occasions for the

team's work: classroom work and out-of-classroom work (in interviews, both

Ken and Bill referred to the team's work using these same categories). In

"classroom work" I include observations, feedback about what the teacher(s)

and observer(s) saw, and often on the spot discussions between team

participants about the teaching and learning they watched (e.g., while

students talked in small groups). In classrooms, the team also conducted

clinical interviews with students. In Chapter Five I analyse in-classroom

work by looking at the team's work in Ken Larson's classes.

In this chapter I look at team work that happened out of classroom

settings. Out-of-classroom work provided opportunities to step back from

observations, interviews, and samples of student work and assess what was

happening in order to design new curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

At times, the team studied students' cumulative records, talked with special

education teachers about ways to alter instruction with special needs students,

and read research reports analyzing the effects of different forms of

curriculum, instruction, testing, and student organization in classrooms and

across departments. Studies of its own work and others' inquiries (e.g.,

hearing what colleagues at Hodges were studying) helped team participants

Forms & Contents of Social Studies Team Work

Classroom Work

Observation, feedback and discussion about what students do and say in groups

Observation, feedback, discussion, co-planning and co-teaching with teacher candidates

Out-of-classroom Work

Feedback and discussion about planning, teaching and assessing curriculum, instruction and student understanding

Study of the work and construction of theoretical ideas and principles

Figure 4.1: Forms and Contents of Social Studies Team Work

construct ideas and theoretical principles which they used to design new curriculum and instruction.

Out-of-Classroom Work

Out-of-class work happened in two ways: formal team meetings and informal conversations among members. During the two years I participated, 45 formal meetings took place. Formal meetings occurred on the average of three per month, and most or all members attended. I define formal meetings as those times that we planned ahead to meet at a certain time and place, and had particular purposes. In 1989-90, we scheduled our own meetings around the fringes; e.g., Ken and Gary's preparation periods and lunches. We also created "dinner meetings" where members hosted a meeting over dinner at their homes. Beginning in the summer, 1990, we had institutional support for meetings. Midstate arranged a 9-day summer institute in 1990 in which we had daily time to discuss plans for the upcoming year. In 1990-91 when Hodges adopted a restructured schedule, we met during the designated time on Wednesday mornings.

"Side conversations," "on the fly" chats, smoking room talk--these were the many names my teammates gave to the informal conversations that occurred during Gary or Ken's preparation periods, after school, or during lunch. At times they arose spontaneously as teammates tended to their responsibilities; e.g., Bill and Ken both retreat to the smoking room for a quick smoke after lunch. Many times these talks were planned, though,

especially by Bill. Given his experiences working in collaborative efforts with and without teachers, Bill believed that often the best talks take place out of a meeting. Let folks know what each other is thinking, he told me many times over the two years, and then they can come to the meeting with their ideas and arguments outlined. Meetings then became times when plans of action emerge, instead of just places where initial ideas get explained and then more meetings need to happen before action can be taken.

Informal chats needed two kinds of enabling conditions. First, participants needed to have time (e.g., reallocated time in which someone else taught their class) and to be in the same place (e.g., university-based members needed to be at Hodges). Also, team participants worked in a school in which they were encouraged to break with tradition and actually talk with peers about teaching. As a team member, I used to take-for-granted what I now see (with my "distanced eye") as the privilege of "talking teaching," as I used to call it; talking about teaching had become an endorsed routine structurally and administratively at Hodges.

Aside from formal meetings and informal conversations, the team often worked together in other Hodges PDS contexts. For instance, the four key members and I also attended the Teacher Education Seminar in the school. At times we met while fulfilling other engagements, e.g., being interviewed for a story in the local newspaper about our PDS. And still other times we made presentations together about our general work (e.g., to the

local school board) and specific parts of the work (e.g., how literacy instruction

is part of teaching social studies, which we talked about at a state conference.)

Out-of Class Team Content

What did out-of-class work look like? How did the team work? What

did members do and talk about? These questions provide the framework for

this next section. In order to capture what the team did, I looked across the

content of team meetings, my fieldnotes about informal conversations, and

what members recounted in their interviews. To guide the reader, I provide

a graphic representation of a time line with the territory we covered in our

meetings and a small sense of the changes in processes over the two years.

(See Figure 4.2: Social Studies Team Time-Line.)

What Did Classroom Work Look Like?

I begin with the question of what did out-of-class work look like.

Wanting to begin with team members' perspectives, I looked back at the

spring, 1991, interview when I asked participants what I might see if I were a

journalist observing the team. Bill offered an interesting set of pictures:

> It seems to me some days you may see something that made you
> wonder whether there was a team at all. People sort of show up
> and it's not clear what the agenda is. Talk wanders from this
> and that to things that are going on in the school...On other
> occasions you would see one or more people from the
> university, or one or more of the Hodges teachers, more typically
> one engaged in a fairly pointed conversation about what was
> going to happen in a class or what had happened...For example,
> the potential virtue of a primary document in history. We're
> talking about what might be done with it and simultaneously
> trying to figure out what that document had to do with the
> objective of teaching history that was also conceptual...On other

Social Studies Team Time-Line

February 89 — Initial PDS meetings
"What is a PDS?"

June 89 — Initial SS team meetings
Proposal for study of existing practices
and potential innovations

October 89 — Regular SS team meetings begin
Classroom observations begin

WHO	WHAT	ABOUT
• Teacher candidates • Experienced classroom teachers • University-based teachers • High school Social Studies students	• Discussion • Experimentation • Study	Questions and issues about: • Curriculum • Instruction • Student organization • Student and teacher roles

January 91 — "Conflict & War" semester unit begins

March 91 — C&W's "World War II" unit begins

April 91 — WWII's study of Nazi Concentration Camps and U.S. Internment Camps

Figure 4.2:   Social Studies Team Time Line

occasions you would see them around somebody's dinner table, drinking wine and talking about what has been up over a period of months and what ought to be happening next, and then of course just shooting the breeze about the weather. (p. 3-4)

Comments from other teammates (see Tables 3.1 and 4.1 as well as elsewhere in formal interviews and informal chats) and my own interpretations paint similar portraits of team meetings. In fact, Ken used some of the same verbs Bill alluded to: participants would be "talking, thinking, listening, interacting, and watching." (4) Everyone also mentioned, as I did, too, in my journal, that conversations had a mix of humor and seriousness. Ken and Gary had a history of 20 years of working together, and often made quips to each other about coaching (which they both did), about coffee-drinking (which Gary did in copious amounts), about the differences in their teaching styles (Ken planned and readied everything weeks ahead, while Gary was more last minute). Bill, Sally, and I fell right into this norm of teasing ourselves.

When meeting as a team, we usually congregated in Gary's classroom since it was larger. Participants usually walked in talking, or started talking to someone as soon as they entered (team members seemed never short on words!). Pulling student chairs into a circle, usually university-based people pulled out notepaper while school-based people often had materials they were teaching with. Informal conversations happened mostly at Hodges since that's where we all would see each other, and we mostly talked in the teacher staffroom during a lunch or preparation period.

How Did the Team Work?

I found a number of similarities across the 45 meetings and informal conversations. A few routines emerged, for example, that remained salient despite the diversity of topics, structural changes, and changes in personnel. Also, though participants took on a variety of roles, the roles they took became quite predictable.

Routines

The team's work developed a kind of seasonal rythmn that remains intact even presently. Since student teachers worked in Hodges during fall term, the usual conversations were around their progress and learning. By winter, we turned our attention to designing curriculum and by mid-spring we looked at what we hoped would happen next year. The end of spring and summer found us working on end-of-year reports and new proposals.

Many routines also developed within meetings. One routine I call "attempted and actual agenda-making." Bill introduced the idea of making an agenda at the beginning of each meeting at the start of our work in fall, 1989. We did this in other collaborative work, he told me, and I believe it's useful because it invites everyone's ideas to come onto the table (2/11/90 fieldnotes). I call the routine "attempted" because many times the agenda-making never got finished before the team started discussing the idea or question! Sometimes Bill would act directly to keep agenda-building going by asking people to list the item and hold their discussion; this seemed to

happen especially around logistical stuff, e.g., setting up a dinner meeting. He seemed to let the discussion begin, however, when Ken or Gary wanted to tell about incidents in their classroom.

The opening of meetings always came when Bill asked for agenda items. People usually stopped talking (but not always!) Agenda-making proceeded by participants saying what they needed and wanted to address in the current meeting. Bill kept track, and especially when we had a lot of items we called for the team to rank order what to discuss via immediacy.

Another salient commonality across all the team meetings was their lack of closure. When we discussed a class or curriculum, we discussed it until we had no more time or, if Bill was keeping us to an agenda, when Bill suggested we move to attend to other business. No one was ever held to committing to try something that we had discussed. In addition to no formal commitment, meetings never seemed officially to end; they simply stopped when the school bell rang signalling the end of the period or another meeting beckoned participants. When I raised this observation with Bill in the middle of our second year, he smiled but did not seem surprised. Maybe that's so, he speculated, so that no one--especially the teachers--feels "trapped" into agreeing to do something he might be uncomfortable with (January, 1991 fieldnotes).

Usually after team meetings, we had a schedule-making time when participants checked with each other about plans for the day. Again, no one

said, "Check schedules." But, participants usually milled about sharing--if

Hodges teachers--what they were going to teach or, if Midstate

teachers--whom they planned to observe. Usually, Midstate people talked

with the Hodges person they had been working with; e.g., given my interests,

I had worked a lot with Ken to plan curriculum, so it made sense that I often

"hung out"--which was what we often called observing--in his classroom.

Out of team meetings, Bill and I developed some routines, too. Mostly,

we agreed to check with each other over the course of a day about logistics; in

what classrooms would Bill be and where would I be? We started this

because we didn't want to crowd Ken and Gary; too many observers did not

make sense to any of us. But by the middle of our first year Bill and I realized

how much we counted on this time together. We used to seek each other

out, set times to meet, and sometimes talk later or the next day on the

telephone. Conversations enabled us to describe what we saw and heard in

classrooms at Hodges and how we interpreted it, e.g., Listen to what I heard

Steven say in Gary's 5th period. What do you think he might have been

thinking?, or "Groupwork around what it meant to live in the Progressive

Era is working as we planned, but I'm not sure if the kids are into it." At

times, these conversations got picked up later, when Ken or Gary were

around. Also, these kinds of conversations about teaching and learning

incidents and/or curriculum design and evaluation often invited other

teachers in the staffroom, which was where Bill and I usually talked, to join

in. We welcomed those moments, feeling like we were part of a community larger than just the team[1].

<u>Roles</u>

Over the two years of the team's work, participants took on roles that they continued playing throughout our time together. Gary and Ken, for example, continued to be the classroom specialists who put into action the team's ideas. Sally maintained her involvement mostly with teacher education, yet also kept up her questioner and clarifier role. Bill played a kind of jack-of-all trades; he synthesized ideas while summarizing discussions, and extended the team's thinking and possibilities for action. Though I altered my official roles when I moved from a PDS documenter to working only on the team, and when I decided to study the team's work while doing it, I, too, continued as a notetaker, questioner, and liason between Hodges mentor teachers and the university-based teacher preparation program (see my extended discussion about my role in Chapter Two). In Chapters One and

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[1]Other Hodges teachers eventually asked Bill and me to observe in their classrooms, too. For Bill, these requests came from teachers who attended weekly and bi-weekly cooperative learning circle" meetings in which they discussed their attempts to teach ideas through cooperative learning strategies. Bill volunteered, and about 10 teachers took him up on it, to watch classes and talk about what he saw. Teachers also talked with him about planning ideas. For me, many requests came in the first year of the team's work when I was also a PDS documentor. Teachers often thought I could understand something they were trying to do if I saw it. The more time I spent at Hodges, the more teachers started talking with me about ideas they had and asking me to observe. Bill and I both fielded more and more observation requests the more time we spent at Hodges.

Three, and later in this chapter, I describe examples of participants enacting

these roles in team meetings, in informal conversations, and in teaching.

These roles remained quite salient and predictable across the two years,

and I wondered why that was the case. Also, I wondered if I was the only

participant who noticed their sustainability. In order to examine these

questions I looked back at the spring interviews to see the ways participants

perceived their teammates acting; did they see the same things I saw? I

examined each time a participant talked about a colleague, and especially

looked at the responses when I asked directly, "What would I see other

members of the team doing?"

In many ways my teammates' perceptions fit the impressions I had.

They painted a picture of participants doing many different things, but

overlapping around the team's main purposes of tinkering with curriculum

and instruction, talking about it, and considering the best ways to help

students understand (e.g., what forms of grouping facilitated learning?). Yet

in one important way my teammates' perceptions differed from my own, and

that came out when they talked about (or didn't talk about) what Sally did,

and why and how. I was surprised that Bill never mentioned Sally's role;

when he explained what the team looked like (see the section above), he

never mentioned the teacher education focuses. Both Ken and Gary defined

Sally's role on the team quite vaguely, believing that because Sally

concentrated her energies on teacher preparation she wasn't really involved

on the team. "Sally is not that involved with the team...She does a lot of work with the student teacher and the mentor program, like setting up the situation," said Gary (p. 10), while Ken believed that Sally was "sort of" a member, because she

> hasn't been that much a part of the actual classroom...She is sort of an adjunct. She's interested in it; she participates to the extent that she can, but she has a lot of other things to do. I think her university work precludes her from really becoming part of the team...And that's a shame (because) she has a lot of ideas and she's a bright person. I'd like to see her in a position of doing more things like a Michelle or Bill. (p. 3)

These reactions surprised me, because in my view Sally's teacher education work counted as teamwork; she played the role of teacher educator. In the team's first year, she supervised the student teachers with whom Ken and Gary worked, and led seminars (at Hodges and Midstate) in which those student teachers participated. In year two, though I supervised the students, Sally often talked with me about them, and Ken and Gary heard and knew that Sally and I conferred a lot. I saw Sally as playing an important role on the team because I saw the teacher preparation aspects of her work feeding into the team's endeavors; she worked with the student teachers who worked with our team.

I believe that Ken's, Gary's, and Bill's comments reveal their beliefs that work in teacher education did not constitute a major part of the team's work. Sally became less of a member because her job focused more on teacher preparation than work at Hodges. This perception, perhaps, also had to do

with Ken and Gary's views that participating on the team meant <u>being at</u>

<u>Hodges</u>. Their perception of Sally being less of a member seems based on her

lack of presence at Hodges. Ken and Gary held similar ideas about Teresa's

"adjunct" status on the team. Like Sally, Teresa went to Hodges only for team

meetings and she even missed some of those. Sally, Bill, and I saw Teresa's

lack of attendance at Hodges as a symptom of her non-involvement, not the

cause. Ken and Gary, on the other hand, seemed to see non-attendance on

Sally and Teresa's part as the cause of a different kind of participation (I

discuss this later in the chapter.)

In any case, the role of teacher educator, which was Sally's main

position at Midstate, seemed to take on less importance for my teammates

than for me. Aside from what I think may have been the reasons for Ken and

Gary's alternate views, I also think that teacher education took on greater

significance for me because I had some particular questions about teacher

preparation I had hoped to answer while working with the team, e.g., in what

ways might learning to teach within a team that is committed to reforming

teaching practices be helpful? How would such learning to teach unfold?

I explore the range of roles participants played and their saliency in the

three examples of team practice I describe and analyze in the bulk of this

chapter. By looking at the ways participants enacted their roles <u>in context</u>[2], I

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[2]See (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, in press) for examples and rationale
for studying role enactment within teaching practice.

gain an understanding of how participants came to expect certain actions on each other's parts. I believe that participants took on certain roles, and kept playing them, because they were reinforced by teammates, and clearly able to play the roles given their knowledge, expertise, and interests.

What Did Members Do and Talk About?

While doing out-of-classroom work, the team spent its time in three ways: planning, doing, and discussing and debating beliefs and orientations. In this section, I talk generally about these activities, providing the specifics within the contexts of the actual work which I describe in the next section.

Planning

Across the two years, the social studies team planned for two types of occasions, teaching and learning in classrooms, and out-of-classroom work. Planning in-classroom work involved considering the worth and benefit of possible actions, e.g., piloting a mastery learning plan in one economics class; planning a test in which students analyzed primary documents and wrote essays about them in groups. Planning discussions touched on what we would have to do to make something work; e.g., how to explain ideas to students in ways that would extend their thinking, how to assess the first exam students probably ever took that requested them to analyze primary documents on the spot.

Out-of-classroom work plans included a lot of logistics, e.g., how many students would be interviewed in which classrooms; should the team request

meeting time on Wednesday mornings? Planning dominated the team's agendas at the beginning of each semester and especially at the end of each school year in part due to institutional obligations. All PDS participants were required to complete end-of-year progress reports (which I usually wrote, based on our discussions and my notes) and write funding proposals for the next school year.

At times, the team also planned ways to involve especially Ken in teacher education efforts in an introductory course Bill taught (and Ken co-taught with him one term) and in the recruitment and assessment of student teachers. A few times during the two years, we planned times that team members would attend Bill's teacher education class. For instance, one day Gary, Teresa, Bill and I held a team meeting in the middle of Bill's class. Before that day, we talked about what we wanted the teacher candidates to listen for and comment about after our meeting.

Another major idea we planned during year two that never actually occurred was to write a paper together about the work we did. Tentatively called "Mixed Monologues," we envisioned the paper would be a collection of our ideas, individually written and then summarized (probably by Bill and me). At one point we even set up "writing partners" who would comment and read each other's drafts. Finding and making the time to write, revise, and write again probably stopped this project from ever happening.

Doing

While the team's actions focused on changing and studying curriculum and instruction, each year saw a slightly different way to approach it. In 1989-90, members spent most meeting time looking at cumulative records from individual students, trying to organize a data base in which we could examine why and how students got placed in the kinds of courses they had. Some time was spent talking about individual students, especially in mid-fall, 1989 when we all observed in Ken's classroom (see the vignette in Chapter 1). Our hope was to deepen our understanding about the range of abilities students had in the different courses, something we hoped would help us plan and enact improved curriculum and instruction. Unfortunately, while we looked at the records and conducted the interviews, we found little time to talk together about what we learned from our inquiry and how that might shape our next steps.

The following year ushered in a shift of focus in meetings in which we paid close attention to the actual curriculum in two courses. Our efforts centered on Gary's economics course and at first Ken's general U.S. history course (and we eventually included his fundamentals skills history course.) By mid-year the team split into subteams to facilitate this work. While Gary worked with Walt (the Midstate intern) and Lisa (the special education consultant) to alter the economics curriculum, Bill, Teresa, Sally (to a lesser extent) and I concentrated on planning a semester unit Ken wanted to teach

about wars and conflict in the 20th century. Accompanying curriculum and instructional changes (necessary to teach the altered curriculum), the team conducted interviews over the year with five or six students in two of Gary's and two of Ken's classes. I describe the decisions about this interviewing later in the chapter.

Sharing Beliefs and Orientations

Debates during team meetings centered on two major sets of beliefs. First, the team talked about the actual problem that Ken and Gary crafted in summer, 1989—essentially, to track students or not. Most team meetings had to do with this issue of tracking, and its off-shoot question about enhancing curriculum and instruction to meet all students' needs whether or not they are in homogenous or heterogenous classrooms. Teammates differed in the ways they thought students wound up in particular courses, and the feasability of combining successful and less-successful students in one class. At the beginning, Ken and Gary believed that students were placed in tracks (a word they actually rarely used) via students' motivation; some students decide to work and other don't, they would say. Bill set up the questions around tracking as a kind of test of the theory that motivation determines placement. Sally rarely expressed her opinion, and while I seldom took a strong stance, I kept asking questions about what students learned and understood in the different classes. Might not their understanding and

comprehension of the material have something to do with motivation, I would suggest.

While we talked about our different views, and especially Ken and Gary tried to convince teammates that tracks represented grouping by motivation and not ability (and that, they seemed to say, was something they couldn't change), we also thought a lot and talked about how to study tracking and what works best for students. Over the two years, team participants spent a lot of energy trying to figure out how to study the questions they posed. They looked at students' records, they interviewed students, they altered curriculum and discussed it. At one point, Ken even asked the head counselor about the feasibility of collapsing the fundamental skills track the following semester (something Ken and others decided not to do.)

Yet to some extent the team never made a decision about the larger issue of collapsing a track. Instead, by 1991-92, Ken designed and piloted a new course that combined American history and American literature and included a heterogenous group of students. Gary continued arguing that tracking didn't have the bad effects it had elsewhere because Hodges students were in tracks based on their own motivation. Bill concentrated on curricular design, abandoning the decision because, he told me, probably Ken and Gary weren't ready to make it (spring, 1991 interview). Sally maintained her focus on teacher education.

THE TEAM IN ACTION: THREE EXAMPLES OF PRACTICES

To illustrate what the social studies team's out-of-classroom work looks like in action, I present three "plays." One is an informal set of conversations expanding over a couple different episodes; the other examples come from team meetings in the second year that illustrate discussions about the two major issues of the team's work: grouping students, and changes in curriculum and instruction. Illustrative of the features of the work in terms of how the team worked (routines and roles) and what members did, these slices also bring to light something often passed over in the literature: conflict within collaborative groups.

Three Views of Collaborative Planning

This play had three scenes. In the first, participants are Bill, Gary, and to a much lesser extent, me. A week later these folks met again with Barbara, a novice teacher who had just finished student teaching with Gary and was now teaching one course for Gary (one section of psychology) and one class for Ken[3], about the same issues. I resurfaced the conversation nine months later when working with Joe, who was student teaching with Gary.

Scene One

Coming into the staffroom toting his briefcase and ever-present cup of coffee, Gary sat down and sighed. Putting the psychology textbook on the

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[3]This person was the first "intern" teacher hired at Hodges by PDS funds. She and other interns provided reallocated time for teachers. Now this position, called "co-teacher", is commonplace in the school.

table, he looked at Bill and said, "I need to do something quick and dirty to

help the kids get through some introductory stuff in this psychology text."

