

### Process-Product Perspective

	Research Questions	Design	Data Collection	Data Analysis
<p><b>Amidon, E., &amp; Flanders, N.</b> (1967). Interaction analysis as a feedback system. In E. Amidon &amp; J. Hough (Eds.), <u>Interaction analysis: Theory, research, and application</u> (pp. 121-140). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.</p>	<p>“How do students in this classroom become involved in classroom interaction?”</p>	<p>The Flanders classification system is based on the assumption that teachers’ behavioral acts influence student behavior. Therefore, the classroom observer monitors teacher verbal behavior to see how much freedom the teacher grants to the student within an interaction. More direct acts minimize the freedom of the student to respond. More indirect acts maximize that freedom.</p>	<p>Every three minutes the observer writes down the category number of the teacher-pupil interaction just observed. These numbers are based upon the observer’s judgment of the teacher statements as either direct (lecturing, giving directions, and criticizing or justifying authority), or as indirect (accepting feeling, praising or encouraging, accepting ideas, and asking questions).</p>	<p>The sequence of numbers is entered into a ten-row by ten-column table, or matrix. Tabulations are made in the matrix to develop a general description of classroom interaction in terms of percentages as well as to focus on particular areas of the matrix to note interactional emphasis, such as the kinds of teacher statements that tend to stimulate student talk.</p>
<p><b>King, A. &amp; Rosenshine, B.</b> (1993). Effects of guided cooperative questioning on children's knowledge construction. <u>Journal of Experimental Education</u>, 61(2), 127-148.</p>	<p>What is the relative effectiveness of three cooperative questioning-answering strategies on children's ability to understand material presented in teacher-led classroom lessons?</p>	<p>Thirty-four fifth graders in three conditions worked in pairs to learn science material presented in classroom lessons. In two conditions students were trained to ask different types of questions. In one condition the students self determined their own questions. Specially constructed pre and post</p>	<p>After the first lesson of a science unit on tide pools, a pre-comprehension test was administered to students. Then two of the student groups were trained by the teacher in questioning strategies. After the next two lessons, students met in their groups to discuss lesson material using the</p>	<p>Test scores were compared. Discussions were transcribed and coded for types and contents of questions and explanations. Knowledge maps were rated on a 1-5 scale for accuracy, completeness, and comprehension by comparing to teacher's</p>

		knowledge tests were administered to assess impact.	strategies. Discussions after the fifth and sixth lessons were tape recorded, and a post test was given. A retention test was given six days after the last lesson. Each student constructed a knowledge map of tide pools.	model concept map.
<b>Turner, J., Midgely, C., Meyer, D., Gheen, M., Anderman, E., Kang, Y, &amp; Patrick, H.</b> (2002). The Classroom environment and students' reports of avoidance strategies in mathematics. <u>Journal of Educational Psychology</u> , <u>94</u> (1), 88-106.	How do students' perceptions of classroom goal structure relate to their reports of the use of avoidance strategies?  How does teachers' use of instructional discourse relate to students' perceptions of the classroom goal structure and to their reports of the use of avoidance strategies?	Part of a larger longitudinal study, it took a multi-method approach to examine classroom contexts related to three avoidance strategies: withdrawing effort, resisting novelty, and avoiding seeking academic help. Nine sixth grade classrooms in nine schools were observed during the same mathematics instruction unit.	Students were surveyed using Likert-type scales that measured avoidance.  Audiotape transcriptions of mathematics instruction and observation notes were combined into descriptive documents.	Factor analysis was performed on the surveys. Only whole-class discussion transcripts were analyzed. A priori categories were used to code discourse into three categories and two subcategories. A third coding for motivational support or nonsupport was performed. Correlations among all variables were achieved through hierarchical linear modeling. Descriptive illustrations of the statistical findings regarding discourse patterns are presented.

### Cognitive Perspective

Study	Research Questions	Design	Data Collection	Data Analysis
<p><b>Eisenhart, M., Borko, H., Underhill, R.G., Brown, C.A., Jones, D., &amp; Agard, P.</b> (1993). Conceptual knowledge falls through the cracks: Complexities of learning to teach mathematics for understanding. <u>Journal for Research in Mathematics Education</u>, 24, 8-40.</p> <p><b>Borko, H., Eisenhart, M., Brown, C.A., Underhill, R.G., Jones, D. &amp; Agard, P.C.</b> (1992). Learning to teach hard mathematics: Do novice teachers and their instructors give up too easily? <u>Journal for Research in Mathematics Education</u>, 23, 194-222.</p>	<p>1. What are novice teachers' emergent knowledge, beliefs, thinking, and actions related to the teaching of mathematics; what are the interdependence and mutual influence of these components on teaching and learning to teach; and, what is the impact of teacher education experiences on the process of learning to teach?</p> <p>1a. Focused study: What occurred during an unsuccessful fractions lesson and how is that teaching related to the teachers' own system of knowledge and beliefs about division of fractions and to the knowledge taught in her mathematics methods course?</p>	<p>1. The project studied eight seniors preparing to become middle school mathematics teachers in four student teaching placements and their mathematics methods course.</p> <p>1a. A single case study of one novice teacher's unsuccessful math lesson examines what she thinks about mathematical procedural and conceptual knowledge and her own knowledge of it; examines what she does with that knowledge in her classroom teaching; and, compares those facets to the preparation she received in her math methods course.</p>	<p>1. Semistructured interviews and field notes from audiotapes and observation notes are collected in school and methods classrooms, with additional questionnaires and documents.</p> <p>1a. Data related to procedural and conceptual knowledge was selected for analysis from interviews of novice and methods teacher and from observations of their classrooms.</p>	<p>1. Initial review and coding of data for patterns related to teaching for procedural and conceptual knowledge. Second stage thematic analysis surfaced a pattern of tensions and competing pressures.</p> <p>1a. Analysis focused on knowledge about procedural and conceptual mathematics knowledge and the tensions and competing pressures among them.</p>
<p><b>Carpenter, T. P. &amp;</b></p>	<p>Baseline study: What are</p>	<p>Over four years, a series of</p>	<p>(1) Teachers were given</p>	<p>(1) Teachers' knowledge</p>

<p><b>Fennema, E. (1992).</b> Cognitively guided instruction: Building on the knowledge of students and teachers. <u>International Journal of Educational Research</u>, 17(5), 457-470.</p>	<p>teachers' knowledge and beliefs about their students' thinking and problem-solving; and, how are they related to students' achievement? Experimental and case studies: How does research-based knowledge about their students' thinking affect teachers' instruction and students' achievement?</p>	<p>three integrated studies with 40 teachers focused on the development of addition and subtraction concepts: (1) Two correlational baseline studies, (2) an experimental intervention study (20 received no treatment &amp; 20 received 2-hour workshop) in which instruction was observed for four one-week periods, and (3/4) follow up case studies of six teachers over two years including 2 hours/week for 30 weeks of classroom observation. A focused study was conducted of one teacher and nine of her students.</p>	<p>questionnaires and interviewed.</p> <p>(2) Instruction was observed using two time sampling coding systems, one focused on the teacher, the other on the students. Scaled questionnaires collected teachers' predictions and beliefs about student learning. Pre and post tests scores of student achievement were obtained. Post test student interviews were conducted.</p> <p>(3) Notes were taken from monthly six teacher group discussions, in addition to notes and instruments from classroom observations. (4) Teachers and students were formally and informally interviewed and assessed for knowledge.</p>	<p>of and beliefs about their students' addition and subtraction knowledge was correlated with students' computational test achievement.</p> <p>(2) Means, standard deviations, &amp; t tests were computed for categories of teacher and student observation, knowledge, beliefs, and achievement for treatment and control.</p> <p>(3/4) Data was extracted for each teacher from four years of collection and integrated into broad categories for developmental analysis.</p>
<p><b>Cobb, P., Stephan, M., McClain, K., &amp; Gravemeijer, K. (2001).</b> Participating in classroom mathematical practices.</p>	<p>What is the collective mathematical development of the classroom community over periods of time covered by</p>	<p>The project comprises a 12-year instructional design experiment-research cycle. Each teaching experiment-study lasts up to a year,</p>	<p>Video and audio recording of classroom activity, research discussions, and participant interviews were conducted.</p>	<p>A microanalysis was undertaken of classroom culture and individual student's reasoning. An interpretive framework</p>