The new semester had just started the week before this particular Friday in

early February, 1990. As usual, Gary was teaching two one-semester courses

in U.S. Government and psychology. This semester differed, however, in

that Gary's fall term student teacher taught one section of psychology thereby

giving Gary one period of reallocated time (which was now).

"I want to use some kind of cooperative learning to do this, but how

can I do it?" Gary asked Bill. He continued

> The problem as I see it is a problem of quality versus quantity.
> The text begins with a chapter on normal psychology, abnormal
> psychology, and then one in which they treat the two together.
> They go through a whole lot of conditions, behavioral and
> physiological. Now most of this stuff gets picked up later in the
> book, so these chapters are just introductory. But there is a lot of
> stuff in there, a lot of vocabulary and ideas, and the kids do need
> to know it. I just don't want them to get hung up on it like they
> usually do. We'll see this stuff again later in the semester.

Bill listened attentively, leaning in on the table and nodding a lot as

Gary presented the problem. When Gary finished, Bill said,

> Yeah, we can arrange some kind of cooperative learning exercise.
> It makes sense to do that, doesn't it? I mean, it sounds like you
> know what you want them to know. You want heterogeneous
> groups in which students get to know the vocabulary of
> psychology. And we could design something in which we might
> say, "You'll know this stuff in three weeks," and you model for
> them how to do it. Seems to me like you'd have to model how
> we use a textbook in this way—going through and getting the
> main ideas--and how to learn vocabulary, how to get the words.
> Essentially, you model drill and practice."

Gary agreed that students needed to see a model. He talked about the negative press that drill and practice now received, explaining how he believed that in some instances (like the current situation in his psychology class) students still needed to drill on ideas. They need these ideas, and they need to know them and be able to use them, to understand the more difficult ideas yet to come, he explained to Bill. Bill nodded, and synthesized the conversation so far while asking a question

> So you say to the students, "You have to think about how to plan and represent the material to yourself, your group and the class." And you (pointing to Gary) model how to do and talk about psychology vocabulary. And you let them practice doing it. So seems like we have to think about what kinds of practice we can have them do.

Gary agreed with Bill's ideas, and said he thought he would have students make lists of the different characteristics of normal and abnormal psychological conditions. As Bill leafed through the textbook chapters, I had an idea. Could groups of students compile descriptions of particular conditions, and then share them with other groups, I wondered aloud. Bill nodded, and told us about sociology tests he had prepared when working at another university. The test consisted of sentence stems that described different situations. The respondent had to choose the proper term, among four possibilities, for the description. As Gary and Bill talked about this kind of test, they broadened their conversation and talked about what kinds of learning go on when students learn about concepts. They have to learn the label for the concept, what significance the label has, what the concept means,

how it links to other ideas; these are some of the things Bill and Gary discussed.

After about ten minutes, Bill turned the conversation back to Gary's classroom. "You have to stress to students what you want them to learn, and that is the vocabulary, right?" he asked Gary. "Yes," Gary said, "I want them to learn vocabulary and learn how to learn it. They'll see a lot of different vocabulary in the textbook." The bell rang, signalling second period. Gary snatched up his belongings, and asked me if I wanted to sit in on his second period (U.S. government). "There's a class where we'll be talking about lots of concepts as I help them (students) understand social contract theory," Gary added with a laugh. I trailed after him down the hall to his classroom.

<u>Scene Two</u>

One week later the same small group gathered in the staffroom, adding Barbara to our discussion. Usually she was teaching Gary's class when we talked. But since Hodges had a half-day in-service which the principal had allotted to teachers' use, we had time to all sit together and talk about the psychology course. Involving Barbara in our discussions especially pleased Bill and me because we wanted Barbara to hear and see conversations about wrestling with problems of practice.

Gary briefly told Barbara about the ideas we had discussed the week before, and the decisions he had made in the meantime about actually carrying it out.

Each group of students will define psychological terms and create
a situation that describes that particular term. Then students
will design test questions, using the situation they described and
creating multiple choice items to identify it. And we will use
these items in a test, adding some of our own, too. Now, we'll
have to be careful choosing students for groups because we have
a lot of diversity. Make sure we balance groups and have some
higher achieving students and some middle-range kids.

Barbara nodded while she took notes. Looking to Gary, she asked about

how many days such an activity should take. "Oooh, two class periods

maybe? I don't have a sense of how long each group will take to do it." Bill

nodded, suggesting that "we try it and see."

Bill proposed that students receive two grades on their test, one

individual grade and one based on the average of their group members'

grades.

Giving them the average grade of the group will push them to
work together. They need to understand what task they are
going to perform, and how that task is meant to be performed
together.

Gary and Barbara agreed with Bill's idea. Barbara said she especially

liked having students generate scenarios about each condition, maybe even

using their own experiences and getting away from relying on the text. Bill

cautioned her:

You are raising the ante on an exercise like this from recognition
to application. Be clear about the task and the test. Show
students a sample test question...You'll have to coach them, too,
because if you have them generate scenarios from their
experiences, you are testing them on one thing--recognition and
application--and the task is something else--generation of
descriptions.

After a phone call, Bill started talking again about how these activities might look in practice. Turning toward Barbara he said,

> Will this take two days? Let's run through it. You need 10-15 minutes to group students and make the assignment. You'll have about nine groups, if we have them in groups of three or four students. Each group will need about 30 minutes, and then maybe some time for general discussion?

While Bill talked, Barbara took notes and jotted down the times as Bill suggested them. In the end, Bill, Barbara and Gary decided the exercise might take three or probably four days. Bill added,

> Think ahead to possibly using it later in the semester, because that will indicate how much time you should take to explain (this particular) set-up for the task. If it looks like your textbook asks for a lot of definitions of terms, you might want to use this format in class again.

When Gary and Barbara appeared ready to move forward with the plan, Barbara told the group her tentative plan for teaching about stress (which was the next topic in the course). She planned to use small groups and have each group discuss adaptive and less-adaptive stress by thinking about the stressful situations in their own and in friends' and relatives' lives. "Doing this thing (the lessons the group had just planned) first will help get students ready to talk in small groups," Barbara concluded. Since Barbara and Bill needed to go to another meeting, the conversation ended.

Scene Three

Nine months after this incident I was working with Joe, Gary's then current student teacher. After being at Hodges for the day, I stopped in after

school to say good-bye to Joe and ask if everything was ready for the next day.

Joe was having a difficult time student teaching, and I very recently had a

frank conversation about the improvement I expected to see within the next

month. A question like I had asked usually got me a mumbled, "Sure," so I

was pleasantly shocked when he said

> Well, I'm not sure what to do with this chapter tomorrow in
> sociology. There is a lot of stuff to get through--it's about
> personal development and theories of Piaget, Freud, Kohlberg,
> all in something like 15 pages. How do I get through that
> without just lecturing about it?

This sounds so much like Gary's comment last year, I remember

thinking, when Gary wanted to move students through a lot of introductory

content in the psychology text! I was so struck by the comparison that I told it

to Joe, and said, "Let's see what we can learn from what Bill and Gary and

Barbara worked out last year." I was hoping Joe might begin to understand

the value of talking with others, and see that conversations about teaching

were not admissions of failure (like I believed he thought).

After asking Joe what he wanted students to learn from this part of the

chapter (familiarity with theories), we talked for 15 minutes about what parts

might be important for student to understand. Then I explained what Gary

and Barbara had done in psychology last year, telling him what our plans

were and how Barbara and Gary reported it turned out. Putting my head on

my hand, I asked, "Now given what your goals are, and your content, can we

learn anything from what they did that might help us with tomorrow's

lesson?" I had wanted Joe to think more about alternatives to lecturing, and having students work in a range of small groups was a favored strategy used not just by social studies team members, but also by many other teachers (and student teachers) in the school. Given the mini-case I just told him, I hoped Joe might have some ideas. "Well, maybe they could look at the different theories in small groups, each group taking a theory. And maybe they could pull out the key ideas from the textbook." "Sounds like a plan," I replied. "Now how can you make it work?" And for the next 45 minutes (some of which Gary joined us for) we planned what the exact task would be, how Joe would get students into groups, how he would explain the task, and how this plan fit with the goals he had. I even made Joe write down what we planned!

We planned a 2-day set of lessons. We asked each group of students to write a couple paragraphs about the theory they had discussed, and Joe would compile the paragraphs and distribute them to everybody. The paragraphs would be summaries of each theory, based on a few questions Joe and I generated (e.g., Why did xxx propose this theory? What concerns did it take into account?) I was able to observe the first day, and I made sure that Gary would observe at least some of the second day. On the first day, I helped Joe make the assignment clear to students (students were initially confused) and I also worked with students in their small groups. Students' paragraphs for the most part answered our questions, and Joe believed they served his goals.

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Commentary

Typical of the kinds of informal conversations among team members, this set of connected incidents took place in the usual settings, the staffroom and in a classroom. Another common feature illustrated in this example is that though the conversation changed in its different iterations, it began with a particular purpose that had to do with student learning. Gary's original question was about student learning--how can I help students learn necessary vocabulary and concepts? When helping Joe, my goals also involved enhancing his learning and focusing his attention on student understanding by drawing upon the case of Barbara, Gary and Bill's work helped me.

How Did Team Members Work

Some typical routines in our work reveal themselves through these episodes. When a teacher presented a problem, teammates listened and made suggestions. Another common thing was the way Gary invited me to observe in his classroom; since the next lesson seemed relevant to what we were discussing, he asked if I wanted to sit in.

Typical, also, were the roles participants played. Gary initiated the discussion, which emanated from a question about classroom teaching and learning. With the idea of trying a new strategy (cooperative learning) for working with the particular content he had, Gary wanted help refining the task and putting it into action. In Scene 2 Gary took on the roles of classroom specialist and implementer in which he put into practice the ideas he and Bill

had discussed by designing curricular tasks (e.g., have students create situations to define psychological terms, and then write multiple choice test items in which other students needed to fit the proper term with the proper situation).

Bill took on his multiple common roles of synthesizer, summarizer, and extender. He recapped the problem Gary presented--you need a plan to teach a lot of important vocabulary. He summarized parts of the action plan by restating what had been said, e.g., that Gary will model ways to define and discuss psychological vocabulary and the concepts they name. In addition, Bill played the summarizer and extender when he said, "What kinds of practices can we have them do?" My roles also were quite usual in that I remained mostly quiet during the discussions with Gary, Bill, and Barbara, and added something (having students work in groups to compile descriptions of psychological conditions) only when it pertained to students' learning. When working with Joe, in my role as teacher educator I helped him learn to identify a problem of practice (introducing students to many sociological theories) and establish an action plan. Finally, I acted as a liason between mentor and novice teacher when I included Gary in planning the lesson and asked him to observe Joe teach it.

What Team Members Do and Talk About

In these episodes we see teammates discussing content (psychological concepts), talking about ways to teach it, and helping people learn to teach it

(Bill's work with Barbara and mine with Joe.) While devising a plan to teach the psychology vocabulary, Bill and Gary also talked about the content, e.g., what is a psychological concept? What do students need to understand about psychological concepts? This discussion seemed to be a kind of planning for the lesson, that is, understanding what the content was and the worth of learning it enabled Bill and Gary to actually figure out what the tasks should be. Learning to teach tasks that are strategically, logistically, and conceptually different requires some time in organization and management. The three different discussions demonstrate the considerable amount of time spent discussing these issues. While Bill helped Barbara understand the tasks she devised (asking students to generate versus asking students to recognize ideas) and plan the logistics (e.g., how much time each phase of the lesson might take), I helped Joe with these issues and provided him with a kind of safety net by asking Gary to observe one day and taking a turn at observing the next day. In both instances, Bill and I paid attention to helping novices learn to teach by coaching the novices and helping Gary see what he might say and do to help them.

Overall, these conversations illustrate an inherent problem in the team's work as well as a plus. Often planning conversations like those I described could not be followed up by observation or participant observation during the teaching. Schedule conflicts often seemed to stand in the way no matter how we played with the schedule at Hodges. The Midstate schedule

and obligations, moreover, never seemed to change in ways that allowed Bill,

Sally, or me to be at Hodges as much as we wanted. Schedule problems also

wreaked havoc on the timeliness of even a conversation about what

happened in a classroom, and often by the time we could talk about how an

activity was the teacher forgot the particulars because a week or more had

passed. Yet despite--or perhaps, in spite--of these schedule constraints,

conversations among teammates maintained continuity in themes, topics,

questions, and ideas. Like these episodes point out, team members drew

upon previous experiences whether they happened the week before or nine

months before!

<div align="center">Debating the Team's Inquiry[4]</div>

The team meeting I describe now happened in October, 1990, when the

group needed to make decisions about interviewing students. I had spoken

with Gary and Ken about what questions we wanted to ask students, and I'd

drafted them[5]. We gotta get these interviews started, I remember thinking,

and I had hoped that at this meeting we could critique the interview protocol

I'd drafted and schedule student interviews. I started talking with Ken and

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[4]We welcomed a visitor during this meeting who eventually wrote an essay about our team. My description and analyses are informed by her fieldnotes and interpretations, for which I am grateful.

[5]We asked questions aimed at finding out what students thought they were learning, and why. We asked them to recount what they'd been doing in their social studies class, if they thought it was important, and how they might use what they were learning.

Sally about the logistics of getting the interviews started, and eventually

everyone started listening to what we were saying.

Bill moved the conversation to the consideration of this question:

how many students did we want to interview? Bill thought that the 18 we

had targetted was too high, and Ken suggested we cut back by only

interviewing students in the general course. While Bill agreed, I didn't.

MBP: I would suggest continuing to interview fundamental skills and
honors because if our purpose is also to understand the ways kids are
understanding American History, and if from last year we were
thinking that different tasks and assignments for different groups of
kids will be associated with different kinds of understandings, then
interviewing...a couple kids from each of those classes can help us
understand the ways in which kids...are understanding history.

Bill: So you're arguing for a comparison study.

MBP: I think I'm arguing for two concurrent agendas or studies. [somewhat
startled at the curtness I heard in Bill's voice]

Ken: There are two questions.

MBP: Yeah, there are two questions and the one question is to try to
understand the different ways that kids are understanding and doing
history. There are three kinds of classes right now. And if what we're
interested in doing is thinking about the ways to collapse those classes,
then I would argue we need to understand how kids in each of those
classes understand history...I guess one kind of study would be trying to
understand how kids understand history. And I guess a second kind of
study would be the comparison, but I'm not so certain about the/[6]

Bill: You've made a two-part study...One of them is how are students
experiencing history in the general, fundamental skills track, and
honors...The other study is how are a range of students of diverse
characteristics reacting to attempts in one class to teach for conceptual

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[6] A [/] shows when the speaker was interrupted.

change and make a class more cohesive and more pleasing and precipitate more interest.

Many people started talking at once, considering what resources we needed and, therefore, how many students we could work with. Bill stopped these conversations with a summary:

Bill: Well for me it's not clear enough yet what we want to find out. I guess I'v been thinking that, uh, this choice is still coming up. It could still be that what we need to be working on is the issue of how does instruction unfold differently in the three levels of the system. Because what is still really on the table and it might still really be important is whether the classes should be any different. If that is still really on the table then it seems to me that that is what we have to do. If what we did last year got us far enough in the direction of improving, then the more important issue is how does one design a class for diversity and in that the preference moves toward focusing on a class and thinking about how our efforts to change a class works for a variety of kids.

Bill pushed Ken to think about what he wanted, as well as what he thought, would happen with the fundamental skills level in American History next year. Ken thought the fundamental skills level should be collapsed into the general level, and Bill concluded that we then needed the "more intensive study" which concentrated only on the general level students. But Teresa reminded the group that "with these fairly low self-esteem students" we need to consider not just their academic success. "Throwing them into a regular classroom of 28 or 30 kids with not much individual attention and being expected to function in the same level creates problems that are more than academic."

Again participants began having different conversations at the same time about what students needed, and how we as teachers might find out and then provide it. After about 3 minutes, I addressed the group by reminding them about a set of interviews which a Hodges special education teacher had done last spring with fundamental skills students who had been enrolled in a general level science class. The teacher told me about what she had learned from the students, and to the team I said,

MBP: ...a couple things she told me very deeply affected me. She told me about students from the fundamental skills class. One particular student (from the fundamental skills class) said to her, 'I just didn't get this. But that's ok. I'll just repeat this class next year. But, the problem is I probably won't get it next year either. I don't know. Maybe I'm just brain damaged.' [I provide more examples of students' responses.] I guess my question is: Do we know that the fundamental skills students think that way, so we...understand them and...we just have to design appropriate group work...and take into account that we might have to help them a little bit more. Or do we need to really understand more about the ways that kids who have been less successful all the way through school understand and do history? And I don't know the answer to that. Do we need --

Ken: I think that's a real good question...(Tells a story about an academically and socially troubled student)...And I can--we can design the hell out of something and it ain't gonna do squat.

Bill: That's not the issue. The issue is we can't do it all, so/under what program in this school are his odds better.

MBP: I feel that's bullshit. I'm not advocating doing it all, Bill, but

Bill: We want to, but we can't. The issue is under what program in this school are his odds better.[7]

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[7]These four lines of text were all said at the same time.

Teresa: Let me get this straight. Are we talking about holding these kids in Ken's classes, classes that are designed for diversity, or folding them into (other teachers') classes, some of which are designed for diversity, some of which are not? (Is that) a kind of a sink or swim mode?

Bill: That is why it's a department question.

Ken: Yes. A very good question.

MBP: [in a very controlled voice] And I don't − If I was a betting person...I can't lay money down because I don't [looking at Bill]--this is a personal reaction--I don't think that I understand the kids that we're going to be collapsing into the general class. And I'm going to underline that it's a personal reaction because I don't teach fundamental skills history. I never have taught fundamental skills history. I, Michelle Parker, may not know those kids, you and you and you (pointing to Ken, Bill, and Fay) may know those kids...What I'm saying may be totally personal, but it's coming from something deep down that's bottom.

Bill: [in a voice that sounded like Bill was very frustrated] What'd we do last year, Michelle?

MBP: Bill, this is problematic/

Bill: What did we spend eight months doing last year?/

MBP: I don't think we know enough from last year./

Bill: Michelle, own up to what you are saying![8]

Bill believed I was suggesting that folding the fundamentals skill class into the general track was too hasty, and I agreed that "putting all students together who have troubles is difficult to do." When Bill said he thought I was "going back over old terrain", I said this in a very slow and low voice

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[8]These four lines of text were spoken at the same time.

I'm turning back to what are we going to do this year. I think that we need to still continue talking with <u>at least</u> the kids in the fundamental skills class so that we can understand the ways that students who have been troubled in school understand and do history. And, we need to continue talking about that and not just concentrate on looking in the general classes because that's the place where there's a lot of diversity. I think that we need to keep looking at the general classes; we need to keep playing there and interviewing students and doing observations...But I don't think that we can abandon doing some systematic study of how kids know, understand, and do history in the fundamental skills class because we have to try to keep understanding those students and understanding our practices with those students so that we can try to speculate what will happen next year when they are together. So I'm not going to say that it's too hasty to collapse these classes next year. But I think that we have a lot of work to do before we do that and part of that work is to keep watching and understanding how fundamental skills students learn history and understand it.

Ken: I think maybe what we could say what we ought to do, for purposes of resources [looking at Bill], is take two classes, one at the general level and the other one at the fundamental level. And maybe not deal with six students in each, but deal with maybe three students and eliminate consideration of honors students. Because in my experience as a teacher particularly with this (honors) group—and I could be full of crap—those kids (the honors students) are so damn good at learning that they will do it anyway.

As Ken suggested his plan, everyone nodded in agreement. Bill said he liked Ken's proposal because it cut the scope of the data collection, "and the study is relevant to the merger and whether there should be a merger." Bill asked Sally what she thought, and she raised the next issue of discussion; that is, how to make decisions like collapsing the fundamental skills class when it related to more than the people on the social studies team. For the remaining 10 minutes the team discussed ways to involve department members in a

discussion about the merits and costs of undoing the fundamentals skills track.

(meeting transcript, p. 6-15; fieldnotes from me our visitor; my journal)

Postscript

The preceeding discussion had lasted about 20 minutes. After the meeting, Bill and I saw each other in the teacher staffroom. "Some meeting, eh?" I asked Bill. "Yeah," he replied with a smile, "we really showed 'em how to argue a point!"

Commentary

More than any other scenario from my work on the social studies team, this one always comes immediately to mind. Showing conflict within collaborative work, and a range of views about the ways to explore the team's original question--to track or not to track, the meeting also sticks out to me because of my strong feelings at the time. My journal entry reminds me of what I was thinking

> What's the deal here? We haven't made a decision about what
> to study and there we were progressing to studying it! I was so
> [angry] because I thought Bill had just assumed we would do it
> the way he thought--look at one class. I couldn't see how that
> study would help us examine what kids in all the classes were
> thinking and understanding. Isn't that what we've said we
> needed to know all along?! (journal entry, 10/4/1990)

My work with Bill during this meeting struck me as anything but "collaborative". Saying things like "Own up to what you are saying!" and "Why are we going back over old terrain?" sounded very harsh to me. I had

never heard him talk with others on the team like that, though it was the second time he had spoken in a very blunt way to me at a team meeting (and that was also around the issue of whether we should be collapsing the fundamental skills class before, while, or after we studied what was happening in the classes). Why is he trying to corner me into making the same interpretations he has, I asked myself at the time.

Given my distanced eye now, however, I would call the exchanges that Bill and I had a kind of enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration. With trust and openness in our relationship, Bill and I took on a conversation that embraced conflict about teaching and learning. We debated ideas and opinions, and negotiated about what to do in classrooms. At the time, I took our disagreements in too much of a personalized way.

How Did Team Members Work

Probably due to the heatedness of the issues and discussion, this meeting broke some typical ways of acting in team meetings. Breaking with the usual routine of agenda-making, for example, this meeting began when participants attended to the currently pressing problem of arranging student interview data collection. Another difference was the way in which whole group discussion often gave way to conversation among just a few participants. Both Bill and I at two different times ended these, and brought the team back into a whole group discussion. For Bill, guiding the

conversations and keeping them on a certain track was typical of the role he played, though for me playing the "guiding" role was very unique.

Though this meeting shows how routine actions sometimes were abandoned, it also shows the saliency and predictability of participants' roles. Bill, for example, continued in his roles during this second year of our work as summarizer (e.g., "So you are arguing for a comparison study."), synthesizer (e.g., mixing together and presenting his concerns, what he perceived to be my proposals, and the problem of mounting the data collection with the scarce resources we had), and extender (e.g., at the end of the part of the meeting I described, Bill seized upon Sally's point about having to involve other social studies teachers in any experiment like collapsing the fundamental skills class). This episode also illustrates another role Bill played—the questioner. He directly asked Ken and Sally what they thought about the ideas on the table, drawing them in to the discussion by asking pertinent questions (e.g., what did Ken think would happen to the fundamental skills class.)

Ken's role in team meetings is also clear in this episode. He clarified (e.g., "There are two questions (to consider.") and (like Gary in the first vignette) acted as the classroom specialist by considering the pros and cons of interviewing students in different classes and what might happen to one of the classes he taught (the fundamentals class). Moreover, Ken provided the team with examples of teaching and learning from his classroom. Sally also

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played her usual role, remaining quiet at meetings unless she had a question about clarification or Bill asked for her thoughts.

My actions in this meeting were at times common and other times unique. Maybe because I was doing research, and/or because of my interests in inquiry, I often took responsibility for things connected to the empirical aspects of our work, e.g., interviewing students. In addition, I noticed as I looked across the two years that I would often interject comments about other people's inquiry projects, e.g., the questions they asked, the methods they used. Raising the special education teacher's work was another example of pointing out other related studies and a different perspective, one I suspected would be regardly highly since it was derived from Hodges students' work.

Yet, playing the role of vehement advocate for a particular stance was something I rarely took on again. Maybe we needed this meeting, and two others in which I debated with Bill about purposes for the inquiry[9], to iron out design issues. Making the decision about what data to collect forced the debate about design, which forced the question of what were we studying. Since our inquiry was about enhancing student learning, I stepped out of my usual notetaker role and entered a conversation that I believed had moral and political implications for students' learning.

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[9]One meeting was at the beginning of our work when Ken, Gary, and I explained what we wanted to study (see Chapter One) and at a dinner meeting seven months before this meeting.

What Did Members Do and Talk About

Though we started our conversation at this meeting with the relatively narrow problem of arranging data collection, the exchanges soon became embedded in the essence of the team's purposes, that is, studying and taking action about student grouping practices at Hodges. We had started the academic year focused on designing new curriculum in the high school classes, but this meeting reminds me that we didn't ever move away from the team's main purpose as Ken and Gary had crafted them[10]. By listening to what students said through interviews, we hoped to learn about the ways they understood history in order to plan and implement meaningful instruction and curriculum and decide if the best ways to do that was in homogenous or heterogenous classes.

Another element of the team's work evident in this episode is that no one person's ideas or opinions determined the team's work. By talking and presenting at times opposing views (studying what happened in classes across the tracks or within one), considering the consequences of potential actions (problems with resources), and listening to what Teresa, Ken, and Sally thought, the team's final decision to interview a smaller sample of students in two of the three kinds of history classes represented the product of negotiation and consensus from all members present.

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[10]I discuss the saliency of the team's initial problem statement in Chapter Six.

While this meeting illustrates how the team talked, debated, and negotiated ideas, the episode also shows something that did not get discussed. I never let Bill know what I thought about what he said and how he said it to me. I conclude that the norms of openness and honesty we developed in our team were aimed mostly at beginning and sustaining the relationship between the school and university folks. While working hard to make sure we would share ideas across institutions, we seemed to assume that people within the same institution (be it Hodges or Midstate) would have established similar norms of open communication. However, we never considered the importance of status differences within institutions that shape communication (see Thelen, 1954 and Oakes, Hare, & Sirotnik, 1986)for very good discussions about parity within collaborations.)

In this episode and the two other similar kinds of heated exchanges Bill and I had around the same issue, I believe that status differences constrained what I said. Bill was the professor, and I was the graduate student. And even though I never felt that I "worked" for Bill—I was hired and paid by funds not connected to him—I felt as though he was the team coordinator, that my teammates looked to him for guidance[11], and that my disagreement with his ideas was in someway wrong. Furthermore, I respected his scholarship and

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[11]Interviews with participants later in the school year actually confirmed my hunch that Bill was perceived as the leader.

practical experience in the area of professional teacher relations and I didn't feel that my expertise allowed me to challenge Bill."

The Rocky American History Subteam

While the "Debating the Inquiry" vignette dealt with the general question of grouping kids, this next excerpt from a team meeting illustrates talk and action about curriculum and instruction. To understand this set of episodes, one needs background. The team decided to split into subteams in October, 1990, in order to spend more time than we were on the design and implementation of new curriculum (we never had enough time to consider the American History and economics curriculum in addition to other business). Subgroups seemed to form naturally along people's expertise and interest. As a veteran American History teacher, Teresa worked with Ken. Sally and I also joined that group (though Sally rarely participated). Calling themselves the "econ subteam," Gary, Bill, Walt and Lynn (who was the special education teacher assigned to Gary's fundamentals economics class) worked together. Subteams met mostly in addition to the large group meetings.

Bill had hoped that forming a history subteam would help Teresa feel more a part of the team. Teresa had shared with Bill, Sally, and me, separately, that she wasn't quite certain what her role should be on the team. With encouragement from Bill, she even raised her concerns at a team meeting mid-December. "I just can't seem to find my niche," she confided.

Teresa did not want to do a lot of classroom teaching; she was on leave from her own 21-year teaching career for one-year of full-time graduate study. But other than teaching, she wasn't sure what else to do with the team.

Bill suggested, and the team agreed, to a strategy in which Teresa and Ken would plan some experiences for students to do in groups because Teresa wanted to learn more about teaching with cooperative group arrangements. In addition, Teresa might help the "intern" teachers the team planned to hire learn ways to implement cooperative grouping strategies. The first opportunity (and last) arose about a month later, when Ken said he planned to launch a semester unit about Conflicts and War in the honors class, but "it would be nice to work with someone and do the same in the other classes." Though pressuring himself to plan the unit to teach the next semester, Ken also faced a time crunch given that he needed to prepare and grade finals for the first semester (which was about to end). Bill suggested that he and Teresa could work on a beginning plan for the unit the next Wednesday morning while Hodges teachers gave final exams. Since Gary felt ready for next semester and was co-planning and co-teaching with Lisa and Walt, Bill said he would like to spend time working on the American history curriculum. Later Bill confided in me that he made this "move" because it seemed like the perfect way to get Teresa involved in some meaningful team work.

Scene One

Ken liked the idea, and Teresa and Bill met the following Wednesday

for two and a half hours (on campus). At this meeting, Teresa and Bill talked

mostly about a way to organize the unit (see Appendix C for the document

that Bill prepared for Ken based on this meeting.) They agreed to something

they called "windows" in which students would examine closely particular

periods in the 20th century that led up to and/or preceeded wars. Believing

that these "windows" would allow students to focus in and study something

more intensively, Teresa and Bill built upon Ken's new belief that narrowing

the scope of study would encourage students to be more thoughtful about

ideas and make connections.

Another major topic of discussion was what themes could weave

together and provide a conceptual framework for the studies of 20th century

conflicts. They tossed around numerous themes, e.g., reform and reaction,

nationalism, the fall of colonialism, national security, imperialism,

xenophobia. About half-way into the meeting, Bill suggested to Teresa that

they "play out the themes of colonialism and imperialism. "We would go

lightly (across the material), and dig in where?" asked Bill. They decided to

focus on four periods: the Spanish-American War of 1898; 1917 and World

War 1; 1920s and 1930s; 1945 and World War 2. Within each "posthole" time

period Teresa and Bill brainstormed "experiences" students could have while

studying it[12]. The document that Bill produced (in Appendix 4.1) showed

revisions he and Teresa made after this meeting.

I asked Teresa and Bill, after they finished their meeting, how and what

they planned to present to Ken from their deliberations. Looking at Teresa,

who nodded as he spoke, Bill said

> We'll tell him how we organized the curriculum around these
> slices. We'll tell him how we attend to the foreign side of things
> in American History. We can talk about how we addressed the
> more is less idea (which was how Ken explained his belief about
> close scrutiny of particular ideas rather than a broad only surface
> study), and how we are doing this in a conceptual way...We'll
> make our suggestions for themes, and how we treat postholing.
> (fieldnotes, 1/16/91)

Scene Two

Things didn't seem to go quite as planned, which wasn't unusual for

the social studies team. But the ways they went awry, as Bill and Teresa

reported to me later, they both found disturbing. Through my audiotape (and

transcript) of the meeting with Ken and fieldnotes of about half of it, I could

string together a set of exchanges that seemed less like a conversation than

most meetings. At the beginning of the meeting, while Teresa and Bill

continued to discuss their unit planning, Ken talked with Gary and other

teachers in the staffroom about his upcoming trip to San Diego for a

conference. After about seven minutes, he looked at the chart Bill had

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[12]Some of these activities actually made it into students' assignments,
e.g, the comparative biographical essays about Hitler and Roosevelt in the
World War 2 unit. I mention this particular activity in Chapter Five.

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prepared and said, "What the hell did you do here?" Bill quickly responded that he and Teresa were

> ...working through a little exercise that we might work on to try to get a final organization. Just to recount it historically. And we were trying to think mostly about international stuff. (mtg. transcript, 1/23/91, p. 4)

For the next 40 minutes, Ken, Teresa, and Bill talked about historical ideas. They spoke about the ways that imperialist and nationalist feelings pushed and pulled on America and leaders' decisions during the 20th century. Ken also wanted students to think about what he called "the people aspects" in which racism led to violations of human rights and ultimately military force.

During the discussion, Ken got up a lot from the table, walked around the staffroom, and left a couple times to check things in the office. Ken did most of the talking; the transcript shows that Teresa never said anything past approximately 70 words at a time, whereas Ken's text went as high as 375 words and averaged approximately 150 words at a time. Even Bill, who spoke often at meetings, remained relatively silent. The meeting ended when Ken stood up and announced

Ken: Okay. I'm going to fool with that and think about it. I appreciate this. Thank you.

Bill: You're welcome. Now you are headed into World War 1, right?

Ken: Yeah.

Bill: Okay.

Ken: And I'll probably proceed along the lines (you suggested on this graph.) But I also may alter it.

Bill: Well, I was thinking we could have, we could have, what we could do is we could form an intention to start some development (around) this point, like one month from today, with regard to the 1933-1937 period or, you know what I mean? And then we could work toward that?

Ken: I could begin to think about this, or what we've been talking about with respect to this (pointing to the graphic). It might, I don't know yet but I, well, yeah, that's cool.

Bill: Would that work?

Ken: Yeah. (mtg. transcript, p. 31-32; fieldnotes)

Postscript to this meeting

The meeting was tense, and exchanges between Ken and Teresa seemed clipped and curt with little eye contact between them, little smiling, and no humor. As soon as Ken and Teresa left the staffroom Bill wanted to talk with me. He said he found the exchanges "very surprising and frustrating. I can't understand what happened!" (fieldnotes, 1/23/91). I spoke with Bill about this meeting two days later. He believed the meeting was a

> ...series of monologues between Teresa and Ken. No, it's not that they're monologuing. One would say something and the other would go back at it. It was more than differences of opinion that weren't being explored. Ken would offer...the flat claims, bold and flat...I didn't think they were hearing each other. A claim would be made. Teresa would come back with, "Well there is this and this and that," and Ken wouldn't respond. He would either go to a different area (or not respond) (interview transcript, p. 3-4)

Bill said he felt "agitated," because with so little time for conversations about planning units, one couldn't afford to waste time. With "no meeting of the minds," Bill explained, the work couldn't be done.

Shortly after this episode, Teresa started missing team meetings while also trying to negotiate a different role as a PDS intern. She explained to Bill, Sally, and me that she wanted to learn about the bureaucratic and political aspects of the PDS movement especially at the state level. But, she never talked with Ken nor Gary about her movement away from the team.

Commentary

As these events show, Teresa's work in the team contributed to rich discussions about historical ideas and how to help students understand them. Yet, the relationships she developed and failed to develop remain a troubling part of the team's history. Like Bill, I continue to wonder why Teresa never fit in to a team that seemed to welcome thoughtful people. I explore this in my analyses.

How Team Members Work

This vignette shows yet another instance of one of the team's major efforts, planning curriculum and instruction. As in the other instances I have described, team members planned instruction by welcoming a cacophony of ideas, opinions, and debate. In the second year, planning for American History rested on Ken's belief that worthwhile American history curriculum paints the view that history is problematic in its moral, political,

economic, and social consequences. In order to help students understand that, Ken believed the curriculum had to focus on concepts that are connected via themes (see Chapter Five for a full discussion of Ken's beliefs about curriculum). Team meetings during the 1990-91 year show participants' attempts to identify the concepts and themes important for students to know. Members read primary and secondary source documents, and had long conversations about what the writer might have been trying to communicate and why that had (or didn't have) consequences for American and world action. This process of reading, talking, planning and then beginning the cycle over happened again and again especially on the American history team.

The presence of subteams also shows another integral process of joint work for the team; that is, the work changed depending on participants' needs. When members realized they weren't having sufficient time to plan both American history and economics curriculum, they altered the ways they worked. Eventually, in addition to the subject matter subteams, other subgroups developed, too. At Hodges, for instance, Ken and Gary worked with other social studies teachers as well as teachers across the school in two groups planning new social studies courses, and study groups about restructuring, community education, designing educational outcomes for Hodges students. Midstate team members also met occasionally to talk about what they were doing and learning at Hodges. In addition, Midstate people

who worked at Hodges met six times during the 1989-91 school years to discuss the same kinds of questions. From these other affiliations, team members gained insights and introduced them into our meetings. These out-of-team experiences broadened and challenged our team's thoughts and actions.

The set of interactions I described confirms the numerous and multiple obligations of the roles participants played. Bill's purposeful actions (e.g., suggesting Teresa and he begin planning a unit of study) illustrate his extender and synthesizer roles, and how he could anticipate needs and derive strategies to meet them. Ken continued to play the classroom specialist, who readily spoke about the content he taught and wondered about the ways to teach it. And Teresa continued in her role of basically not fitting in. While talking with Bill, she too could play classroom specialist. But with Ken, she even lost <u>that</u> role given his place as the teacher who would carry out the unit.

My strong suspicion is that like two cooks in the kitchen, two classroom specialists often get in each other's ways because they may see things differently. Moreover, Ken might have had difficulty accepting the expertise of a female. He'd never taught with females (the department was always 100% male), and my hunch is that he rarely had conversations about history in which the depth and breadth of his understandings could be matched (like Teresa could). I suggest in Chapter Five that some interactions

I had with Ken also seemed shaped by Ken's seeming uneasiness with handling criticism and expertise from a female. I never felt comfortable talking with Ken about my hunches, though I mentioned them to Bill, Teresa, and Sally who seemed to agree with my interpretations and even mentioned them to me when they reached similar interpretations. To my knowledge, no one else ever mentioned it to Ken either.

What Did Team Members Do and Talk About

Like in the first vignette, "Three Views of Collaborative Planning", the Rocky American History story illustrates the depth and breadth of participants' talk about content, curriculum, and teaching. Planning never seemed to proceed before at least a few conversations about the content teachers wanted to teach. Inevitably, questions about what was worth knowing and teaching weaved themselves through discussions about content, yet they never seemed to replace the importance of actually talking about history or psychology (like in the first vignette). Teresa's and Bill's 2 1/2 hour conversation included talk about what important events happened during the 20th century and how the themes of imperialist and nationalist tendencies in the world coincided with American ideals and wants. These considerations broadened when they added Ken to the conversation.

When considering historical ideas, team participants seemed always to ask why do students need to know about this, and what should they know. Early in our work together, Ken asked these questions rarely. Instead, he used

the history text and assumed it had answered the questions of what was worth knowing and why. In an effort to scale down the scope of the American history curriculum, however, Ken began wondering (and the team took up his question) about what students needed to know. That question led him to take many actions, e.g., discussions, reading different kinds of established curriculum, looking at primary documents that students from all three tracks might understand. Because he wanted to expose all students to important and conflictual intepretations of history, in 1990-91 Ken (in consultation with the team and two special education teachers) designed a four-step plan to help students in the fundamentals class who had reading and comprehension problems.

In addition to conversations about content, curriculum, and instruction, this vignette illustrates something else teammates did; they talked about the team's work. As in these examples (right after the meeting and two days later), Bill often confided in me about what he was thinking, hoping, and/or concerned about. Often I thought he did this because he knew I would want to know his viewpoint in my role as team documentor (in fact, early in our work he used to say things like, "In your role as documentor you might want to know that...", or "Here's something for your notes..."). By the time of the incident I describe, however, I think he wanted to talk with me simply as another person sharing in the hopes and dreams for this team's work. And Bill and I weren't the only folks who talked; members frequently

chit-chatted with each other about things going on in the team, including

student interviewing, reports we had to write, decisions we had to make.

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I've described and analyzed the substance of the social

studies team's work, showing how its essence is about changes in curriculum

and instruction aimed at enhancing student understanding. Whether talking

about psychology or American history, or methodological issues like

interviewing students, the aim of the conversations and classroom

experiments was to deepen students' thinking and understanding. The

analyses suggest three ways to think about the team's collaborative work:

collaboration as an intellectual exercise, as conflict, and as teacher learning.

Collaboration as an Intellectual Exercise

Two very important and related questions became integral to the

team's work: what concepts and ideas make up the content we are teaching?

and, What about the content do students--all students--need to understand?

Through discussions and reading materials, participants deepened their

thoughtfulness about the substance of the social sciences, realizing the depth

and breadth of its myriad perspectives and interpretations, and seeing that

history especially is a

> ...narrative that sets forth a chain of motive, action, result...The
> chain need not be long...but it must be thick, for the motives and
> actions, being those of many individuals, are always tangled, and
> the results cannot be understood unless a full view of that

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preceding tangle is given. (Barzun, as cited in Wilson &
Wineburg, 1988, p. 538)[13]

Throughout the two years of the team's work, participants' discussions of

social science concepts and events reveal the tangled webs of conflict and

problematics in scholars' interpretations (e.g., the discussion about the war

and conflicts unit), difficult methodological questions that are posed from

studying social science teaching and learning, and the tangled webs of the

team's own histories of learning to talk about and teach content in different

ways. Discussions of planning how to teach this kind of material to students

required team members to figure out what ideas were most worth helping

students understand. Team conversations provided forums for participants

to share their experiences, and then begin collectively to imagine and design

strategies and tasks that differed from traditional curriculum and instruction

(e.g, having students generate examples of psychological ideas in groups.)

Discussing the contentious nature of social science content, the

difficulty of helping students comprehend and challenge social science ideas,

and the long-held beliefs we each had about "good" teaching helped team

participants recognize ways in which teaching becomes even more

complicated when we increase the range of student abilities in one classroom.

Team collaboration didn't diffuse this hardship, nor disavow it. Instead,

collaboration became the means for being thoughtful about the complexities

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[13]This article by Wilson and Wineburg (1988) is something I actually
distributed to team members.

of teaching, and approaching teaching as an intellectual activity. Teammates studied, reflected, and speculated--all of which are activities associated with being intellectual (Webster's Dictionary)--about the nature of the content <u>and</u> teaching and learning it.

Collaboration as Conflict

The recognition of the increased hardship of teaching when different ability levels are mixed, I believe, was a crucial step in cementing the team. We realized that the essence of the work--the beliefs and orientations that informed it, the actions, and the discussions--were bound to be varied within a group of very insightful, caring, and committed educators. I believe the team also recognized that the problem that defined us invited frank and honest presentations of our disagreements. Yet the saliency of our mutual commitments to understand and manage the dilemmas of fair and just forms of student grouping--for the sake of enhancing student understanding--seemed to allow us to overcome the urge to falsely agree on something or define an easier problem to investigate. We seemed to tolerate the conflict as a potential way to finding solutions.

Defining collaboration as conflict may seem, to some, an irony. Yet, conflict is part of the world and even though "[t]he collaborative model is a friendly, trusting, congenial one the world...is not always so (Oakes, et al., 1986, p. 546.) By accepting that conflict is in the world and, therefore, will be embedded in the team's deliberations, social studies team members seem to

have protected themselves from dismissing any challenging comments both from within the team and those derived from the multiple memberships team members had in Hodges and Midstate. By accepting alternate perspectives, members called upon themselves to closely scrutinize their assumptions, their new ideas, and their changing practices. As Nias (Nias, Southworth, & Yeomans, 1989) concludes in her study of primary teachers' professional relations in Britain, team members did not have to engage in long philosophical discussions. Rather, a negotiated consensus which allowed for particulare actions to happen came about through pointed discussion (e.g., deciding on student interviews) or through deliberation over time about content and teaching.

Though the team could reach consensus in terms of what actions to take, team members' conflicting views often remained undiscussed. Talking about conflict is difficult, I believe, because it involves the recognition and intersection of various aspects of collaborative work, e.g., perceptions and enactment of acribed roles, expectations, norms for actions, instititutional conditions, and the content of the conflict. These aspects can act as forces which drive people to dance away from dealing with the conflict since the ensuing discussions may be uncomfortable. Moreover, open disagreement might have stopped action, which would have been antithetical to the team's purposes of setting out different teaching and learning activities. Teaching demanded immediacy and, therefore, little time for potential wounds from

disagreements to heal in order to plan actions. Additionally, frank discussion might have alienated some members, which would not have fit with the norms of the team.

<div align="center">Collaboration as Teacher Learning</div>

Analyses of the team's work illustrate the centrality of "learning on the job" about content and teaching content[14]. With the aim of enhanced student understanding, team members juxtaposed knowledge of content, teaching, learning about teaching, and the expertise they were constructing together about the worth and potential of collaborative processes and outcomes.