<p><u>The Journal of the Learning Sciences</u>, 10 (1), 113-163.</p>	<p>instructional activity?          What is the developing mathematical reasoning of individual students as they participate in the practices of the classroom community?          What effects do analyses have on instructional design and on student reasoning?</p> <p>3a. Sample study:          How do classroom sociomathematical practices and students' related mathematical reasoning about measurement emerge?          How does subsequent treatment effect practices and reasoning?</p>	<p>during which are developed sequences of instructional activities to support learning.</p> <p>3a. The teacher is a member of the research team that studied two experimental seven-week instructional sequences on measurement in a 16 student first grade classroom. Researchers focused on two students, and observed classroom practices and student performances as they intervened in concept of measurement learning processes.</p>	<p>Observational field notes and student work products were collected.</p> <p>3a. In the classroom, videotapes were recorded with two cameras. Also collected were student work, three sets of field notes, student interview videotapes, and audio recordings of weekly research team meetings.</p>	<p>was used to analyze classroom events.</p> <p>3a. Analysis was performed on selected chronological themed episodes of mathematical activity and discourse that emerge as critical to learning about measurement. Analysts looked for regularities and patterns in the ways teachers and students act and interact. They were concerned with meaning and context.</p>
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### Sociocognitive, Situated Cognition, and Activity Theory Perspectives

Study	Research Question	Design	Data Collection	Data Analysis
<p><b>Wells, G., &amp; Chang-Wells, G. L. (1992).</b>  <u>Constructing knowledge together</u>. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.</p>	<p>How can researchers encourage teachers to start from their own particular circumstances in an exploration of what they and their students "might"</p>	<p>Studied 4 school sites in Toronto. In each, the majority of the children came from homes in which a language other than English was dominant.</p>	<p>Researchers videotaped each child's activities and kept a continuous running log of the activity entered directly into a lap-top computer.</p>	<p>Researchers selected episodes for transcription and subsequent discursive analysis.</p> <p>They constructed</p>

	be able to achieve in a particular situation? By formulating their own alternatives, trying them out in practice through interaction with their students, and selecting those that they judge to be successful, can teachers act as agents in effecting change, even when the overall goals are prescribed by local or national policymakers?	The researchers worked with four ethnolinguistic groups: Chinese, Greek, Portuguese, and English and selected six children in each of three grades levels (K, 2, and 4). From 1985-1988, they observed each child three times during the course of each school year, with the observation lasting a complete session, for a total of 18 visits each year.	Their interviews and conversations with the children were recorded via a radio microphone. They interviewed the children's parents and teachers, and obtained results of tests administered in November and June.	comparisons between the four groups, selected individual students from each of the ethnolinguistic minority groups, and constructed case studies.
<b>2. Kumpulainen, K., &amp; Wray, D. (2002).</b> The nature of peer interaction during collaborative writing with word processors. <i>Classroom interaction and social learning.</i> (pp.57-75) New York: Falmer.	What is the nature of students' oral language interactions during the process of collaborative writing with a computer? For what purposes do students use oral language when they collaborate? How do these interactions reflect their writing and learning processes?	Two linked studies were conducted of 30 pairs of students from two schools. The pairs freely collaborated in writing a number of texts using a word processor.	Oral interactions at the computer were audio taped for 30 minutes and transcribed verbatim. Informal situated interviews and field notes were taken.	The analysts used Fourlas's Functional Analysis of Children's Classroom Talk (FACCT) system to identify functions of children's interactions. The functions were coded into on-task and off-task categories. Frequencies and distributions of functions were calculated.
<b>Palincsar, A. S., Collins, K.M., Marano, N. L., &amp; Magnusson, S. J. (2000).</b> Investigating the engagement and learning of students with learning disabilities in guided	What are the opportunities and challenges that GISML instruction presents students with special needs? How do students with special needs respond to	This was a three-year study of 4 <sup>th</sup> and 5 <sup>th</sup> grade classrooms representing 14 schools in six districts (rural, suburban, and urban) during science instruction. An interview	The collected data consisted of videotapes, focused observation documented by participant observers field notes, debriefings with the teacher following	Data was collected on 5 students. Working from multiple data sources (observable, interview, and artifact data), researchers identified confirming and disconfirming evidence for

<p>inquiry science teaching. <u>Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools</u>, 31, 240-251.</p>	<p>these opportunities and challenges? What hypothesis emerges from the data that will usefully guide subsequent research investigating the means of mediating these students' participation in GISML for the purpose of enhancing their engagement and learning?</p> <p>Who might collaborate in the service of included students and toward what ends in the context of conducting ambitious instruction in the general education setting?</p>	<p>with 5 teachers informed the study.</p> <p>A researcher followed the teacher during small group activities. If the researcher noted a child was totally disengaged in an activity for 5 minutes, the researcher would intervene for the purpose of exploring procedures for reengaging the student, starting with low-level intervention and moving to more supportive, only to the level necessary to reengage the child.</p> <p>The authors focus on one fourth-grader as he engaged in a program of study investigating why objects float and sink.</p>	<p>instruction, structured interviews with the identified children, student artifacts (student notebooks and posters), three formal assessment of each child (a standardized reading assessment measuring vocabulary knowledge and comprehension, a pre-and post-assessment of the students' conceptual understandings of the program of study, and a measure that assessed children's attitudes toward and beliefs concerning the nature of science and scientific problem solving.</p>	<p>each case. Based upon that evidence, they generated claims that captured both the activity of the child and the context in which this activity was unfolding. Each claim was supported by evidence derived from the data. For example, the claim that the participation of the identified students was influenced by the nature and amount of appropriate assistance or intervention received was supported by field notes/close observation, videotapes, and some trial intervention with Ardis (one of the five focal students).The claims then informed the design of the individual case studies.</p>
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### Ethnographic Perspective

Study	Research Questions	Design	Data Collection	Data Analysis
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<p><b>Tapia, J.</b> (1998). The schooling of Puerto Ricans: Philadelphia's most impoverished community. <u>Anthropology and Education Quarterly</u>, 29(3), 297-323.</p>	<p>The researcher points out the limitations of macrolevel research that has explored the relationship between a group's socioeconomic status and its academic achievement. He explains the need for examining "intragroup differences" (p. 297), and asks the question, what are the "specific linkages between economic conditions and educational outcomes" (p. 297). More specifically, he considers the household activities of Puerto Rican families in Philadelphia to measure their effect on "home-school connections and students' academic performance" (p. 299).</p>	<p>The researcher conducted his study over the course of three years. The first year consisted of gathering general information and statistics from community organizations while the second and third years involved classroom observations and data collection from three elementary schools and two high schools. The researcher chose five Puerto Rican families to study up close their household activities and schooling practices.</p>	<p>Two Puerto Rican teachers aided the researcher with the data collection. He developed successful relationships with the five families, which he attributes to the assistance of the two teachers as well as his own Latino background and his fluency in Spanish and English. He collected data on household members' labor and migratory histories, and on their economic, social/recreational, ceremonial, and schooling activities. In addition to field notes and artifact collection, he used a questionnaire and interviews, using open-ended questions and audiotapes.</p>	<p>The researcher analyzed the data to identify the strategies the household members use to survive periods of economic or familial instability. By examining all five case studies, the researcher saw that household stability, although influenced by economic stability, "is the most important factor influencing poor students' academic performance" (p. 317). At the same time, the case studies illustrate that poverty affects households and individual members of the households differently.</p>
<p><b>Moll, L., Amanti, C., Neff, D., &amp; Gonzales, N.</b> (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. <u>Theory into Practice</u>, 31(1), 132-141.</p>	<p>How can teachers "develop innovations in teaching that draw upon the knowledge and skills found in local households?" (132)</p> <p>The information gleaned from the data collection</p>	<p>Researchers examined approximately 100 households and related classroom practices within working class, Mexican communities in Tucson, AZ.</p>	<p>Researchers conducted ethnographic observations, open-ended interviews, case studies, and life histories.</p>	<p>Researchers sought to understand the history of the border region between the U.S. and Mexico where these communities were located and then applied this understanding to their findings.</p>