Social studies team work illuminates different kinds of learning about multiple aspects of curriculum and instruction. Talking about content, students' understandings, students' histories, and different teaching strategies are but a few examples of teacher learning I have mentioned in this chapter. Considering the means and ends of inquiry about teaching, and the processes of debate, negotiation, and the conscious establishment of norms to support this kind of conversation provide additional examples. These instances paint a picture of teacher learning informed by teachers' own experiences, intellectual conversation, and the establishment of supportive conditions (Feiman-Nemser, 1983) through institutional arrangements and participants' own doing.

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[14]In the next chapter, analyses show the additional importance of examining student thoughtfulness.

CHAPTER FIVE
TEAM AND STUDENT THOUGHTFULNESS

> most teachers can benefit from, make good and judicious use of,
> someone else's thoughts about ways of opening up some part of
> the world to their students (if we can consider this to be the
> essence of curriculum)...Curriculum (can) become a set of
> accounts by teachers of how they went about engaging their
> students in the subject matter, what the student did, said, and
> thought, why the teachers did what they did, what they thought
> about what they did, what they would do another time.
> Teachers decide for themselves how they will go about engaging
> students in their subject matter; detailed accounts by other
> teachers--whether school teachers or what I have called
> teaching-researchers--are available as a source of information
> and suggestion to help them in making their decisions.
> (Duckworth, 1987), p. xv)

This chapter develops and explores three aspects of Ken Larson's

American History course: 1) the changes that happened in curriculum,

instruction and students' thoughtfulness; 2) the persistent entanglements of

power and status dynamics, moral and emotional conflicts I faced; and 3)

students' cultural misunderstandings. I relate two connected sets of

experiences, one about students' work on an assignment and the other about

their oral presentations and written work.   In an effort to account for what I

saw, I analyze constraints I felt while observing these incidents, and raise

questions and hunches about how my teammates may have experienced our

collaboration, the constraints, and the conflicts across the two years of our

joint work.

Representative of the kinds of student learning the team tried to bring

about, the stories offer a glimpse into "someone else's thoughts about ways of

opening up some part of the world to their students" (Duckworth, 1987, p. xv). Portraying more than just one person's thinking, however, the scenarios provide a means for looking into the collective thoughts of the social studies team. The scenarios offer examples of mostly how Ken and I worked together, and illustrate glimpses of Bill's work in Ken's classroom. The historical content of the students' work follows from some of the designing done by Bill, Teresa, and Ken which I discussed in chapter Four (the Rocky American History Team vignette.)

Importantly, the accounts of the team's experimentation and study are linked with accounts of students' studies. Narratives about what happened in Ken's classroom as revealed through classroom observation, informal and team meeting, conversations, spontaneous interactions, and students' work samples help me discuss what participants designed and studied as they tried to foster a new kind of student thoughtfulness characterized by communal exploration and reasoning about ideas and interpretations of history. These same analyses reveal, however, a disturbing sense of missed opportunities for addressing students' concerns and questions as they emerged.

SETTING THE STAGE

Near the end of my data collection I had decided to scrutinize closely one unit of connected lessons in Ken's classroom. I thought this would give me a picture of what his classroom teaching and learning looked like now, nearly two years after the team had started. I knew that Ken and the team

were working hard at learning how to design and teach a thematic curriculum, which they called the Conflicts and War unit, and I wanted to see the fruits of the labor. One aspect of the unit, a study of the Holocaust and Japanese-American internment camps, fell at a time that I could spend a couple weeks in daily observation, and the particular content intrigued me. The entire Conflicts and War unit substance welcomed frank discussions about politically and morally sensitive issues in history as well as current affairs; the United States had just participated in "Desert Storm", a fancy name for the war in which the US and its allies had bombed Iraq into vacating Kuwait. In both Ken and Gary's classrooms I had heard the range of views that Hodges students had about the war and American involvement. I applauded Ken's attempt to help students support and challenge their views by embedding the current events in a historical backdrop.

What I found out from my subsequent analyses of the Conflict and War unit, and my especially close scrutiny of the Holocaust and Japanese-American Internment Camps unit, is that teaching curricular content charged with moral and political dilemmas in ways that allow students to struggle with ideas can place teachers--like Ken and me--in the middle of moral dilemmas. We found that facing these dilemmas while participating in a professional collaboration helped us manage them, e.g., we had opportunities to talk about the conflicts. Yet I have come to believe that the collaboration concurrently complicates the picture. The teacher is not as

free to take a particular stance, because now the stance must be justified to colleagues. The questioning and challenging of the justification is complicated by power and status dynamics operating within the professional collaboration, especially a group like the social studies team which combined people from different institutions, cultures, and statuses (public school and university)[1].

In this chapter I discuss the striking coherence and continuity of themes I found between and among a) Ken's classroom ideas, actions, and talk; b) the team's ideas, actions, and talk; c) and the ideas, actions, and discussion that characterized students' experiences. While trying to understand the coherence, I uncovered evidence of change in three aspects of Ken's classroom: changes in student organization and tasks, a new kind of collaborative instruction, and emergence of a new kind of student thoughtfulness. Yet even within these changes, I saw the persistence of a messy entanglement of issues about power dynamics, the moral and emotional conflicts of teaching, and the nagging saliency of students' cultural misunderstandings.

THE "CONFLICT AND WAR" UNIT

The setting for this chapter's set of stories is Ken Larson's classroom, spring semester of the 1990-91 school year. During the second semester of the

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[1]See Chapter Three-, the section entitled "Perceptions of Key Participants," for additional analyses of the complications of instititional role and the ways the work is defined.

1990-91 school year, Ken and the social studies team designed and taught a unit for his general American History classes about war and conflict in the 20th century. In Figure 4.2, I illustrated where the Conflicts and War unit and the miniunit about the concentration and internment camps fit in the team's chronology of collaborative work.

As a veteran teacher of high school American History, Ken had learned that students' interests piqued when studying the Vietnam Conflict. He wanted to help students understand that conflict by embedding it in a study of connected conflicts in an international arena. Designing the unit like this, he told me, could help students learn to draw "connections"--a word he used over and over--among ideas. Finally, Ken believed this unit could capitalize on students' interests while helping them interpret and understand the interrelations between the past and the then current Gulf Crisis.

The idea for this unit grew out of ongoing team discussions about the difficulty of helping students connect different kinds of tasks we gave them into a coherent understanding of themes. Ken saw the move toward a thematic curriculum in which students study historical ideas as the team's major work. In March, 1991, for example, he summed this up in a document he wrote and submitted to the Hodges School Board about the social studies team:

> The social studies team...focuses on the "applied economics" course and "American History"....The team is engaged in a collaborative effort to restructure the courses. The restructuring involves a thematic, conceptual orientation to the courses as

well as a cooperative learning (groupwork) management system...With respect to American History, the goal is to enable students to develop a deeper understanding of history as well as an ability to think critically about the subject matter...Students have had to make sense of information (documents, literature, articles, etc.) in a larger historical context. This sense has been evidenced...when students have written essays and presentations together, and then present this "student-produced history" to others.

Unit Content

As introduced by Ken on January 30, 1991, the unit revolved around

these themes which blended throughout the different phases of the unit:

nationalism, imperialism, mercantilism, racism, force, and rhetoric. The unit

packet—a set of readings and assignments Ken distributed to students for use

over the next few weeks—had these questions on the title page:

Why wars (causes)?

What are their effects?

What are the connections among them?

What changes have they brought about?

(See Appendix D)

Inside the packet students learned that they would be examining these

questions:

What caused the wars?

Was the US a part of the cause, or how did the US get involved?

What were the effects of the war?

...on the rest of the world

...on the foreign policy of the US

...on the domestic life of the nation

What is the relationship between one war and another?

How much is the "family analogy" similar to the concept map?[2]

The initial set of materials Ken distributed to students included

1.) a one-page description of a metaphor he'd written comparing war to family disputes.

2.) a one-page concept map, drawn by Ken, which suggested a "pattern of connections" between and among World War 1, WW2, the Korean and Vietnam Conflicts, and the current Middle East Crises.

3.) six pages providing timelines of events, significant terms, people, and concepts which Ken had gathered from other textbooks.

4.) one or two page summaries written by Ken about World War 1, World War 2, the Holocaust, and Japanese involvement in the war.

5.) two supplementary reading lists, one about WW1 and the other about WW2.

Throughout the semester, Ken distributed four packets of information similar to this that contained diverse reading material. The packet told

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[2]Ken told students that wars often grow out of disputes that share many characteristics of family arguments.

students which textbook chapter to read[3], provided primary source readings, suggested supplementary readings they used for presentations and group essays, and described assignments and due dates.

By the end of March, the class had moved into their study of World War 2. This unit included five sets of activities. After reading, outlining, and taking a small quiz about one textbook chapter (entitled "The Road to War"), students watched a documentary about the Third Reich, and took a quiz on it. Students had three groupwork assignments. First they wrote group article analyses[4]. In another assignment they compared and contrasted Roosevelt and Hitler, using historic documents and speeches made by the leaders. Finally, students studied the reasons for creating Japanese Internment and Nazi Concentration camps that blotted our world during the 30s and 40s.

The Holocaust and Japanese-American Internment Unit

This mini-unit contained information about the Japanese internment camps and Nazi concentration camps. Students looked at over 30 pages of readings that were gathered from a Time-Life series about WWII and primary source readings collected in a book aimed at teachers teaching about World War 2. They read over four pages from the Time-Life series about the

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[3] The class read three textbook chapters during this unit: "First World War", "The Road to War", and "World War 2".

[4] Of the eight possible articles, some appeared in journals, e.g., the Nation, while some came from books of essays, e.g., The American Past—Conflicting Interpretations of the Great Issues.

internment experiences, including how people were forced to leave their property, live together in poverty, and go to makeshift markets, schools, and recreational events. Primary sources about the internment of Japanese and Japanese-Americans included a description written by a Japanese-American woman interned as a child in Manzanar Camp; comments made by government, military, and media officials defending the internments camps based on racist hatred and paranoia; and an essay entitled "My Last Day at Home," written by a ninth-grade student who attended the Tule Lake Relocation Center's Tri-State High School (with a short description recounting Tule Lake's change in status when the camp became a holding place only for persons claiming loyalty to Japan or designated disloyal by the Department of Justice).

Primary sources about the Nazi concentration camps included a poem, written and etched on the walls of the Terezin Concentration Camp by an adolescent, and some questions meant as a guide for readers (e.g., "how might you react to this tragedy?). These questions and the poem came from a teacher resource book of primary source materials from the 20th century. Most of the material about the Nazi concentration camps came from the Time-Life series. Ken included a few pictures of the skeleton-like bodies of the concentration camp slaves working to supply the German war efforts. A lot of the material was text about Nazi plans to create the camps, how the Nazis executed Jews in mass murders before the camps (e.g., the Babi Yar

atrocity), life and death within the camps, and how the Warsaw Ghetto uprising was stopped.

Students knew what to do with such materials, following a similar routine with other packets of materials: you and your two peers who constitute your small permanent group[5] read the materials, at home and aloud in class, and discuss the ideas. Then, for this particular assignment, you transform what you are learning into cells in this matrix:

See Figure 5.2: Ken's Matrix for Student Use

Ken had used matrices similar to this since the beginning of the semester, since he believed that the format of a matrix pushed students to make "connections" between and among ideas. Students worked on the Holocaust/Japanese-American Internment camps set of lessons during eight class sessions. They had about five class periods to complete readings, fill out the matrix, write a group essay, and decide what and how to present it orally in class.

Vignettes of Students' Work

Such is the setting for the following two acts. The acts detail the two main parts of the unit: groupwork to prepare the matrix, presentation, and essay; and the oral presentations. I chose these particular events since they were representative of common features of student work that I saw across the

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[5]Assigned in January at the beginning of the new semester, these groups worked together to complete assignments during the entire semester.

Make a matrix and write the connections.

Japanese-American Internment Camps
and the
"Final Solution" Concentration Camps

CONNECT	Japanese-American Internment (United States)	"Final Solution" Concentration Camps (Germany)
Racism		
Genocide		
Cause		
Intolerance		
Force		
Human Rights		
Economic Motive		

Figure 5.1: Ken's Matrix for Student Use

year in Ken's classroom (e.g., groupwork, discussion among students, writing group essays), and because they highlight key events in this particular unit. Moreover, they stand out as examples of the general claims I am making about the relationships between and among Ken's teaching, the social studies team's work, and students' learning about American History.

In Act One, we see two very different sorts of student and student/teacher interactions. Act Two takes us to the first day of oral presentations, and I describe three presentations which detail a diversity of student responses and quality of work as well as a set of interactions that Ken and I had in response to students' actions. After each scene and act, I ask: what is this story about?

ACT ONE

Scene 1: Steve and Jack

After some initial announcements, students began work in their pre-established small groups. At times, students across groups would chat and share information or ideas. Some students sprawled out on the classroom floor, moving desks in order to lay out their large sheet of yellow paper and draw their matrix. Most students drew their matrices on computers in the computer room down the hallway. Ken walked around the room, stopping at different groups and asking questions mostly aimed at helping students clarify what they'd written and/or explain their reasons. I

did the same, rarely initiating conversation but responding when asked for help.

Around 30 minutes into the period, I roamed down to the computer room. I noticed Steve and Jack, who were members of one small group. Ken had purposely assigned no other student to this group; Steve and Jack often did not carry their weight in groups, and Ken was experimenting with putting them together, alone, to see what they would do. He was counting on the fact that one or both would get moving, and in fact that was the case, especially with Steve.

I had developed an interesting relationship with Steve through two clinical interviews I had done with him (in October and January). He had taken to calling me "the Martian," because when I first started hanging out in third period, he and his buddies had asked, "Where are you from?" I couldn't resist responding to the funny way they asked the question with a somewhat funny response. So, with a deadpan expression, I said, "Mars." They laughed, and asked somewhat more seriously than before, why I was in class. "To see the ways you guys do school," I had responded. And I remember thinking how true my response was whether or not I was from Mars or the local university! Steve took to calling me "the Martian" from that time on, and seemed to pride himself when he saw me in the hallways and could address me with an arm around my shoulder and tell his friends I was "the Martian."

Steve had wonderful ways of connecting ideas in history, which I learned about in our interviews. He spontaneously linked up current racial conflicts with historic white supremacy. He liked history, saying that it enabled him to argue --and win!!-- with some friends about issues especially around the Gulf Crisis. He felt it was important to know history in order to understand the current Gulf Crisis and why the United States might be part of it. "If I would't have taken this class, I would have just been like, yeah; let's blow up Iraq. I wouldn't have known that it's about this and that, and I would have just thought, well, Iraq's messing with us so we're gonna blow them up." [26-I.1] He ended the interview by explaining to me that he was a "skinhead, but not the Nazi kind or anything." Being patriotic and believing in the worth of the United States, are the kinds of things that he and he friends stood for.

Considering what I knew about Steve, I was especially curious when I noticed that he and Jack had written on the computer, in the matrix cell for racism and concentration camps, "supposedly 6 million Jews died." Pointing to the screen, I asked them why they had inserted the word "supposedly." There's no proof, they told me, that all these people died. I leaned on one of the desks, and asked what they would count as proof. "Well, there are no exact records about all these deaths." I pulled around a chair, taking a deep breath, and wondering how to counter this view.

Michelle: Do you think the Nazis would have kept very exact records when they were trying to just get rid of people?"

Steve: But the Nazis kept track of everything.

Michelle: But killing all these people?

Steve: Yes.

While Steve did most of the talking, Jack nodded in agreement.

Sometimes he mumbled a confirming yes. I remained quiet and thought,

"Could they really mean this?" I tried another tact.

Michelle: Would the photographs of human beings burying each other, some still alive, count as proof. You know those photos that you have seen.

Steve: Yes, but it could have been the same photographs used over and over.

Michelle: What about people who never heard from their mothers, fathers, aunts, uncles, sisters? How do you account for that?

Steve: Maybe they just went somewhere else; after all, it was wartime.

My journal reflections remind me of the mix of thoughts I had at the

time: sickened that people might actually believe that the Holocaust did not

happen; uncertain as to whether Steve and Jack might actually believe what

they were saying or were simply teasing me; not sure what I should do as a

teacher and as a human being. Do I feel like this because I am Jewish, I

wondered, or because I am human and am worried that future atrocities like

this could happen again if attitudes like Steve's and Jack's prevail?

I left the computer room, shaking at the horror that they might

just believe what they were saying. I went immediately to tell Ken what I'd

heard. He didn't seem surprised, nor especially concerned. Either they don't

or can't believe it, he said.

> They probably couldn't admit that to you, especially as a female
> and they are into being males. What they were saying could be
> bull or they could believe it. Just wait until they see the video
> about the woman who was enslaved in Auschwitz for 14
> months, and recently took her son back there. I videotaped it
> from the BBC documentary. That tape always gets these kinds of
> kids.

My first reaction to Ken's words were mixed with disbelief and an

aching old feeling: how to be honest. Close to two years of knowing Ken, I

thought, and I still do not know how to say: I think you need to charge down

to that room and have a conversation with Steve and Jack! How can I say

that I am disappointed with his seemingly calm response to what I see as a

serious problem in the way that Steve and Jack view the world?

Uncertain about how to raise these concerns with Ken—how to say, "I

think you are wrong"—I simply left the classroom.

Scene 2: What is a Jew?

I returned to the computer room a few minutes after talking with Ken

about the Steve and Jack incident, calming myself by looking and listening to

other groups. Walking into the computer room, I noticed about ten students

propped on desks talking to each other. I smiled as I entered the room,

believing beyond any shadow of a doubt that these students were off the

given task and were talking about anything other than the concentration and

internment camps. Instead, one student (Jim) threw me this question: is

being Jewish a race? Taken aback by the obviously thoughtful question that effectively washed away my assumption that students were not doing their academic work, I smiled and said, "Good question." They all groaned; obvious teacher response, they said. "Well, what is race?" I asked. Wanting students to understand that race is a socially-constructed idea, I steered them in the direction of defining race, not Judaism. Someone looked it up, and read the definition aloud (upon my urging): a class or kind of people unified by community of interests, habits, or characteristics...division of mankind possessing traits transmissible by descent and sufficient to characterize it as a distinct human type. "So what is it?" said one student. "This didn't help us."

Just at this point, Ken came in and Jim asked him the same question. "Well, what is a Jew?" he retorted to the question. Students began to explore that, noting that it was a religion--just like being Protestant or Catholic. For about five minutes with a lot of guidance from Ken, the group discussed how Jews descended from the original tribes of Israel, how their stories appeared in the Old Testament, how many gentile religions used to condemn Judaism. Students raised most of the ideas, drawing upon things they had heard about Jews in their life experiences.

I kept quiet about being Jewish during this discussion; I didn't want to be taken as the token Jew, the person who could tell them everything about being Jewish. I also did not feel very comfortable about my expertise in responding to questions about being Jewish. I added a few questions and

statements myself, aimed at helping continue to explore what Judaism is, and I nodded when Ken looked my way to confirm some things he had said (e.g., about the Israeli tribes).

One student, Dillon, began wondering aloud if being Jewish was like being Catholic. Both Ken and I encouraged this analagous thinking, throwing out questions that might push students' thinking: What do you do that makes you Catholic? How do you become Catholic?

Just like what happens to many interesting discussions, the time was cut short by the bell. I stayed around as Jim gathered up his materials, and we both turned off the computers. "This stuff is something," he told me. "I'm going to call a Jewish priest and talk about it." I suggested he call the Jewish organization Hillel, and ask to speak with a local rabbi, since that's what Jewish people call their spiritual leader.

Postscript to the Day

Later on the same day I went on campus, and I mentioned the "Steve and Jack" incident to three colleagues. One person suggested that both Ken and I had acted in a morally incorrect manner; especially as a Jew, he said, how could you stand by and do nothing? Other colleagues empathized with me and commented on what emerged as two connected dilemmas for me: 1) the troubling comments that the students made and not knowing how to counteract them, and 2) Ken's troubling reaction and not knowing how to counteract that.

The weekend passed, and not until Monday did I realize something about the entire incident, which I told Ken when I saw him. I didn't believe my own rhetoric, I said. I talk about the importance of scaffolding understanding in learning, of how we have to create opportunities that continually challenge students' thinking. I talk about how just telling kids something cannot work because it doesn't challenge their understandings and orientations. Yet, I wanted you to go in and tell Steve and Jack; just set them straight! And Ken agreed. "Yes. But we need to trust in those tasks if we've built them right." Later that day I wrote in my journal

> And maybe that is where the collaboration comes in. We hope that we've constructed them (the tasks) right and that we can be there to build them up and make changes when we need to."
> [4/20/91]

Now, over a year after the incident, I find myself with three lingering thoughts. First, I remain shocked that Ken wasn't horrified--or at least didn't show it if he was--at Steve's and Jack's comments. Secondly, I still believe Ken and/or I should have taken some action on-the-spot. We skipped opportunities to push Steve's and Jack's thinking about racism and possibly sexist attitudes they seemed to hold. And finally, I remain in awe about the uncertainties and real messiness of teaching as illustrated by my continually changing thoughts, questions, and reactions to situations.

WHAT ARE THESE STORIES ABOUT?

Two common features of Ken's classroom, which stand out as different from traditional American History classrooms, are exposed through these

stories: 1) that students worked in small groups completing a task for which they received a joint grade; 2) that two professional teachers were in class, and could confer on the spot about a classroom incident and consequential actions. Events such as these are the product of a long evolution in Ken's practices.

Changes in Student Organization and Curriculum

During the past two years, Ken changed the way he organized students, their curriculum, and his teaching several times. He moved through four phases of student organization during the duration of the social studies team's work together: students work individually; students work in learner/teacher expert groups; students work in randomly assigned small groups; and students work throughout the semester in permanently-assigned small groups.