	was meant to help teachers develop “ethnographically informed classroom practices” (132).			<p>The researchers analyzed how these students’ learn at home and compared this to their learning at school.</p> <p>Researchers relayed their findings to teachers in after-school settings.</p> <p>They concluded that these after-school programs were not as effective as involving the teachers as researchers of their own classroom practices.</p>
<p><b>McDermott, R.</b> (1993). The acquisition of a child by a learning disability. In S. Chaiklin &amp; J. Lave (Eds.), <u>Understanding practice: Perspectives on activity and context</u> (pp. 269-305). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.</p>	<p>Do activities like “attending, remembering, problem solving, and the like, although often invoked in formal institutional descriptions of [LD] children, in fact [have] few referents in their daily lives?” (270)</p>	<p>Researchers sought to tell the “learning biographies” of children diagnosed as learning disabled.</p>	<p>They gathered videotapes of one classroom of 8 and 9 year olds over a 2 year period (1976-78) in an attempt “to locate the children ‘thinking’ aloud in the hope [of identifying] naturally occurring examples of some mental activities that seemed so well defined in experimental settings” (p. 270).</p>	<p>The researcher observed and videotaped one particular student, Adam, in four different settings: Everyday Life, Cooking Class, Classroom Lessons, and Testing Sessions.</p> <p>The researchers looked less at Adam’s display of LD traits and focused more on “the contexts for the interactional display and management of the traits” (273-74).</p> <p>Researchers described how and why different settings seemed to call forth</p>

				different behaviors from Adam.
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### Sociolinguistics and Discourse Analysis Perspectives

Study	Research questions	Design	Data Collection	Data Analysis
<p>1. <b>Bloome, D., &amp; Egan-Robertson, A. (1993).</b> The social construction of intertextuality in classroom reading and writing lessons. <u>Reading Research Quarterly</u>, 28(4), 305-333.</p>	<p>How does viewing intertextuality as a social construction enhance our understanding of reading and writing events (especially as they occur in classrooms)?</p> <p>How do teachers come to define what it means to be a reader, and how do those definitions shape children's identities of themselves as readers?</p>	<p>The two focused on the social interactions of three students during a 15-minute teacher-led discussion about "The Turtle and the Rabbit" in a first grade classroom.</p>	<p>The researchers acted as participant-observers in the classroom several mornings a week for two months. This event was theoretically selected from several weeks of daily videotapes.</p>	<p>Step 1: The videotape was transcribed to show student to student and teacher to class interaction. Stick figure drawings were used to indicate shifts in postural configuration, eye gaze, and arm movements.</p> <p>Step 2: The social construction of intertextuality was analyzed through 5 components: individual message units; interactional units; the proposal, recognition, and acknowledgment of intertextuality; social consequence(s) of intertextuality; uses and references to written language.</p>
<p><b>Mehan, H. (1993).</b> Beneath the skin and between the ears: A case study in the politics of representation. In S. Chaiklin &amp; J. Lave (Eds.),</p>	<p>In looking at the statistical distribution of special education referrals and placement, what practices produce this array, these careers, these</p>	<p>Mehan and associates followed the special education process mandated by PL 94-142 of 141 students during the 1978-1979 school year in</p>	<p>Researchers observed in classrooms, teachers' lounges, testing rooms, and committee meetings; interviewed educators and parents; reviewed</p>	<p>Information available from the school was compared with information that emerged through observation, videotapes, informal and formal discussions.</p>

<p><u>Understanding practice: Perspectives on activity and context</u> (pp. 241-268). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.</p>	<p>identities?</p>	<p>a midsize school district (2700 pupils) in southern California. They focused specifically on the case of a 9 year-old boy, “Shane,” to develop an ethnographically grounded study of the modes of representation in everyday discourse.</p>	<p>students’ records; videotaped events they ethnographically deemed crucial in the construction of students’ identities.</p>	<p>Classroom, eligibility and placement meeting discourse was transcribed and examined along with texts of student files, test results, and reports of meetings, as behavioral records of educators’ sorting and classifying practices.</p>
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<p><b>Castanheira, M., Crawford, T., Dixon, C., &amp; Green, J. (2001).</b>          Interactional ethnography: An approach to studying the social construction of literate practices.  <u>Linguistics and Education</u>, 11(4), 353-400.</p>	<p>How can we understand the ways in which literate practices are shaped, and in turn shape, the everyday events of classroom life, and thus, the opportunities that the focal student, Aaron, and his peers had for learning?</p>	<p>The researchers relied on data provided by an Australian research team who focused on Aaron, a Year 11 student in Australia. The authors followed Aaron through an entire day, videotaping him in each of his five classes: Food Technology, General English, Hospitality, Industry Studies Metal, and Mathematics. Castanheira, Crawford, Dixon, and Green requested and received two additional days of data in order to triangulate patterns observed and to insure representativeness of the day analyzed.</p>	<p>Collected data were two videotapes (226 minutes), written artifacts (a quiz, completed letter, Aaron’s responses to a math worksheet, and a teacher handout with student highlights), printed artifacts (workbook, worksheet, excerpts from a manual and a syllabus, teacher handout, and a recipe), a project description (grant submission), and contextual information (system, school, strands, subjects, student, and editing notes).</p>	<p>Analysis of literate demands were presented in two parts: 1<sup>st</sup> – By creating a series of transcripts, data tables, and domain analysis, the researchers explored what was happening in each class by tracing who Aaron interacted with, about what, in what ways, for what purposes, when and where, and with what outcomes. They developed three levels of structuration maps: a time-stamped description of the chain of activity, an event map of the episodic nature of members’ activity, and comparative timelines of events and phases of activity. 2<sup>nd</sup>-They contrasted Aaron’s perspective on events with that of the teacher, others, and the texts (data and representations).</p>
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**Critical Perspective**

Study	Research Questions	Design	Data Collection	Data Analysis
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<p><b>Rampton, B.</b> (1996). Youth, race, and resistance: A sociolinguistic perspective. <u>Linguistics and Education</u>, 8(2), 159-173.</p>	<p>“This article focuses on interethnic interactions in which adolescents of Asian descent put on strong Indian English accents when addressing Anglo teachers and adults,” and asks, to what extent “do these code switchings constitute acts of resistance within a racist society” (p. 159).</p>	<p>The researcher conducted two years of fieldwork in one neighborhood in the South Midlands of England.</p> <p>The researcher relied on twenty-three 11-13 year old informants of Afro-Caribbean, Anglo, Indian, and Pakistani descent in 1984, and sixty-four 14-16 year olds in 1987.</p>	<p>The researcher conducted radio-microphone recordings, interviews, participant observation, and retrospective participant commentaries.</p>	<p>Using interpretive sociolinguistic analysis, the researcher analyzed transcripts of classroom interactions. By looking at pitch changes, tune, and accent, the researcher studied the degree to which both teachers’ and students’ language was playful, serious, oppositional, etc. The researcher was able to examine students’ code switchings and to investigate the factors that surrounded these occurrences.</p>
<p><b>Candela, A.</b> (1998). Students’ power in classroom discourse. <u>Linguistics and Education</u>, 10(2), 139-163.</p>	<p>Does IRE always maintain the teacher’s power?</p> <p>Is students’ resistance to following the teacher’s orientation necessarily a resistance to learning?</p>	<p>The researcher observed fifth grade science classes in a public elementary school near Mexico City.</p> <p>She collected data over the course of one year; however, the researcher had been working in this school for several years and developed a strong relationship with the members.</p>	<p>The researcher took ethnographic field notes as well as video and audio recordings.</p>	<p>The researcher conducted conversational analysis of teacher-student interactions within an ethnographic perspective. The conversational analysis was facilitated by the use of transcripts of classroom conversations.</p> <p>Using Edwards &amp; Potter’s (1992) model for discourse analysis, the researcher analyzed students’ contributions in class</p>