See Figure 5.3: Students' Organization in Ken Classroom

Concurrently, Ken experimented with different kinds of learning activities for students to complete in groups. Back in fall, 1989, he told me (as we watched students working in groups)

> Cooperative grouping works best with finite, graphic, and visual activities aimed at creating a product. They also shouldn't be very long, on-going activities that extend over many, many class periods.
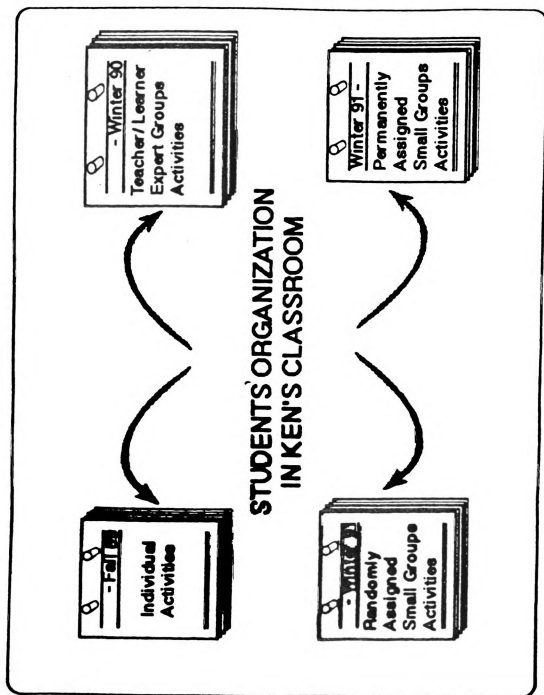
Figure 5.2: Students' Organization in Ken's Classroom

Yet in the spring of 1991, he had students working on comparing and contrasting World War 2 "camps" over five periods, with three periods set aside for presenting what they had learned. In addition to the change in duration of the task, Ken also altered task purposes. In the 1989-90 school year his group assignments were mostly aimed at supporting students' completion of a finite task such as reviewing for a test. For example, many times he distributed sample questions which might appear on the upcoming essay exam. Each group had a different question, and would analyze it according to a common framework (the cultural, political, social, and economic forces behind events and movements). All class members received a copy of the notes. Again, the World War 2 unit illustrates a change in purposes in that students studied ideas with peers in small groups, e.g., reasons leading to the war, the political rise of Roosevelt and Hitler, forces behind the "camps."

These changes in the focus and content of small group tasks came about concurrently with changes Ken made in thinking about the scope and sequence of his American History curriculum. He moved, as he called it, from a topics-oriented curriculum to organizing what he would teach around themes and concepts. Ken defines a concept as "a set of ideas, often something that implies a comparison or contrast. A concept needs more explanation whereas a topic may or may not." He concluded this definition by reminding me of a chart he had made up for students in this unit, which I will discuss a bit later in the chapter. The chart listed "myths and realities"

about Judaism in terms of "political and economic ideas," "religious ideas," and "racial ideas." On the chart he wrote "History as a fable agreed upon...or as gossip." The chart allowed Ken to help students understand a few concepts: Judaism, and the notion of myths and realities as part of history. Ken had become taken with the idea of "history as gossip" because it helped him convey history as something to interpret, something expressing a point of view and having particular purposes, something about which people have preconceived ideas and assumptions.

While making this change in curriculum and instruction, Ken pointed to the helpfulness of the social studies team.

> ...with a little help from my friends--the team--I've gotten a couple of ideas together on how to help students pick up on the idea of history as gossip. The other day, when Bill and I talked about (the idea of history as gossip) before class, we also mentioned it in class and I noticed that the kids sort of picked up on it...Also, through reading students' logs, I see I am doing right.

In and of itself, the movement from different forms of student organization and different student learning activities is interesting. Yet the educational relevance of the movement is in Ken's views of himself as a teacher, and of the messages his actions send to students. Ken believes wholeheartedly in the power of having students work together on assignments in class as well as on assessments, including the semester final. On his own, and with the help of the social studies team, he has designed ways for students to assess each other's groups when they do oral

presentations, figuring these student peer assessments into individual grades.

For the unit I have spoken about, for example, he assigned 200 possible

points: 50 for "groupwork" as he and his students assessed it, 50 for the group

essay, 50 for the group matrix, and 50 for the oral presentation.

Ken believed that placing students in groups provided a way for them

to work together on historic themes and concepts and to enhance student

understanding. Working together on ideas, he believed, added to the

richness of thought and understanding students could derive from studying

in his classroom. Individual assignments like outlining the text which used

to be a mainstay in Ken's classroom, he now believed were not as central. He

pointed to the connection between the individualistic process and the kinds

of content students worked on when assignments like outlining the textbook

constituted the main part of the curriculum

> When I used to have them individually outline the text, they
> couldn't see the worth of it. I had to try and force them to do it
> by looking over their shoulders. Now, the tasks we have them
> do in groups builds in the necessity. They see the worth of it
> more by working on it together and I don't have to build in the
> punitive stuff.

Now, students evaluate each other's work, and Ken evaluates it. And

the evaluation is more than just who got what multiple choice item correct,

according to what the teacher or the text said. Now, students work together to

transform ideas onto a matrix, for example, and write a group essay from

their analyses. They aren't tested on what they can spout from the textbook

nearly as much, but rather on how they make sense of primary and secondary

source material about the Nazi concentration camps and Japanese internment camps. Students must construct knowledge through multiple interpretations based on their readings and discussions rather than just by outlining others' interpretations. Students' peers and Ken share responsibility for helping all students understand ideas, rather than just learn facts.

Breaking with Groups

Even though the social studies team designed particular tasks, and Ken added to them and decided to place students in permanent groups, the spontaneous discussion around what is Judaism showed how even our carefully planned grouping structures could still break down! Yet as teachers we applauded this particular break with the typical structure, and Ken and I encouraged it as we came upon the discussion. That students spontaneously began a discussion around an idea they genuinely wondered about--what is Judaism--fit within the team goals for what students should be learning about social studies. Furthermore, understanding the aspects of race, ethnicity, religion, and culture in Jewish thought and practice contributed to understanding the reasons for the mass genocide of Jews in Nazi Germany.

Without a classroom structure that allowed for this spontaneous discussion, Ken may not have found out about the extent to which his students did not understand Judaism. Similarly, without small group discussions, I might not have heard Steve and Jack air their perverted views. Through both of these discussions, and others within and across small groups

along with the oral presentations, Ken could realize the naive conceptions his students had about Judaism.

Changes in Adult Presence in Classrooms

Uncommon to most American high school classrooms is the presence of more than one adult in a classroom. At times Ken's classroom had four adults: Ken, a student teacher, a special education teacher, and one or two team members[6]. Though holding different official positions, often people's actions overlapped. For instance, while Ken gave directions the special education teacher and I observed; when students went into groups both she and I observed and participated in group discussions.

Collaborative Instruction

Ken felt strongly that having other professionals with whom to collaborate was a main reason for why he could see changes in students' thoughtfulness. The team helped him design tasks and then watch what happened when students did those activities. Inside the classroom, however, Ken and I have realized that the collaboration became what he and I have come to call a new kind of "collaborative instruction" (between Ken and me, when I was in the room and between Ken and Bill, when Bill sat in). This came about as we faced two problems. Social studies team members perceived early on that organizing students into small groups raised the

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[6]Team members usually dispersed themselves to different classrooms so that only one team member, in addition to Gary or Ken as the classroom teacher, stayed in classrooms.

management problem of how could one adult in the classroom hear, see, and think about what all students were saying. Concurrently, I faced a problem in my role as "observer," which I shared with members of my team and wrote about in my journal. One of my early journal entries from the first year of our work together (February, 1990) indicates the tensions I felt:

> I am struggling with the tension between being a professional and a researcher with assumptions that research means staying outside the situation. I am first a professional, and as a professional I am obligated to do what I think might be useful...Any kind of research involves some intervention and interpretation. Why not study--systematically--what the "researcher as professional" does? What role conflict arises? What changes happen in the context (from assuming such a role)?

Both of these questions--about my own role and ways to get a handle on what students were saying and doing--actually began answering themselves. As students worked in groups, I walked around to listen to the things they discussed; after all, I needed to hear this for my notetaking. And sometimes during class, sometimes afterwards, Ken and I would meet and exchange things we heard. At times Ken came to listen to a group with me.

This way of talking with each other and sharing observations and interpretations is the first form that the collaborative instruction took. An example from our early work, in fall, 1989, demonstrates. Ken and I listened to a group that included one student named Lisa, and Ken thought aloud to me:

> In groups, Lisa works hard, but working individually she doesn't do anything. Combined with that and her inconsistent

attendance, she is a failing student. Yet, look at what she is
doing in the group.

These quick comments to me highlighted one imporant thing I might

do in the future: keep an eye on what Lisa was doing. My observations could

help in two ways, I thought. First, I could be helpful to Ken by telling him the

things that I saw and heard Lisa doing, which might help him better help her.

Secondly, talking about Lisa's actions to the team could help us see first-hand

the kinds of student learners we were especially trying to reach.

A New Kind of Collaborative Instruction

While these exchanges continued in class, and often led to discussions

in our team meetings, by the 1990-91 school year a second form of

collaborative instruction evolved. This form had a more active and

intentional quality than before. Examples include Ken and Bill discussing

and/or debating issues in front of students in the classroom, sometimes

planned and sometimes not. For example, during one set of oral

presentations in the World War 2 "camps" unit, Bill worried that students

were missing the "human reality of the event." Because they heard and read

that the Jews did not have a large active and organized resistance throughout

the war, he explained in an interview one month after the unit, students

seemed to believe that the Jews went willingly. They didn't understand

and/or take into account the surrounding issues about people's inherent faith

in the law, their disbelief that such an atrocity could even happen, or that

many Jews actually did engage in active resistance at times along with others.

Bill wondered,

> Is that their source for willingly? Because see that's real different
> from willingly. So there's this question of understanding, which
> is different in it's scariness from what Steve said to you, but in
> other ways just as scary. Six million people walked away
> <u>willingly</u>?

Worried that students defined "willingly" based on a lack of

understanding and accounting for the "human reality of the event",

spontaneously during one class presentation Bill pointed to a student. To the

class he said, "He is a Jew. You all are Hitler. Why should you kill him?" He

then asked "the Jew" how he could resist and how he would be stopped.

In this instance, Bill took the role of teacher, setting up a learning

activity in Ken's classroom. My discussions with Steve and Jack, and my

contributions to the larger discussion around the "what is a Jew?" question

are just two examples of ways I participated in classroom instruction. Team

members' participation in Ken's classroom teaching and learning took these

different forms which ranged from active participation in class discussions (in

small and large groups), to observing and providing feedback about what we

saw and heard, to mostly listening to budding ideas, results of new

experiments, and/or questions Ken had.

As I have illustrated with examples in this chapter and Chapter Four,

team involvement in the actual planning, implementing, and assessment of

students' learning and thoughtfulness evolved and increased over time, e.g.,

Bill and Teresa planning the unit versus Ken's teaching at the beginning of the team's work that was based on following the next book chapters. This seems so for three reasons. First, since the team experimented with many new ideas—thematic curriculum, constructing activities that people could do in groups, searching for rich primary and secondary source material—participants realized the need for each other's help. Furthermore, members shared a deep commitment and caring about helping kids be thoughtful about and critical of American History as preparation for participating in a democratic society. Finally, the "observers" commitments and interests provoked their involvement in a role that became more interventionist than the traditional "observer" role. In my own case, once I started talking with Ken about what I saw, and my interpretations of it, I got pulled deeper and deeper into the dynamic nature of classroom teaching and learning. Like Ken, who believes that in order to design cooperative learning activities he himself must be engaged in a group, I also felt the need to engage actively with students. I needed to understand what students were thinking in order to help design learning activities.

Traditional role boundaries of "teacher" and "researcher" began to blur as team members became at times co-teachers, co-inquirers, and co-learners engaging in what Ken and I have come recently to call "authentic research in teaching"—that is, research that actively engages students, and the traditionally-ascribed roles of teacher and researcher in genuine inquiry about

the act of teaching and inquiry, the learning of classroom pupils, and our own learning (Parker & Kressler, 1992).

Missed Opportunities in Changing Curriculum and Instruction

I have illustrated numerous examples and made a case about the changes in curriculum and instruction evident in Ken's classroom and contributed to by the social studies team. Yet this very coherence and continuity also covered some problems. Even though classroom structures allowed for some flexibility (e.g., changing small group membership, altering curriculum as the team planned units over the semester), some important missed opportunities became evident through my analyses. These had to do mostly with a curricular scope and sequence that became quite immutable.

One example illustrates this. The team followed Ken's lead in planning and preparing units of study well in advance of when they were needed. However, the desire and need to have the unit content and structure ready to teach well ahead of teaching it presented problems at times, e.g., when Ken and the team wanted to organize a semester-long unit, which required lots of work, but Ken wanted the unit planned <u>before</u> the semester! This gave the team only about a month to design the unit. In other words, at times the team had too much to do in a short period of time. Even more importantly, though, the emphasis on pre-planning prevented the curriculum from changing in ways that reflected students' needs.

Some evidence from my analyses suggests that the curriculum and instruction did not change enough to fit with students' understandings. One example is the presence of permanent groups. Even though students remained free to interact with people across groups when they worked on assignments in and out of class (e.g., the spontaneous discussion about Judaism), they still were evaluated based on their work with peers in their permanent group. Staying in permanent groups, though, limited the kinds of questions, challenges, and points of view students heard. The literature from both small groupwork (e.g., Thelen, 1954) and adult collaboration (e.g., Little, 1990; Nias, Southworth, & Yeomans, 1989; Sarason, 1982) bears comment here: we know that often participants in groups either share common ideas to begin with, or develop them, and become less tolerant of dissenting opinions as time goes on. Sometimes groups come to adopt a set of fixed orientations, aimed mostly or only at getting the job done. Often, not wanting to rock the boat, so to speak, other members remain silent. Relating these ideas to classroom learning, Thelen (Thelen, 1954, p. 67)) reminds us

> ...Experiencing is an active process of working with others for common goals...Experience is educative to the extent that it involves thinking about what one is doing, why [s]he is doing it, and the general significance, usefulness, and applicability of the methods [s]he is using in doing it...While all experience may produce changes in a student, the part that is educative is the part that is understood through conscious thought processes...Utilization of consciousness to guide experience, and to improve the constructiveness of subsequent experience, requires that experience be seen as inquiry; and this includes such functions as explanation, experimentation, and test of the consequences of behavior...

The tendency to remain silent and not urge "explanation, experimentation, and test of the consequences of behavior" can be amplified in a high school classroom. Under conditions of heavy peer pressure complicated by issues of race, class, and gender that contribute to the popularity contests common in American high schools, students may either choose to be silent or to be silenced by peers (and often these are connected). Thus three empirical questions arise: in Ken's classroom, is the permanent group structure, and the tasks designed to do within those structures, educative? In which situation--permanent or temporary groups--would students be challenged, and feel free to express and experiment with ideas? Did they provide the challenges to students' beliefs and thoughtful experiences for which the team strived?

Using the "Steve and Jack" incident to consider these questions, I conclude that eventually Steve and Jack should have been separated. They seemed very capable of playing off each other's resistance techniques. Together they could construct unfounded ideas. Their means for seeing experiences as inquiry and for using experimentation and testing to learn from the experiences was curtailed by their limited access to others' ideas.

What I find equally troubling about this speculation is that the team never considered the question of whether or not to maintain permanent groups. We never even realized the educative dilemmas of maintaining permanent groups and how that might contribute to and/or intermix with

our shaping of curricular content. In looking at team meeting fieldnotes and transcripts for the 1990-91 year, I find no evidence of discussion about the makeup of the groups, about the actual students who interacted in the groups, and very little discussion about the actual small group interactions[7].

A connected problem associated with the lack of attention to individual students in groups is that when students raised issues in groups--either directly or indirectly--often the issues were not taken up in the whole class discussions mostly because they did not fit within the curricular scope and/or time constraints. Having to make decisions about what to include and when in a classroom is no strange problem in classroom teaching and learning; indeed, I have not made a major discovery by raising it in this discussion. However, the criteria of when to call attention to a student issue, concern, or question--when to stray from the set curriculum--remained undeveloped and unaddressed in social studies team meetings or in side conversations (at least those that I heard). Looking back, I find this surprising because the team thought it was studying students' understanding and learning within a restructured thematic curriculum. Yet the team missed talking about some important student issues, like the Steve and Jack incident. Steve and Jack presented two views that, if they really believed them, were

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[7]Any discussion about particular interactions usually came up when I referred to my fieldnotes. These discussions usually occurred after I observed in a class, either after class, at lunch, or during prep period, and for the most part were only between me and Ken or me and Gary.

very problematic for living in a democratic world: perhaps not believing the magnitude of the Holocaust atrocity, and perhaps responding to me as they did because I was female (something Ken suggested). If true, these views about women and an attempted genocide needed to be addressed. Curricular changes, at least in sequence and/or scope, might have been necessary in order to address these issues.

Having participated in the social studies team for two years I know first-hand the difficulties of addressing the numerous questions that arise from the complicated nature of classroom teaching and learning. Yet, the team never spent time deciding which particular topics and issues it would consider within its goals of enhancing curriculum, instruction and student organizational structures let alone which student issues and questions would be important to listen for in the classroom work. Certain kinds of attitudes, like those expressed by Steve and Jack, threaten a democratic world; they threaten the very kind of thoughtful community the team was trying to establish. If these ideas are not raised in a social studies class, can we be certain they will be addressed elsewhere? In addition, not examining student group structures and interactions as well as the questions, issues, and concerns that surface from these groups and may need to be brought before the whole class posed a problem and problably influenced the actual inquiry the team was doing. The team seems to have not asked some pertinent questions

connected with its inquiry and well as student learning goals. I return to this point later in the chapter.

ACT TWO: ORAL PRESENTATIONS

Scene One

On April 23, 1991 the oral presentations began in third period. First Ken asked students to look at each group's matrix, and compare and contrast it with their own. Students in the other class, he explained, found it redundant listening to the presentations. Since each group had done the same matrix and essay, the content of the presentations was the same. Therefore, Ken asked students to "bear with me" as he shaped an alternative plan. Ken modeled for students a way to talk about their matrices, pointing to the importance of doing more than just reading from their sheets.

> You might say something like, "When we talk about racism we are referring to x. With respect to racism in the internment camps we found x, while in the concentration camps we found blah, blah, blah."

Students expected this part of the assignment; it was similar to others they had had. Ken then added the new part of the assignment:

> Then I want you to make statements about how or why your matrix is the same or different from the others. You want to say what your group wrote and what their group wrote. Then talk about how those particular ideas or statements differ. Don't just read it off the matrix because we each have the matrix and we can read it ourselves.

Students spent close to ten minutes talking in their groups about the different matrices. As the first presenters, Michelle and Amy, made their way

to the front of the room, Ken took a student seat in the middle of the class

(which he always did during students' oral presentations.) The first

presentation started about one third of the way through the hour-long period.

The students, Michelle and Amy, took about three minutes, reading aloud

from their essay and matrix. Their remarks focused on actions taken by the

Americans and Nazis, e.g., "Japanese-Americans lost their jobs and homes,

grocers refused to sell them food, and banks wouldn't cash their checks, and

their insurance got cancelled. "The Jews," they reported, "lost jobs,

citizenship, were killed, and lost civil rights." When discussing the

"economic motive" they couldn't list only actions, and instead they said

(partially reading from their essay)

> The Japanese had many jobs in the west, and when they were
> removed that left the jobs open. And when the Jews were
> removed, well, that opened up money, too, since they owned
> most of the money.

In the middle of their presentation, when talking about "cause,"

Michelle and Amy pointed out that the cause of internment in the US was

because the "Japanese attacked at Pearl Harbor, and the US worried that the

Japanese would join Japanese forces. For the Germans, they wanted more

power. The Jews owned most of the money and they killed Jesus, so they

became the scapegoats for the loss of WW1." At the end of their presentation,

they returned to this point. Following Ken's directions, they said the

difference between their matrix and others was that they said the Jews killed

Christ. Accordingly, that was why Hitler could point his finger to the Jews

and convince the Germans that they should dislike the Jews. "That was a stupid thing for the Jews to do," they concluded, "because they knew the Romans were going to get him (Christ)." With this comment, they ended their presentation.

When Ken called for questions from other students, Dillon raised his hand and said

> I think you are not right. I disagree with you. First of all, it wasn't like the Jews just got Christ and gave him to the Romans. First of all, if you read the Bible, it was prophecy that Christ was going to be killed anyway. And secondly, I think it was stupid of you to say that it was stupid of the Jews to get Christ because they should have known the Romans wanted him. Because you know it was in a different time period. And, the Romans came looking for him anyway.

Amy retorted that "Well, it is stupid to turn in a friend." Michelle added that "Whatever, Hitler used it for propaganda."

Dillon only frowned, and fell silent. Ken asked if there were any other questions, and after thanking the group and calling the next one to get ready, he looked over his shoulder and directed this comment in Dillon's direction

> Sometimes what is true is not how everyone interprets it and learns about it through the centuries.

Scene Two

Steve and Jack presented next, focusing their presentation on defining four of the seven terms in the matrix: racism, genocide, intolerance, and human rights. In addition to stating definitions, the content of their matrix differed a lot from the first group's. While Michelle and Amy used actions to connect the ideas and the camps, e.g., that racism manifested itself in the Final solution via the taking of citizenship, civil rights, etc., Steve and Jack wrote statements in the cells which often did not seem to connect the idea and national action.

See Figure 5.4: Steve's and Jack's Matrix

For example, in the row about genocide, they wrote under "Japanese internment" that "the Americans took over Japanese companies and tried to push the Japanese economically" while under the "final solution" they wrote that "Adolf Hitler tried to destroy the whole Jewish race." Under "cause" and "internment" they said the "the Japanese internment caused much hatred among Japanese and the White Americans" and with the "final solution" they wrote that "It started a war among countries. It also caused a lot of racism to brew."

JAPENESE-JEWISH MISTREATMENT

connect	Japan internment	Final Solution
Racism-The belief that one race is better than another due to genetics	The people of America at the time were afraid that Japanese Americans were linked with there home country	Adolf Hitler believed that the Jews were responsible for the loss of WWI.
Genocide-The Destruction of a Whole Race.	The Americans took over Japanese companies and tried to push the Japanese economically	Adolf Hitler Tried to Destroy the whole Jewish Race.
cause	Japan Internment caused much hatred among Japanese, and the White American.	It started a war among countries. It also caused a lot of racism to brew.
intolerance-The "Not putting up with something of somebody"	The Americans of the time did not tolerate the Japanese Americans,	Hitler was intolerant of the Jews. He put them in concentration camps. There he Killed up to six million Jews
Force	Americans Threatened the Japanese workers with brute force, to ᴀᴜᴛᴠᴀ ᴛᴜ ᴛᴜᴜ ᴀᴏᴜ⁵	Hitler Tried to wipe out a race with brute force.
Human Rights-The rights given to somebody due to humanity	The Americans took away the human rights of the Japanese-Americans.	Hitler believed that Jews had no human rights.
Economic Motive	The White man could take over the Japanese peoples Jobs.	The jews had owned everything, like the banks, and the companies. Hitler took all of the jews from there house, and from there jobs

Figure 5.3: Steve's and Jack's Matrix

While Jack read pretty much verbatim from the matrix, when Steve

presented he seemed more contemplative than Jack. When he spoke about

"cause" for the camps, for example, he mentioned what they had written on

the matrix--"Japanese internment caused much hatred among Japanese, and

White Americans"--and then grimaced. "We didn't understand why others,

like the Italians or the Germans, weren't also interned. I mean, well, we just

didn't know the answer to that question." When he defined "economic

motive," he explained that

> the white man could take over the Japanese people's jobs while
> under the Final Solution the problem was that the Jews owned
> everything, like the banks, and the companies. Hitler took all of
> the Jews from their houses and from their jobs.

Steve ended the presentation by pointing out that the matrix he and

Jack had differed from others because they defined the terms on the matrix

and didn't use the word "Japs" instead of Japanese. After Steve and Jack

finished, Ken commented about their careful non-use of the word "Jap":

> Jap is also a derogatory and pejorative term used especially with
> Jewish females. It stands for Jewish American Princess. The
> term is akin to "nigger".

A couple students wondered what a Jewish American Princess was, and after

Steve explained it as "a person who bargains on prices and penny-pinches,"

Ken disagreed. "No. It is meant to refer to a person who is over-pampered

and superficial. The term refers to many people irrespective of their

ancestory."

Ken then commented on something he had heard in both

presentations, and possibly in the group conversations as they had carried out

their assignments. He said, "I've noticed that under "economic motive", you

all (and he waved his hand to encompass the class) talked about jobs. Jobs

were not a factor." Jim, a vocal and very interested student in class,

challenged Ken. "Yes, it was. I mean, it was about farms and farmers for the

Japanese Americans"[8]. Ken argued back:

> The issue is land. The white people welcomed the camps in
> order to acquire the well-worked land all around California that
> the Japanese Americans held. In a sense, you could say they
> wanted the jobs they held [here Ken looked toward Jim], but
> what they really wanted was their land. For the Jews, jobs were
> not an issue. For them, the economic motive came after the fact.
> After they put them in camps, they took all that they had. But
> not before. And furthermore, Jews did not own everything.
> There were many poor Jews, just as there are many rich and
> poor Catholics and Protestants. This myth, that the Jews owned
> everything, is a prominent myth in our culture. So you can ask
> why the Jews? We resent people with money—any people. So
> they took it out on the Jews, many of whom had jobs in finance.

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[8]This comment could have been motivated by the primary source
readings in the packet that focused on framers losing property. Jim seemed to
define "farming" as a job, and therefore losing a farm was like losing a job.

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Students remained quiet after Ken's comments, perhaps taking them in, surprised that Ken made the claims he did, or simply not registering them. Students were used to Ken guiding them to say things; rarely did he state so emphatically what he believed and/or what he considered to be "fact." Jim reacted with a comment that didn't really fit with what Ken had said. Jim said he wanted to change his group's matrix to say that genocide "is definitely racial because that is what the definition is." With about one minute to go before the bell rang, and some students already beginning to collect their materials to leave, Ken offered:

> Many times, reality and perception are different. Genocide can apply to ethnic groups, too. Often times the reality of things, like even definitions, may not match perceptions. And those perceptions get handed down through history.

As students left the class, I sat staring at my notes. Ken's last comments about reality not matching perception struck me as very important. The often different realities and perceptions that people have fit with an idea that Ken had been promoting to his students the last few months; i.e., that "history is like an agreed-upon fable, or like gossip." What Ken had just told his students described how he thought about history, how he saw and understood history. By offering his way of defining history, he was also

offering a way of <u>doing</u> history--looking for the realities and perceptions that people see and hold, and the gap between them.

And this last comment helped me better understand Ken's comment to Dillon about "sometimes what is true is not how everyone interprets it and learns about it through the centuries." Ken had offered some evidence--the misconceptions about why the Jews were chosen to be slaughtered--about what he thought history was--the agreed upon fable. Did Ken realize the significance of this comment, I wondered. Did he realize the connections he had made? And did students realize it? If I had just realized it, just put two and two together, then could all the students have done it also (especially not having the time to sit back and think about it)?

I made a decision to point out the comments to Ken, and said, "I was really struck by what Dillon said." He nodded, and said, "Yes."

Michelle: And then at the end of class you told students that "reality doesn't always match perception.' That's a great line. And a really important one. I wonder if students got what you meant.

Ken: Yeah. It had to be quick with the bell.

Michelle: See, I think that line is an example of how Mr. Larson "does" history--how you think about it and approach it as interpretation. That's why it's important for kids to understand, and I'm not convinced they do.

Ken: Yeah, the statement was a bit pithy.

Michelle: Yes. And I guess I think it's too important to miss.

Ken: Pithy or is it pronounced pithy [rhyming with "pie"]?

I ended our conversation then, knowing that Ken had to deal with students coming in for the next class. I had also learned to detect the times that Ken wanted to pursue something, and he had mentioned in meetings that sometimes he simply had "to close down" usually from overload. So I just let the subject be, hoping I might find another way later in the day or week to raise the episode again.

The next day Ken came to class with a chart he had prepared entitled "History as a fable agreed-upon...or as gossip!"[9] in which he wrote:

> Often what many believe to be true is the product of ignorance and bigotry/unreasonable hate, based on what they have been told by those who wish to promote that product to their ends/power/wealth.

The chart had two columns, one entitled "myth", the other called "reality", with three rows entitled "political/economic ideas", "religious ideas", "racial ideas". In the cells he talked about the myths and realities about Judaism related to these themes (see Figure 5.5: Ken's Judaism Chart).

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[9]This is the same chart I mentioned earlier in the chapter.

AMERICAN HISTORY   KRESSLER

HISTORY AS A FABLE AGREED UPON...OR AS GOSSIP!!	MYTH:	REALITY:
OFTEN WHAT MANY BELIEVE TO BE TRUE IS THE PRODUCT OF IGNORANCE AND BIGOTRY/ UNREASONABLE HATE ...BASED ON WHAT THEY HAVE BEEN TOLD BY THOSE WHO WISH TO PROMOTE THAT PRODUCT TO THEIR ENDS/POWER/WEALTH political/ economic ideas	1. The idea that jews are quite wealthy 2. the idea that because of the riches jews have a great deal of political and economic power in a particular country. 3. the idea that jew use the above power to influence and/or control the nations in which they live. 4. the idea that all jews are coordinating their efforts from country to country in order take over the world	..generally jews have no more money than any other group of people and that there are many poor jews in the world. ..it is true that some jews did become powerful bankers in Europe but so did many other kinds of people. ..most people who have a large amount of wealth use that wealth to influence the policies of their notion;s government, jew are not an exception to this as is no one else

religious ideas	the idea that jews were solely responsible for the death of Christ..they killed the Savior!	..if one reads the Bible one would now that the death of Christ was very complicated and filled with prophesy so it would be ridiculous to blame any one group of people for the execution...especially if one believes that God determined the death when one reads the Old Testament. ...the Church did teach that the jews "killed" Christ for a thousand years and obviously had a major influence on the thoughts of the population.
racial ideas	the idea that the jews are a separate race and that race is somehow evil and insidious. the idea that the jew will morally pollute other races as well as make the others genetically inferior than they are	..jews are not a separate race but are a culture kept alive b y their religious activities.

Figure 5.4: Ken's Judaism Chart

Postscript

On their matrix, Steve and Jack had erased the comment that "supposedly six million Jews died", and put in its place (in the "intolerance" row), "Hitler was intolerant of the Jews. He put them in concentration camps. There he killed up to six million Jews." During the presentation, when Steve read this aloud, I sat staring at him, though he didn't look in my direction. A host of questions ran through my mind: where did this change in response come from? Was it a change; were Steve and Jack just teasing me last week? Did they become locked into taking the non-mainstream stance—only 300 Jews died—because they were together and didn't want to lose face? Had something I had said persuaded them? Did watching the documentary about Auschwitz influence their thinking and if so, how? Was their thinking changed, or were they simply taking the politically-correct—the school-correct view, and giving teachers what they thought teachers wanted to hear?

At that time, and even now as I look back, I have a sense of mystery and uneasiness about the change Steve and Jack made in their matrix. I will never know what went on in Steve's and Jack's heads, nor if my comments served as adequate intervention. Did they make a real change, which I define as a change in thinking, or did they co-op into the system of school where the

"right" things are said, or was it no change at all? That is, did Steve and Jack

disbelieve that six million Jews were murdered and did they continue to

maintain that belief (no matter what they wrote)? This sense of uncertainty is

very common teaching, and many scholars have addressed it (e.g., Lortie

(1975) and Jackson (1986). But their acknowledgement of it didn't help me as I

was engaged in the actual teaching. And, this sense of mystery about

students' thinking and understanding wreaked special havoc for me and for

Ken as we tried to assess our experiments with teaching and learning. Placing

students in groups, in which we couldn't keep track of the many ideas,

arguments, and processes of negotiation they used, increased the uncertainty

we felt about what students thought and understood. Steve's and Jack's

comments and changes stand as direct evidence of how much Ken and I

remained in the dark about their understandings.

WHAT ARE THESE STORIES ABOUT?

These accounts provide the grounding from which I can discuss Ken's

instruction and his students' thoughtfulness. These aspects of life in his

classroom changed over the two years the team met, and the changes can be

linked with the team's collaborative work. Two major changes present

themselves: 1) that Ken changed his instruction midstream by planning and

implementing two different experiences for students--asking students to compare and contrast matrices and creating and discussing the "myth and realities" chart; and 2) that students' actions and comments to each other appeared richer than they had ever before. Students' discourse was characterized by risk-taking, negotiation, and challenges to one another as well as to instructors. Comments reveal the views that students had--sometimes racist, often blatantly wrong. But, the surfacing of these views is the first step toward challenging the ideas.

Changes in Instruction

As I mentioned earlier in this chapter and in chapter four, Ken was a planner. Leaving little to chance in his out-of-school as well as in-school life, Ken usually had units designed at least three weeks before distributing them to students. While due dates may be altered, the substance of the unit and assignments usually stayed intact. Given this history, I find it even more amazing that Ken would take a risk and change his instruction and curriculum so relatively quickly within the unit I have described.

Yet the conditions surrounding Ken's instruction suggest ways to account for the swiftness and depth of the changes in April, 1991, close to two years into the team's collaborative work. Ken could trust and respect the team

members who observed his classes and spoke with him about what he was teaching. Bill and I were the two main participants who observed, and Ken knew us very well since we had been active in the team since its beginning. We also knew Ken's students individually and often by name, and so we could talk with Ken about specific things we saw and relate them to particular students. And finally, both Bill and I had shared our observations through conversations (in writing and verbally) in which all of us were trying to learn how to design thematic curriculum; clearly neither Bill nor I considered ourselves experts.

Perhaps these are the reasons why Ken adopted the changes he did. One particular episode is illustrative of the way Ken changed what he did based on conversation with a team member. The impetus for the change in the oral presentations (when Ken had students compare and contrast their matrices with each other) came from observations and ongoing conversations that Ken and Bill had. Bill explained to me that he had been in Ken's classroom observing presentations from the first period class, and the same nagging issues occurred to him that he had wondered about during other oral presentations[10]

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[10]Having students present in groups to the whole class had become a mainstay in Ken's classroom over the year.

You have this group activity which is conceptually organized. You know the way you organized it. And the students do it together. They are active. They produce a presentation for other kids. And in some ways it works out to be unsatisfactory because of the kind of similarities of the work they do. But there's not enough difference between the reports. So you need to develop a new piece of repertoire which is, "Well, what finishing piece do you use that makes use of what students learned and know?"

In the interview, Bill compared this concern with one he had in his own teaching with teacher candidates: "If you give students the same task, they come up with pretty much the same report." Though he had mentioned his concern to Ken, and he and Ken had tried a bit of a change in class that day, Bill said he had not had the time to talk about the problem with Ken. As he had continued thinking about it, he had framed the problem as one in which the team needed to design better culminating activities for students. He wrote a note to Ken, suggesting this way of seeing the problem, and suggesting a debate as a final activity in which the focus could be on two questions: 1) Are these events (the Holocaust and internment) morally equivalent? 2) Just assume the Holocaust was not a reasonable event; was the internment reasonable?

A couple weeks after this incident I checked with Ken about his reactions to this note; this was the first time Bill had ever sent a note (and no one in the team had, either). Ken thought the debate had been a good idea,

but much too sudden to pull it off well. "Something like that needs to be

planned--how to organize the kids, what to tell them to look at and think

about. But we might do that next year." In fact, in the 1991-92 school year,

Ken's student teacher did a kind of debate in a town meeting format. Ken

liked it so much that he did the same activity in another class, and planned

more debates through the year.

Changing one's instruction, whether adding a debate format or

changing one's view of curricular organization--both of which Ken did--is not

an easy thing to do. First of all, when teachers reform their practice, they are

usually going against established teaching practices based on often

unquestioned traditions. Informed by taken-for-granted unchallenged

practical ideas, these folkways of knowing, as Buchmann (1987) calls them, are

resistant to change. In addition, since one's teaching is a reflection of one's

self (Cohen, 1988; Kohl, 1984), change in teaching practice is often associated

with change in one's self. And finally, when working in a collaborative

setting in which other professional teachers are observing and talking with

you constantly, one's changes and experimentations are laid bare for the

world to see and critique. That Ken made the changes he did under these

risky conditions is amazing! As I mentioned earlier in the chapter, Ken made

some significant interconnected changes in curriculum and instruction. He

altered his curricular content and goals to reflect sources of knowledge in

addition to the textbook; he concurrently altered student grouping patterns

which caused him to teach another way (one cannot lecture to small groups);

conversation within and across small groups became a mainstay instead of

individual student assignments.

Ken's strength and drive to change his instruction seemed to come

from two sources: the social studies team and himself. In a conversation

between Ken and me he referred to the collaboration we had, as part of the

team's work, and noted the kinds of help the team provided:

> As a classroom teacher, I'm often thinking about the process
> that's going on, but I'm not always aware of absolutely
> everything, and when you are there and writing down things
> that are going on and remark to me later, it causes me to think
> about what went on beyond what I was assessing.

Ken believed that through another set of eyes, team members helped

him focus on what was happening in his classroom because additional adults

in the classroom could illuminate different classroom processes that may

have passed Ken by. The conversations that followed from me sharing what

I saw with Ken—or when other members gave feedback—helped Ken make

alterations in his practices. In short, the sources of change for Ken seemed to

be the ongoing cycle of conversation and self-reflection. But as Ken pointed

out, not only the observing was important; he liked when I commented on

things I had seen. My comments reminded him about things that happened,

and offered another point of view. In short, I imagine that a source of change

for Ken were the conversations--the give and take, the sharing of stories and

interpretations, the joint construction of ideas--that we had. In those talks,

we thought we discussed students and their understandings. I discuss this in

the next section.

Student Thoughtfulness

The level and depth of students' thoughtfulness is demonstrated in the

scenes I described. The question "What is Judaism?", which certainly grew

out of, but was not directly part of the assignment, is one illustration of it.

Dillon's strategy for analysis--comparing and contrasting it with something

known (being Catholic)--is another illustration. The earnestness of students

to explore the idea--finding the dictionary, examining the meaning of race,

and being critical of their findings by questioning the usefulness of the

definition and idea, and questioning the suggestion made by me to explore

the idea of race--illuminates the thoughtfulness, too. When they redirected

the question to Ken, and he helped them identify what they didn't know

about Judaism, students began taking charge of their learning in a thoughtful

and intentional way.

Ken's own observations of students in both oral and written arenas

offer additional claims about the depth of his students' thoughtfulness. He

seemed amazed with the student discussion about Judaism, raising it

spontaneously at a team meeting about a month after the event happened:

> I've been around for a long time. And it's not too often that a
> group of general level kids sit around and get into the kinds of
> discussions [they did] because of something I did or said. They
> generated ideas on their own.

Around the same time of year, in an interview, he talked about students'

thoughtfulness in their journals:

> ...the reflection and the writing, and the amount of writing the
> kids are engaged in now in the journals has increased
> monumentally...another thing that is happening is I'm finding
> myself reading them—really reading them—because I'm being
> entertained and they are interesting and before they weren't...

As I discussed earlier in this chapter, the "before" Ken referred to is a

time when student written work consisted mostly of outlining the text,

answering study guide questions, and circling a multiple choice response on

the chapter test. Even when Ken made the transition to having students

wrestle with ideas and write collaborative essays, for example, the beginning

pieces followed particular recipes that Ken gave students, e.g., begin the essay

with this sentence: The main thesis of the article, "[name]", by [name], was that [xxx][11]. During the semester unit on conflict and war, Ken loosened the reins on writing. He allowed students to expand on issues that interested them in logs. Though group essays usually still needed to include particular themes, these essays resembled the one for the "camps" unit in that students could still develop their ideas, interpretations, and responses around the readings and discussions they had about the themes.

What we saw and heard in Ken's classroom indicated that students had taken up the bait; they seemed engaged in the curriculum the team had designed. Yet just as importantly, we believed we had structured the class such that students could ask questions and alter our agenda when they had ideas and issues they wished to explore. The goals we set in our social studies team for student learning clearly encompassed what we witnessed; we wanted to place students in situations where they could learn and construct meaningful ideas and interpretations about American History.

Missed Opportunities in Student Thoughtfulness

In a disturbing way, the Steve and Jack incident also illustrated a kind of student thoughtfulness, though the content and conclusions are

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[11]He wrote these kind of essay starters on the board and in documents he handed out.

problematic. Their retorts to me were logical and connected to the comments I made. In many ways, the comments were classic examples of student opposition in that they halted the teacher's efforts to talk about content. Steve and Jack seemed in some ways to be striking a bargain with me. Perhaps they wanted to test themselves and see how well they could manipulate the teacher. Perhaps they wanted to test the perverted idea they came up with (or heard from friends). Perhaps they simply wanted to get out of working on the assignment at that moment. In any case, their responses showed a kind of thoughfulness that effectively controlled the situation and stopped the learning of content.

DISCUSSION

Taken together, the classroom vignettes and analyses in this chapter illustrate collaboration on the part of adults and students aimed at student and adult learning. The analyses and stories illustrate multiple forms and content of students' learning activities, as well as the varied forms that adult professional collaborative work can take. Focusing as they do in one classroom, the vignettes form the basis for the portrait of a teacher whose views about teaching, learning, and knowing have changed in ways that support and promote a certain kind of learning on the part of students. Ken struggled to bring about meaningful learning of ideas in American History through students' active participation in what the team called "doing history"--considering and critiquing the varied interpretations history records. The team provided Ken with the support that helped him question and challenge his views and practices for the sake of a new kind of student learning,

learning rich in thought and complexity.

What Was Learned?

Overall, both students and team members wrestled with a kind of American History content that differed from the traditional school history course that, as one group of students said on the first day of school, focused on "facts, dates, and dead people." Both students and team members faced revised curricular goals, scope, sequence and themes for learning American History in Ken Larson's course. Whereas Ken's students in earlier years read history in a textbook, memorized it, and mostly reproduced the knowledge via responses on a multiple choice exam, in Ken's present classroom students needed to think about ideas, and discuss and debate alternative interpretations made by themselves, by peers, and by scholars. Knowing history now meant gathering ideas and interpretations as evidence to argue a particular point. Tempered by their personal histories, beliefs and orientations, the ways students understood evidence differed even when they used the same sources of information (e.g., differences in the interpretations and actions of Dillon, Steve, Jack, Jim.)

Invited to shape their own meanings about American History as they were in Ken's classroom, students' previous interpretations as well as the ideas of others take a different shape from how they originally looked. History knowledge is reconceptualized to be an interconnected web of factual knowledge, voices from the past and present, chronologies and descriptions of events, justifications, questions,

and critique[12]. American History curriculum rings of power and oppression, success and defeat, hope and despair. Drawing on investigations in social studies and other disciplines, the team determined that in order to see U.S. history in a new way, students needed opportunities to question and challenge ideas through reading and discussion. Therefore, concurrent with a reconceptualization of history knowledge came a change in the means of learning the knowledge. The student reorganization in Ken's classroom both came from and shaped changing epistemologies of history; knowledge and the process of constructing it became mutually dependent.

Changing Roles

Given changing views of knowledge and changing processes of understanding and learning it, Ken and his students needed to craft and assume different roles. No longer could Ken simply lecture; how can one use such a method to teach about knowledge that is dynamic, interpretive, and open to question and critique based on personal, cultural, and scholarly histories? And for the same reasons students could no longer sit as passive learners.

Changing Teacher Roles

When knowledge is viewed as dynamic and changing, the complexity of the teacher's role is intensified (Cohen, 1988; Jackson, 1986). Concurrently assessing students' understandings, searching for materials and ideas that will stretch and challenge them, and enriching one's own understandings can be time-consuming

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[12]See Wilson & Wineburg (1988) for a discussion about the importance of some of these dimensions for teaching and learning to teach American History.

in physical, intellectual, and emotional ways. In an essay about the endemic uncertainties of teaching and changing views of knowledge, Jackson (1986) calls attention to the relationship between teaching and knowing. Two models of knowledge exist, he argues, and reminds us of the nature of the differences:

> Under the transformation model the teacher is no longer primarily concerned with whether some fragile commodity called knowledge has arrived safely and is properly stored somewhere in its original carton (as in the reproductive model)...Rather, the central questions now have to do with such things as how the knowledge in question is being used by the learner, how it relates to what was learned before, how it becomes personalized by being translated into the learner's own language, how it becomes applied to new situations...(The focus) now encompasses levels of mental functioning that customarily fall under the rubrics of "judgment" and "understanding." (Jackson, 1986), p. 71)

In a transformative role, rather than the teacher just checking if cartons of knowledge are correctly labeled, the teacher wonders how learners make sense of historical knowledge. In Ken's case, his role now included searching for primary and secondary source materials (at a variety of reading levels since many students had special learning needs), and creating small group tasks that invite students to wonder and debate about ideas. He needed to provide help to students that ranged from teaching some how to write essays, to helping others learn how to track down a piece of evidence in the 1932 New York Times, to helping still others define words before they can begin trying to comprehend the New York Times column.

Changing Student Roles

Two aspects of students' changing roles stand out. First, as American History became something more than merely memorization of "facts, figures, and dead people," students' repertoire for learning and understanding historical knowledge

also changed. Just reading the chapter in the textbook (sometimes the evening before the test or not at all) and listening to the teacher lecture didn't work anymore. To be successful, one needed to debate ideas and interpretations--which was now the basis of the curriculum. While doing so, personal views and values were uncovered and opened to critique. Could students handle the kinds of comments and ideas they heard from peers and revealed themselves? In designing opportunities for small group and whole class discussions, the team assumed that students could handle both the process and substance of the conversations. Early in the year the team designed some initial activities to help students learn the processes of working in groups (e.g., coming to consensus about an idea or action), yet by mid-year this concern faded from our attention. Meanwhile, little to no notice was paid to conflicts that might arise due to the controversial nature of the content as well as process.

A connected issue to embracing new roles and learning how to learn a new kind of American History content is the teacher's acceptance of students' new roles. At times, neither Ken nor team members seemed to hear nor pay attention to the direction students wanted to take the curriculum. Two types of what I've called "missed opportunities" present themselves. The first kind was identifiable through students' explicit questions and statements (e.g., what is the relationship between Hitler's hatred of the Jews and the killing of Christ? Jews had all the money in pre-World War 2 Germany). Another set of missed opportunities were more hidden, however, than these. They arose from comments students made or beliefs

we attributed to them that never became part of whole class exchanges, e.g., Ken's idea that Steve and Jack dismissed my comments because I was female; students' wonderment about what Judaism was. Whether explicitly or implicitly expressed, sometimes significant student comments—often significant because of their blatantly misguided interpretations—got lost under layers of pre-planned curricular goals, scope, and sequence.

What emerges is an entangled web of changes including changing epistemological definitions, changing curriculum, changing instruction, changing student reactions, and changing teacher roles, but a somewhat static view of the students' places in relation to curriculum design and goals. In wondering about this strange finding, I actually began questioning myself: why didn't I find this lopsided change pattern earlier? My conclusion sheds light on the all-too familiar insider/outsider debates; until I got myself sufficiently outside the data, like my colleagues on the social studies team I simply couldn't see that changes in students' roles presented problems for the team. Conversations in team meetings rarely got down to talking about the particulars of altered student roles; usually the team was busy figuring out and attending to the big picture. Units needed planning; we needed to scout out resources; tasks needed to be created. Though we conducted student interviews and occasionally raised what we heard in team meetings[13], we rarely turned our focus in team meetings to talk about what particular students said

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[13]One problem with the student interviews was the long periods that passed between the actual interview and the transcription.

and did in class. Though I had a lot of this information from my observations, I usually did not discuss it in the team meetings and instead shared my interpretations with Ken, Gary, Bill, or Sally after class or over lunch. Clearly we needed to do other work, I used to think, and so I could talk about individual students with the appropriate teacher.

I also have come to understand the intricacies of my multiple role performances. While team members played multiple roles--especially me--and the roles often overlapped, inevitably certain roles would become prominent given particular situations. While participating in the team, I seemed to see myself as a teacher. I interacted with students whether in the high school or in teacher preparation classes. When I eased out of the team's work, however, I began distancing myself from assuming the role of "teacher" and moved into the role of "researcher." In that role, I could take a different perspective. No longer bound by the presentism of teaching (e.g., the planning, the assessment), I could look for patterns within the team's work. Between the different roles, the rigor of research when one pours over data, and simply the distance from the events (over one year has passed), I could see the team's missed opportunities in terms of the students' roles in relation to curriculum[14].

Thoughtful Collaboration and the Enactment of New Roles

Seeing the missed opportunities even as a team participant might not have

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[14]I thank Peter Kressler, Kathy Roth, and especially Constanza Hazelwood for our many discussions about the often conflicting roles of "teacher" and "researcher".

made the situation change. I might have raised the topic in meetings, and/or in side conversations with Ken, yet the scope of my responsibility and the power I had remained limited. Ken was teacher of record and, therefore, had final say about curriculum and instruction, and final responsibility for students. Given this situation, I could only raise issues and suggest change; I couldn't necessarily make the changes. Even though Ken and I worked together in a joint effort that was producing some clear changes in our own learning and that of our students, my actions and discourse within the collaboration were still monitored by conflicting institutional and cultural mores and expectations.

The analyses I offered in this chapter illustrate the ways in which relationships, experimentation, and conversations about practice --elements in the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration--shaped our actions in the face of persistent conflicts. The relationship Ken and I had was still shaped to a large extent by particular power and status dynamics (e.g., he was teacher of record, and I still worked in Hodges at his invitation.) Additionally, our team goals (e.g., shape a thematic curriculum and teach it through small group interactions) focused us on trying certain kinds of experiments and having conversations about what happened. Thoughout all our conversations and experiments, however, we faced explicit as well as undiscussed and unrecognized moral and emotional conflicts (e.g., the Steve and Jack incident, and Kens' response.) Impinging on our relationship and work, mostly in hidden ways, these conflicts constrained what we said to each other and altered our actions in ways I have yet to even realize.

CHAPTER SIX
ENACTING THE ENACTMENT OF THOUGHTFULNESS

In Chapter Two, I offered a normative framework, theoretically and practically derived, that detailed the kind of collaboration among teachers that I believe has the potential for enhancing student thoughtfulness about academic content. My two years of work on the social studies team, and my subsequent year looking back at it, place me at a good vantage point for thinking about what aspects of the team's endeavors epitomize the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration. In this chapter, I analyze the team's work as a case, and comment about the viability of other collaborative endeavors to enact thoughtfulness in collaboration.

ENACTMENT OF THOUGHTFULNESS IN COLLABORATION

In my description of the idea in Chapter Two, I mentioned that four aspects of collaborative teaching and learning contribute to what I call the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration: 1) working within caring and supportive relationships in which participants have 2) conversations through which they would be 3) shaping and reshaping experiments having to do with learning and advancing 4) progressive kinds of teaching practice. Looking at the team's problem (Chapter Three), its work (Chapter Four), and its connections to student learning (Chapter Five), I now suggest apparent features and missing characteristics in the team's work of the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration.

The Team's Problem

In trying to understand why the social studies team seemed to click, I found that <u>the team's problem</u> remained central in people's thinking and in the actions they took around team questions. Recast in ways, moving between questions about grouping students by ability and designing different curriculum and instruction, the team's central questions acted like a kind of magnetic field. They pulled participants' curiosities, expertise, and needs around something common—attention to enhancing student learning and understanding. Inviting many different points of view, the questions invited debate. In a Deweyian sense, the questions gave way to a problem in which a doubt—how to group students and what curriculum and instructional paths to follow—arose about the next steps to take (Dewey, 1933). In order to wrestle with the problem, team participants continually searched for and marshalled resources aimed at helping them solve the problem through its many iterations. Furthermore, the environment in which participants designed and studied the problem provided time, money and support.

The team enacted thoughtfulness in its collaboration when it designed and stayed focused on its problem of changing teaching practice in social studies in order to enhance student learning. To change practices in the direction of progressive education, participants conversed about different points of view, speculated, and debated. They designed changes in curriculum and instruction, had conversations about it, and then redesigned;

this cycle of talk and experimentation flourished. Equally important for individuals, I found, was the connection of the collaboratively designed and re-designed problem to individuals' interests and needs.

Through all its iterations, the problem's richness developed and remained powerful. Participants cared about the problem, wanting to think about it because its potential solutions had meaning for their practices. Working collaboratively became a worthwhile means for broadening the potential for finding solutions. Bound by obligations of mutuality and reciprocity, two characteristics inherent in the kinds of caring relationships that mark the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration, participants had conversations in which they remained open to each others' points of view as people talked about their thinking, actions, and beliefs. In essence, the team's problem became both the substance of the collaborative work and the reason for doing it.

Cautionary Notes

The enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration rests upon the assumption that personal and contextual factors can combine to create enabling conditions for reflective thinking, as defined by Dewey, to happen. Currently, many schools and universities are encouraging and even arranging opportunities for colleagues to meet and talk. While these opportunities can be enriching because they break down the walls of isolation that guard against the sharing of ideas, such occasions will not necessarily

foster thoughtfulness and change around student learning. In order to have

conversations and shape and reshape experiments towards progressive

teaching practices that take into account new kinds of student learning,

participants enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration need the presence of an

enduring problem, felt in their own teaching experiences, that people can

connect to and care about solving. Secondly, exploring the inquiry seems to

require close-to-the classroom work that allows for professionals to have

common experiences grounded in a focus on student learning. Conditions of

the collaborative setting--e.g., time to meet, time to see colleagues teach,

resources in the form of materials and personnel--need to support and

promote a thoughtful inquiry into student learning.

The Team's Work

Throughout this dissertation I stage productions of the team's

work--vignettes about what the social studies team did and how. The team

had two kinds of occasions that marked its work, one being when members

worked in classrooms with students, and the other in meetings and informal

conversations. The substance of the work ranged over broad areas I defined

as 1) planning classroom work (e.g., changes in curriculum and instruction)

and team business, 2) actually doing the classroom and out-of-classroom

work, and 3) sharing beliefs and orientations. Highlighting different routines

and changing roles participants played helped me illustrate how the team

worked.

In the examples of team work, one could note varied conversations that included debate, negotiation, listening, and building on others' ideas (e.g., the three connected events around planning psychology lessons). The essence of the team's talk focused on experiments in either curriculum and instruction, or team actions (e.g., questions about interviewing students). Additionally, the team thoughtfully operationalized and continued redefining their inquiry and the work it spawned.

Collaboration became a worthwhile and necessary tool, a means to meet the difficulties of peering into one's teaching practice and attempting to change it. By talking together and planning together about changing teaching practices, and doing things together in and out of meetings, participants could face the hardships and handle the endemic dilemmas of teaching with colleagues, instead of in the usual isolated and individualist ways. The collaboration provided the forum for talking about the difficulty, for facing it with help and guidance, and for assessing the consequences.

I concluded in Chapter Four that the multiple descriptions of the team's work throughout the dissertation could be understood in three ways: collaboration as intellectual work, collaboration as conflict, and collaboration as teacher learning. Now I explore the ways in which these conceptions fit with the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration.

Collaboration as Intellectual Work

Conversation and experimentation about practice are hallmark features of enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration. The team's work illustrates, however, that thoughtfulness about practice involved thoughtfulness about the academic content of practice, too. Participants talked about the social studies, recognizing the contentious nature of the disciplines' epistemological substance. Transforming the complex and often competing ideas and values into practices that promoted debate and critique on students' parts in many ways _forced_ participants to talk and experiment; conversation and experimentation as processes in enacting thoughtfulness seemed to emerge organically from the substance of the team's work.

Collaboration as Conflict

Conflict in many ways is the essence of the enactment of thoughtfulness in collaboration, because by expressing alternate and sometimes opposing points of view participants support and stretch[1] their thinking. In the social studies team, conflicting beliefs, understandings, actions, and orientations provided the reason and grounds for teammates' to continue discussions and critiques. Collaborative work about changing practice invited participants to talk about their conflicts on two levels. They spoke about their on-the-spot thoughtful action, the kind of thinking that

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[1]This term, support and stretch, is an idea common in the advisory work literature.

happens in situ and that can only be understood by knowing about the contexts in which the action occurs (see Dewey, 1933; Schon, 1992; van Manen, 1991). Teammates also spoke about conflicts while planning, observing, and participating in in-classroom and out-of-classroom work.

Collaboration as Teacher Learning

Features of the enactment of thoughtfulness around teaching and learning were evident in a lot of the team's work. Participants constantly asked questions of themselves and of each other. Moreover, responses to the multiple questions about how to teach something, what to teach, how to shape the team's inquiry, or how to talk about each other's teaching in respectful ways opened the door to debate, challenge, and critique.

I find this focus and commitment to teacher learning especially interesting given team members' multiple experiences and their longevity in teaching. Why would very experienced teachers (e.g., Ken, Gary, and Sally) and consultants (Bill) continue to engage in hard work aimed at changing what they do and have done (they all believed) rather successfully? The only plausible explanation I can make for this commitment is that participants felt invested in the inquiry. As I have said before, members connected to the team's central problem which remained a problem about teaching practices. As the team constantly reshaped the problem and its resulting work, the problem remained something that connected to individuals' interests and curiosities.

Enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration that encourages teacher learning meant, for the social studies team, focusing on and appreciating the having of wonderful ideas. I lift this idea from Duckworth's work, which began with a focus on children's learning. She writes,

> The having of wonderful ideas, which I consider the essence of intellectual development, would depend to an overwhelming extent on the occasions for having them...The greater the child's repertoire of actions and thoughts...the more material he or she has for trying to put things together in his or her own mind...children increase the repertoires of actions that they carry out on ordinary things, which in turn gives rise to the need to make more intellectual connections. (Duckworth, 1987, p. 13)

Enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration foisted social studies team participants into occasions in which they could create, acquire, discuss, test, and reshape a large set of actions and thoughts about teaching and learning--both their own and their students' learning. These ideas mixed with past experiences, questions, and beliefs that individuals held, and the new ways of acting and thinking gave rise to new ways of putting things together. Carrying out teaching in the usual ways, given these new and different understandings, simply couldn't happen any more. The new repertoire of actions that team members constructed, and new connections, enabled participants--indeed, almost forced them, to teach and learn differently than they had.

Cautionary Notes

In order to enact thoughtfulness in collaboration, participants need to invest in the idea that collaborative work can be aimed at their own learning,

working through conflict, and doing intellectual work. In order to support and promote action and change, conversations and experimentation around these topics need to be embedded in caring and trusting relationships. Only within such relationships can attempts to learn and change be genuine, not forced. A mix of personal and institutional factors need to be present to encourage such thinking and genuine work.

What this translates to is that collaborative work requires time, and its effects will only be seen over a long period of time. Furthermore, I believe that I only began to see the many effects of our team's work after careful and laborious analysis; consequences of change in teaching and learning aren't very obvious to insiders. I return to this point later in the chapter.

Team and Student Thoughtfulness

Characteristics of thoughtfulness permeated both in-classroom and out-of-classroom team work, as I mentioned throughout Chapter Five. I found similarities between how the team acted and how we saw students act, leading me to believe that when teachers contemplate and discuss content and how to teach it, they design tasks for students that foster and support similar kinds of discussions and curiosities. A cycle seemed to develop in which the team designed and taught particular tasks, students responded in ways that often the team hadn't even imagined, and such reactions continually took team members back to the design table.

Some examples serve to illustrate my point. One comes from student journals in Ken's classes. Ken said that he now wants to read the journals, finding them more "interesting," "reflective," and "making more sense." Students' journal entries reflect the kinds of questions and ideas posed in class as they wrestled with what does being Jewish means, could another Hitler rise to power, are Jews to blame for Germany's demise. Seeing entries that reflected these ideas, instead of just a listing of facts (which is what Ken used to see in journals), encouraged Ken and team members to continue designing the kinds of tasks we offered students. Exchanges among students, e.g., the one between Patrick and Rachel and Lisa during their oral presentation, enabled Ken to ask questions and make statements that opened the door to debate. The set of exchanges that followed the oral presentations, for instance, resulted in Ken's questions and statements about the myths and realities of Judaism. Hearing these exchanges, and realizing the thoughtfulness behind the ideas, pushed me to say something to Ken, and resulted in his design of the chart about the myths and realities of Judaism.

As in the team, students' exchanges began to embrace controversy. Instead of Patrick silently disagreeing with Rachel and Lisa, for example, he raised his hand and openly stated, "I disagree with what you said." Such an event reminds me of the conflict evident in the October, 1990, team meeting (see Chapter Four) when the team (and especially Bill and I) needed to dispute the reasons and methods for our inquiry about student learning.

Connections between the team's and students' thoughtfulness illustrate the essence and purpose for enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration. Thoughtfulness, willingness to engage in debate and negotations about different ideas, and willingness to change practices--both the processes and content of teaching and learning--are the elements of the kinds of student learning that will enable individuals to make educated choices and changes in their worlds inside and outside school. They are the elements, too, that enable professional educators to make the same changes.

Cautionary Notes

Students' actions and thoughts mirrored the team's thoughtfulness in ways that the team might not have chosen intentionally. As I discussed in Chapter Five, the team paid too little attention to helping students learn ways to talk about and wrestle with contentious content. While we carefully organized how to teach the content, we didn't spend time thinking about how to help students learn the ways to debate ideas. Though Patrick and Jim, for example, showed the ways they could argue thoughtfully, I am not certain how they learned it. Did team participants do anything, say anything, and/or demonstrate anything that helped Jim and Patrick, but that didn't come clear to other students? Or, could Jim and Patrick debate in such ways before they came to our class? Or, did they get engaged with the content and push themselves while other students remained indifferent and, therefore, didn't engage in thoughtful discussions?

Looking back on my observations, I noted some characteristics that suggested student thoughtfulness, e.g., students engaged in discussions in their small groups; students spontaneously raised and discussed questions ("Is being Jewish a race?"); at least one student went beyond the classroom to seek answers to questions (when Jim wanted to call a Jewish "priest"); students showed initiative when asking questions and pondering issues; students expressed themselves well orally (e.g., when disagreeing) and in narrative (e.g., in journals); students struggled to understand and work with ideas multiple historical perspectives; students questioned others' intepretations (both historians and peers' ideas). But, is student thoughtfulness the same as student learning? I wondered if these characteristics I just named counted as learning. My many questions about thoughtfulness, including how to account for it, how to teach it, how to engage students in it, are part of a larger question I wrestled with throughout the dissertation.

My hunch is that others, like the social studies team, will wonder what counts as student learning. Uncertain about what to look for, and how, especially within the changing nature of teaching, learning, and knowing, even the best-intentioned professionals may fall back to long-standing educational traditions in which educational change seems driven by calls for and changes in curriculum, instruction, and policies, with little acknowledgement of the learner as an active knower (Cohen, 1988; Elmore,

1990; Fullan, 1991). Educators thus limit their attention to changing teaching while <u>assuming</u> that students are learning. I return to this point shortly.

ENACTING THE ENACTMENT OF THOUGHTFULNESS

These analyses of how the team's efforts fit within a conception of the enactment of thoughtfulness raise two main questions in my mind. First, what can others learn from the social studies team's work and attempts to enact thoughtfulness? Secondly, how can others do this--or can they--and what might they need to know? I begin this section with a letter to people who might try enacting thoughtfulness in collaboration, and then I mention three important things I learned that others should know about: the complexities of playing three roles in my collaborative work, the importance of focusing on student learning in collaborative work, and the difficulty of representing a cacophony of interpretations.

Enacting Thoughtfulness in Collaboration: Advice to Fellow Collaborators

If I wrote a letter to my collaborating colleagues it might read like this:

Dear Colleague,

Having been part of the social studies team, which is a group of school and university-based educators committed to an inquiry about the teaching and learning of social studies, and having conducted a study and written a <u>short</u> essay about it, I feel ready to share with you some things that might help you establish professional relationships that remain committed to enhancing learning--both your own and students' learning. Of course I simply <u>assume</u>

your work together is aimed at students' learning; for what other reasons do we teach if not to help students learn worthwhile content?

First, let me clearly state that these words are not meant to be a recipe; they won't fit onto a recipe card, no matter what size it is. My understandings grow from working at Hodges PDS, which is a professional development school partnership crafted around the principles articulated in the Holmes Group report entitled <u>Tomorrow's Schools</u>. Hodges PDS includes Hodges High School, a mostly white working-class mid-sized high school that joined with Midstate, a land-grant university located near Hodges. Many experiences I had are colored by these contexts, in ways that I can't even see. While your contexts may differ, and the questions, problems, and conditions you'll face will vary, perhaps sharing my questions, my hunches, and my ah-has! might provoke your thinking.

The social studies team had no models, blueprints, or letters like this to go on. But what we had was a set of connected and very compelling questions <u>about teaching and learning</u>. The heart of these questions had to do with student learning, as we wondered about the effects of placing students in homogenous ability groups across classes--tracking, in the popular vernacular. Though we eventually broadened our inquiry to include attention to wondering about the effects of our changing curriculum and instruction, we still maintained a focus on enhancing student learning.

Our work together encompasses planning instruction, teaching (sometimes with colleagues), and discussing and debating our beliefs and orientations in informal conversations and team meetings outside the classroom. We often spoke about the actual content we taught--real intellectual discussions about social studies!!--and then thought about how we might translate our excitement to our students.

In our actual work, we did many different things--almost like playing different roles in theatre productions! I can talk best about my own roles, of course. I started my work as an observer for the entire Hodges PDS, hired to document what was happening so that we might share what we learned in our professional development school with others. Keeping track of what happens at meetings, what happens in classrooms, what questions you all ask, the hunches you have--this is important to do because it gives you an understanding of what you have accomplished.

While observing, I started concurrently participating in the social studies team because I became interested in the initial questions the two high school teachers asked about grouping kids. For most of the two years, I played these two roles of observer and participant. I watched teaching, usually talking afterwards with the teacher about what I saw. Often I interacted with the students as they worked in small groups, especially when student teachers were working in teammates' classrooms (I also supervised the four student teachers who worked with the team over the two years). During team

meetings and informal conversations, I mostly listened and took notes. I directly participated when the team was making decisions about methodological work (for example, which students to interview) and when the team discussed issues directly related to student learning (for instance, setting up a small group task).

After close to two and a half years, I stopped working with the team in order to engage in other collaborative work and analyze the two years of data I had. The contents of this letter are what I found out through my analyses. Another finding is about the power of stepping back from the work, and what I found out from doing that. For example, I never realized that we missed some important opportunities to support and promote students' learning because we didn't talk enough during team meetings about student learning. I bet you can see now why I conclude that distancing oneself from the actual collaborative work is important especially in order to see things that one might not <u>want</u> to recognize.

Let me say one more thing I've learned about the process of collaborative work: don't be afraid to disagree. But let me add: make sure you set up norms--fancy language for "rules"--about how to talk about things that can be potentially uncomfortable. For folks in the social studies team, we really needed to recognize that talking about each other's teaching or thoughts and beliefs about teaching is something we'd rarely if ever done. And we had lots of different ways of thinking about almost every part of

teaching, probably because we each had lots of different experiences in and out of education. Also, work conditions and even the very nature of teaching differs in colleges and high schools. Many of us used time differently, had different sets of obligations, and different expertise and understandings. These are the reasons why you might see things differently from colleagues, and why you want to talk about them before they separate you.

On the social studies team, we had to figure out how to talk about our differ points of view in order to do our work. So, we said to each other in the first couple months we worked together, that anyone at any time, and especially the person whose teaching we were discussing, could stop the conversation and argue with colleagues' interpretations or tell the other folks to bug off. You know, no one ever did this, but probably knowing that we each could made watching each other teach and talking about it much less threatening.

I've talked with you, so to speak, about the processes of our work, but I've said little about the substance. I need to talk about that, because most of the literature you will see talks little about the content of the work. I can sum up the substance in one sentence: we focused on learning. We made changes in curriculum, instruction, and assessment aimed at enhancing students' understanding and learning. We wondered about ways to group students, experimenting with different versions of and reasons for small groupwork, in order to help them think about social studies ideas. As a team, we talked

about social studies (as I've mentioned) in order to help us think about

helping students talk about social studies.

I suppose the team thought about student learning almost like a

mantra. I'd suggest you also say it over and over, and really think about it.

Arrange a set of questions around student learning, ones that you'll continue

asking yourselves on a regular basis. I believe that these questions, and your

conscious efforts to think about student learning, might help you remain

focused on actual individual students' learning in more direct ways than the

social studies team seemed able to do.

I leave you with three pearls from the wisdom of experience. First,

wonder, wonder, and wonder some more about learning, especially students'

learning, because it's the wondering that will keep the work intellectually

stimulating and give you the strength to continue. Secondly, don't spend

your time seeking models and blueprints. Trust your gut while concurrently

talking a lot with others who are engaged in similar kinds of work in and out

of your particular partnership. And finally, maintain a sense of humor!

Good luck!

The Complexities of Playing Three Roles

In my team work, I played the two roles of observer and participant.

Only after distancing myself from the work could I realize a third role,

researcher, which differed in many ways from observer. Though I examined

my roles in Chapter Two, I add this discussion of the implications of realizing

and playing three sometimes overlapping roles. One particular event illustrates clearly the "nestedness" of my roles, the confusion I sometimes felt, and varied experiences I faced and learned from as a team observer, participant, and researcher. I offer this "production" as the final vignette of this thesis.

Wearing Three Hats: A Play about Roles

On a cold mid-February day in the second year of our work, some team members accepted Bill's invitation to go to his introductory teacher preparation class. Bill asked team members to come because he needed help. Like Gary and Ken, he explained a few days before our visit, I need some folks to interview my students and help me find out what they are understanding. Also, Bill (and the team concurred) thought it would be interesting for preservice teachers to see and hear experienced teachers engaging in conversations about teaching. To only me, Bill added his concerns about reciprocity. My fieldnotes contain this paraphrased record of his comments: We're always in their classrooms, and I think especially Ken wonders when they'll get to help the university change. He's right, and I'm going to try and make these kinds of invitations that will act as tokens until we really make a change. (fieldnotes, 2/20/91)

Bill began class by explaining to his students who we were: These are colleagues of mine from the social studies team. Our purpose is to help each other teach better. We take notes while watching teaching. We interview

students. We talk about teaching, and talk about what we learned. After a short explanation of the assignment (in small groups, read the article "Math Learning in Context" by Magdelene Lampert and discuss the five important ideas that Bill pulled out from the article), Bill and three other students modeled how they would play the Reading Game in their small group[2]. Within fifteen minutes from the start of class, students were working in their small groups.

During small group work, Gary, Teresa, and I were to pull students and interview them on a few short answer questions about what they were learning, how they thought they were learning it, and what about it seemed worthwhile. After about one hour, the whole class reconvened to discuss for 15 minutes aspects of the Lampert article. With 30 minutes remaining in class, students made a circle with their chairs and listened as the social studies team sat in the middle and talked about the teaching we had just seen. We talked about what caught our attention (e.g., Gary wondered about the larger ideas and purposes Bill had set, and what he was thinking about as he guided the whole class discussion), and about how difficult teaching is when the text is complex and filled with important ideas that are hard to understand. And shortly before students left, we opened our meeting and responded to students' questions about what they had just seen.

---

[2]Bill had created this strategy to help students handle texts with multiple ideas. In the game, each student played the role of either oral reader, reactor, questioner, and summarizer.

Postscript

During this class, I played many roles. My fieldnotes record these

observations on the side of my margin:

> Woe! Here I sit in Bill's class, observing him teach. But I'm also
> observing Gary and Teresa, who are observing Bill! And, I'm watching
> Bill introduce an experience to students that emphasizes observation (I
> refer to the ways Bill helped his class become observant of the ideas and
> mathematics Lampert had in her article.) And, I'm watching Bill
> watch his students as they work in groups! And while I observe, I gotta
> participate because Bill just came over and told me to go interview a
> student--"Come on, kid, I need your help," he tells me. I need help,
> too!

After class I jotted down this question: Is, and in what ways,

observation a form of participation.

Commentary

This incident is only one of many in which I had overlapping and

ever-present obligations in my teamwork. In Bill's class, I played the two

roles I played during the two years I worked with the team: observer and

participant. As so often happened, too, the obligations and responsibilities I

had within each role overlapped. And like what happened in Bill's class, I

sometimes had to stop and wonder which role identity I was wearing, how to

step into another identity, and how to keep track of what was going on

around me.

In addition to my main roles as observer and participant, I had

subsidiary responsibilities. For example, I often played confidant to

participants, as I did in this incident when Bill confided in me about his

reason for inviting team members to come to his class. I played teacher, illustrated in this incident when I worked with small groups of students in Bill's class. I also played that role with small groups of students in Hodges classrooms. In this incident, I also played teacher educator. Bill was teaching a course I had taught many times, and using material I had also struggled to teach. The activity he had students doing was something I had never tried. I watched to see how Bill and students made sense of it, and wondered about ways I might use it in my work with high school students and future preservice teachers. Another role I played was recorder, illuminated in this instance when Ken asked me the next day what we had done in Bill's class.

The Researcher Role

Only when I stepped back from the work, ending my observations and participation in fall, 1991, did I even realize that I played three roles. While engaged in the work, I considered my observer and researcher roles to be the same. I now see them as different. My observations added to my participation; observations provided the common grounds for conversations and experimentation around teaching and learning in which I participated. My researcher role differed from the observer role because as researcher I could ask questions and wonder about ideas that <u>didn't have immediate consequences for conversation and actions on the team</u>. Removed from the active part of the work, in my researcher role I had many important insights. For instance, as I discuss at the end of Chapter Five, only after being away

from the team for about six months, doing some analysis, and then revisiting these analyses five months later did I see that changes in students' roles presented problems for the team. Furthermore, team conversations rarely examined these changing roles and individual students' learning. The ways in which status and gender dynamics influenced our collaboration and its consequences also became more vivid to me as a I divorced myself from the intensity of the relations. Realizing problematic interactions with people one cares about is painful; one doesn't want to face the conflict that these actions may raise. Yet, realizing them is important to sustaining collaborative efforts; in the future I can be aware of the possibilities of these kinds of dynamics and talk about them while engaged in the work.

Is this Reseach?

Did I do reseach? Many might ask this question. To me, this dissertation is research because it represents a systematic ongoing exploration, explanation, and interpretation of phenomena. The work is more than just description, and more than interpretation from an outsider who reflects only the meanings that insiders constructed. Rather, it includes a plethora of perspectives from persons who created their work realities (my teammates), with additional perspectives and interpretations from my "insider" position as well as my distanced "researcher" stance. The dissertation frames these multiple perspectives in ways others can understand and challenge, while also having the potential to extend the conversation of my teammates.

I suggest that this kind of research, in which I played the observer, participant, and researcher, is a new kind of inquiry which is integral to collaborative work. Rather than being cast in traditional ways, the researcher in collaborative work forges new intersections among the three roles. She provides meaningful feedback to school-based personnel who cannot routinely engage in the regularity and intensity of questioning, reading, and discussion due to the immediacy and presentism of work demands. She provides the kind of knowledge generation that universities seek to construct and contribute. But, this time, the essence of the knowledge is about practice-- the practices of school and university-based educators and learners. The common ground between university and school-based people, analyzed and constructed by the collaborative researcher, is teaching and learning practices.

This new form of collaborative research that focuses on practices can contribute to our understandings in numerous ways. First, we can establish common goals and work to create means for approaching them. We can gain from systematic ongoing explorations of university-based educators' teaching (e.g., my descriptions and analyses of Bill's and Sally's teacher preparation work). Making these explorations more common than they are now will help university participants gain what Erickson (1986) has called "co-membership," in which common sets of understandings emerge from similar experiences. Finally, and probably most importantly, we can begin to uncover and challenge political dynamics between universities and schools

that often mirror larger societal problems (e.g., differentiated treatment based on gender). If no one sees them, and raises them to our collective consciousnesses, we will continue to reproduce relationships which we all question (or, at least, should).

While I obviously endorse the worth of persons who serve the multiple roles of observer, participant, and researcher, I also add a cautionary note about the processes of collaborative work. Persons outside the collaborative effort--people not engaged in the actual work--seem important to talk with from time to time because they may raise questions, challenges, and reactions. These "outsiders" need not be outside the whole enterprise. In the case of the social studies team, they could have been local outsiders, e.g., people who worked at Hodges PDS, but who were not in tune with the intricacies of the team's inquiry. Outsiders can challenge and raise new issues. Additionally, they can point out the contentious nature of the work content and/or processes when it may not be readily apparent[3].

In summary, as I look at the roles I played and those of my colleagues and potential outsiders, I ask one question: How can we gather information

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[3]As I have pointed out earlier in this chapter, the contentious nature of the content of the social sciences contributed in many unexplainable ways to the team's deliberations. Would the teaching of negative numbers enable the kinds of conversations the team had, Helen Featherstone asked me one day (personal communication, November, 1992). I remain uncertain about the answer, except to suggest that questions charged with political, moral, and social energy are part of the essence of the social sciences in different ways than they are integral to mathematics.

that can enable us to enact thoughtfulness in collaboration while recognizing needed understandings and possible changes in our roles, status and gender dynamics, and cultural beliefs and norms? Only when we can recognize these aspects of collaborative work--and others that we haven't yet even imagined-- and openly discuss them with each other will we truly be collaborative.

The Importance of Focusing on Student Learning

Throughout this dissertation I've focused on the importance of exploring student learning along with reflecting upon professionals' own learning. I believe that any inquiry about teaching and learning must place its central focus on student learning because students' learning lies at the nexus of professional endeavors in education. Even things that seem quite remote from student learning, e.g., governance issues, articulation between policy and practice at different levels, directly connect to learning given that all that we do in schools is aimed at helping students learn worthwhile material. The raison d'etre of teaching is learning, and therefore I believe that the raison d'etre of collaborative work among teachers must be focused on learning.

The Difficulty of Representing a Cacophony of Interpretations

One thought remains unmentioned in these pages, mostly because I did not know where to include it. It is a thought about my teammates, who will most certainly read my musings in these dissertation pages. What will they say about the interpretations I have made? In what ways will their

reactions, to my perspectives, alter my ideas and theirs? In what ways will the interpretations made throughout this thesis affect the future work of the team, and affect me as I enter into relations with other school and university-based educators?

The interpretations we each make now and in the past are part of the story of this team's existence, broadening its history due to new understandings derived from stepping back and drawing novel conclusions. As my colleagues read this, and we talk about it, our sense of the team's meanings and history will change. Can a team's history and story start and stop, I wonder. And, in what ways is it ongoing?

I also struggle with the very nature of writing this opus, isolated from my teammates, but in many ways touched by them. I have their words, their beliefs, and their actions captured in fieldnotes, interviews, reports, audio and video tapes, and transcriptions. Yet it feels odd to be writing about collaborative work alone. Is this aloneness necessary, I wonder, to gain distance and new and different perspectives? Certainly others have lodged a similar debate within themselves[4]. I know the power of distance and playing different roles, as I have mentioned. But, doing collaborative work and then retreating to "do research" feels very traditional and out of kilter with the aim and rhythm of doing collaborative work.

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[4]See Miles Horton and Alan Peskin as two well-articulated examples.

As I close this dissertation, the words of the well-known and indeed "greatest philosopher of the province and therefore of the world," Doctor Pangloss, come to mind. In Voltaire's tales of Candide, we meet the young Candide and follow his life adventures as he is expelled from the Baron's castle, searches for his love, finds his way into the Inquisition, wanders around America, and commits murder. After some years, Candide finally finds himself back in the company of his idol, Doctor Pangloss. The good philosopher suggests to Candide that while he may not understand how and why, his adventures all connect and have meaning because "all events are linked up in this best of all possible worlds." Like Candide's adventures, in ways that I haven't even yet come to imagine, the experiences chronicled in these pages link together my unending questions and wonderings about observing, participating in, and researching teachers' collaborative work.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

American History, American History, and
Honors American History.

The following will be studied and analyzed:

- materials: text, A-V, support materials
- lecture: teachers choice of vocabulary
- discussion
- desk/seat work
- projects and assignments
- classroom strategies i.e. cooperative
  learning etc.
- criteria for student course selection

3. Study depth of information across the US
   History curriculum
- topics
- concepts
- detail/data
- quantity of work/information
- Bloom's Taxonomy
-
-

4. Study of rational for details of method and
curriculum.
- Is the rationale sound? As compared to what:
  district philosophy, goals, and objectives?
- Is rationale consistent with actual practice
- What is assessment methodology?
- Do the levels of American History create an
  inequitable situation?
- Is the conceptual framework common to the
  three levels?
-

5. Review of the literature.
-   What does the current research say about
homogeneous/heterogeneous grouping?
-   How does the current research relate to the
realities of Holt High School?
-
-

RESOURCES NEEDED:

1. MSU support: Research specialist to help with
methodology.

2. Clerical help to collect student data.

3. Time to organize, structure, and analyze data.

4.

5.

Setting: Three Levels Of American History

   Fundamental Skills level for those students that are
I.E.P.C. students and others that have demonstrated a low
level of success in academics because of less than grade
level skills, i.e. reading and writing.

   American History or General Education level assumes that
the skill level for the students enrolled is commensurate
with the materials and expectations of the course as it is
currently being taught.

   Advanced Placement/Honors American History for those
students who have demonstrated a high degree of academic
achievement and wish to participate in a course in which the
level is higher in terms of expectations and materials. The
general level is a first year college/university one.

OBSERVATION OF THE AMERICAN HISTORY CLASSES

Observer:

Period

Page:

Time	Teacher talk and actions	Student talk and actions	Comments

APPENDIX B

TEAM INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX B

TEAM INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

This interview is in two parts. Part I will be today; part 2 we will continue after break. Since we know each other, talking about some of the things in this interview may seem unnecessary. So let's pretend I am a journalist sent from a newspaper to do a feature story about the social studies team.

I. WHAT IS THIS?
1. I've heard of the social studies team at Hodges High School. Can you tell me what it is?

In a few sentences, can you summarize what the social studies team is? [what does the team do?]

      a. What would I see if I watched the team? WHY?

      b. What would people be doing? WHY?

      c. What would <u>you</u> be doing? WHY?

2. Who is on the team?
      a. How did those people come to be on the team?

      b. Why do you suppose those persons are on the team?

      c. What do those persons do on the team?

3. When do you do the work? WHY?

4. Where does the team work? WHY?

5. How does the team work?

6. How does the team decide what is going to happen in the social studies team?

      a. What input to the team do you personally have?

      b. Is there a leader?

            1. What does s/he do?
            2. In what ways is that the same and/or different from

what others in the team do?

   3. What about what that person does makes him/her a leader? In your view, WHY is s/he the leader?

   4. How did that person(s) come to be the leader?

7. What strikes you most about the social studies team? What seems most important for me to know about the team?

8. What, if anything, should I know about the social studies team if I wanted to join it?

   a. Could I join it? What would I have to do?

II. WHAT DOES THE TEAM DO?
A. Can you say what the team does in working together?

[for each thing listed, ask]

1. What would I see if I watched _____?

2. How does _____ begin? and then? and finally?

3. Does the team have any particular expectations of what will happen? WHY? Does that seem important? What about that seems important? Is there anything especially important I should know about _____? WHY?

4. Do you personally have any particular expectations of what will happen with _____? WHY?

B. Do any particular events stand out to you from about what the team does? WHY?

1. What about this event stands out?

2. How did it happen? WHY?

III. CONTENT OF TEAM WORK
A. Over time when the team has met, what topics has it discussed?

   1. Why those topics?

2. What about that topic seemed important to discuss?

    a. Did you agree that it was important to discuss? WHY? or WHY NOT?

B. Has the team discussed problems?

    1. What kinds of "problems?"

        a. Did you agree that it was important to discuss? WHY? or WHY NOT?

C. What topics and issues have you personally raised during the team's work?

    1. Why did you raise that topic?

IV. GOALS

A. Does the team have goals for what it does? What is the team wanting to accomplish?

    1. What are the goals? [for each, describe and ask]

        a. How did this come to be one of the team's goals?

    2. What goals do you have for your involvement with the team?

V. DESCRIBE A MEETING

Please describe a meeting for me. [Try and get the time of year.]

A. What would I see?

    WHY?

B. What would I hear people talking about? WHY?

C. Why did the team discuss this topic?

    1. Did someone initiate the topic?

D. Is this meeting you described typical?

    1. What about it strikes you as typical?
    [get characteristics]

2. Is there such a thing as a typical meeting?

3. Why did you choose the particular meeting you did?

VII. AGREEMENTS
A. Does the team always agree on the direction the team is going? WHY or WHY NOT?

1. Do you always agree? WHY?

2. If not, what do you do?

B. Does the team always agree on substance of the work the team does?

1. Do you always agree? WHY?

2. If not, what do you do?

C. Does the team always agree on the goals the team has set?

1. Do you always agree? WHY?

2. If not, what do you do?

LEARNING

1. What benefits do you get, and what worth, from being a part of the social studies team?

2. Since you have been working with the social studies team, have you changed?

>In what ways, if at all, have you felt you have changed since you began working with the social studies team?

PROBES

3. Since you have been working with the social studies team, have you changed anything about your teaching?

>If so, what? WHY?

>To what do you attribute the changes?

In what ways, and what kinds of change have you noted in your fellow members of the team?

WHY?

To what do you attribute those changes?

4. Since you have been working with the social studies team, have you changed anything about the way you view your job as a teacher?

If so, what?

WHY?

To what do you attribute those changes?

In what ways, and what kinds of change have you noted in your <u>fellow members of the team</u>?

WHY?

To what do you attribute those changes?

5. Since working with the team, have you changed the way you view the world outside your professional work?
[e.g., professional relationships]

6. Would you recommend to others that they should join the team? WHY? or WHY NOT?

APPENDIX C

TEAM PLANNING NOTES

"National Security"

Era

| | Sp U. | Japan-Russia | WW I | Sp Chi Ethi | WW II Korea | S.E. sia | Iaq? |

A Century of Wars
Marches to Folly

Theme: Imperialism,
colonialism, neo-colonialism
Pres and Congress

The rise of the global
economy

Theme

1900 ———————————— 1990

Reform and reaction

DOMESTIC

NOTIONS: "less is more," "thematic," "post-holing," "the tie to literature/;literacy,"

THEME:
Runs through time
has a strong image, e.g., "Federalism," but not "political"
has interpretations, e.g., pluralistic distribution of power is recognized in constitutions
interpretation has facets, e.g., political, intellectual, economic, social

ERA:
cross-section of a time; cuts across themes
has a strong image, e.g., professionals go to political war with machine bosses
has an interpretation, "Progressive era, middle class meritocrats try to put government above politics
interpretations have facets, e.g., intellectual, social, political, economic,

FOREIGN

Era				
Theme: A Century of Wars	Japan-Russia	WW I	Spain China Ethiopia	WW II — S.E. Asia — Korea ... Ira
Theme: The long, slow death of colonialism				
Theme: The rise of the global economy				
Theme				
	... 1900			1990

DOMESTIC

NOTIONS: "less is more," "thematic," "post-holing," "the tie to literature/;literacy."

THEME:
Runs through time
has a strong image, e.g., "Federalism," but not "political"
has interpretations, e.g., pluralistic distribution of power is recognized in constitutions
interpretation has facets, e.g., political, intellectual, economic, social

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cross-section of a time; cuts across themes
has a strong image, e.g., professionals go to political war with machine bosses
has an interpretation, "Progressive era, middle class meritocrats try to put government above politics
interpretations have facets, e.g., intellectual, social, political, economic.   .

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

"CONFLICTS AND WAR" UNIT COVER SHEET

W A R ! ! ! .

— WHY ? (CAUSES)

— Effects ?

— Connections ? { -To each other -To the middle East

— Change ?

Text: CHAP. 23, 28, 29

American History   Kessler

mtg. w/uct, pt, 778
1/23/91

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