				discussions to examine whether or not they “follow what the teacher wants them to do or if they manipulate the local construction of discourse to seize power in order to construct their own representation of the curricular topics” (p. 140). Candela looked specifically at turn sequences to describe what was happening at each shift in the classroom discourse.
<b>Rex, L. A., Murnen, T., Hobbs, J., &amp; McEachen, D.</b> (2002b). Teachers’ Pedagogical Stories and the Shaping of Classroom Participation: “The Dancer” and “Graveyard Shift at the 7-11. <u>American Educational Research Journal</u> , 39(3), 765-796.	How do teachers’ ways of storytelling shape students’ identities and their expectations of and opportunities to learn academic subject matter?	Part of an established ethnographic relationship with two experienced English teachers, the university researchers focused on the teachers’ pedagogical storytelling practices over the duration of a course. The well-liked, respected, and effective teachers held contrasting views of education and accomplishment, including differing views on the necessity and value of tracking for student achievement. One taught a	The university researchers utilized collected videotapes, field notes, ethnographic and formal interviews. They selected the instructional narratives told by the two teachers during the first 550 minutes, or two-weeks, of class.	The researchers coded daily videotapes and field notes from the first weeks of each class for discursive narratives in which the participants were doing something that was important and valued. They conducted discourse analyses of each story to observe how it positioned students, the course work, school, achievement, and other school performance related areas. They identified semantic relationships among the origins of a story’s content,

		gifted and talented curriculum for students who self selected into the class; another taught a course that intentionally mixed students from all tracks.		its instructional target, and its function. They drew on ethnographic data and findings from prior studies of these classrooms to create taxonomies for the meanings, sources, and purposes of all the stories. The teachers reviewed the researchers' interpretations during and after analyses, and they provided their own written analytical report on the data.
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### Teacher Research Perspective

<b>Lampert, M.</b> (1990). When the problem is not the question and the solution is not the answer: mathematical knowing and teaching. <u>American Educational Research Journal</u> , 127(1), 29-63.	Was it possible “to make knowing mathematics in the classroom more like knowing mathematics in the discipline” (59)?	Lampert, also a university researcher, studied her own fifth grade classroom over the course of a year. She sought to teach her students’ Polya’s moral qualities for mathematics through the way she taught. These qualities include: “Intellectual Courage: we should be ready to revise any one of our beliefs Intellectual Honesty: we	The researcher took field notes and videotaped every class, over the course of a year. She deliberately adjusted her teaching to try and teach Polya’s moral qualities. She encouraged her students to demonstrate intellectual courage, intellectual honesty, and wise restraint.	The researcher examined her field notes and watched the videotapes to study whether or not her students exhibited signs of having acquired Polya’s moral qualities for mathematics.  She looked at the effect her interaction with students had on students’ knowledge.
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		<p>should change a belief when there is good reason to change it...          Wise Restraint: we should not change a belief wantonly, without some good reason, without serious examination”          (pp.7-8, 31).</p>		
<p><b>Ballinger, C.</b> (1999). <u>Teaching other people's children</u>. New York: Teachers College Press.</p>	<p>How does a teacher’s own culture affect her teaching when she is teaching students of a different culture?</p>	<p>Ballinger studied her own classroom at St. George’s, a preschool run by the Catholic Church, which was attended by many Haitian immigrants.</p> <p>She conducted her teacher research with the Brookline Teacher-Researcher Seminar (BTRS).</p>	<p>The researcher kept a journal, and also studied transcriptions from audiotapes of her classes.</p>	<p>By keeping a journal, rereading it, and examining transcripts of her classes, Ballinger arrived at a better understanding of both herself and her students. Her reflection helped her to continually modify her teaching to most effectively reach her students.          Ballinger published a narrative on her teacher research to contribute her findings to the knowledge base for teaching.</p>
<p><b>Moon, R.</b> (2001). The personal and the professional: learning about gender in middle school physical education. In G. Burnaford, J.Fischer, &amp; D. Hobson (Eds.) <u>Teachers</u></p>	<p>Moon sought to explore and understand his own and others’ assumptions about girls and athletics in order that he might try to change those assumptions.</p>	<p>A K-8 physical education teacher and coach, Moon conducted a two-year research project that focused on gender stereotypes. He looked specifically at competition</p>	<p>Moon’s research was prompted by the births of his own two daughters. He explains how prior to their birth, he focused almost entirely on male athletics.</p>	<p>The researcher reflected on how his teaching changed as a result of his self-interrogation. He became aware of his own potential to learn from his students.</p>



<p>doing research, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, (pp. 151-56). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Publisher.</p>		<p>and cooperation (with regards to gender) in physical education.</p> <p>He “sought to explore [stereotypes] and experiment with methods in physical education that could challenge...these gender stereotypes” (p. 152).</p>	<p>Moon decided to interrogate his own beliefs and assumptions about girls.</p> <p>Having previously taught boys in physical education classes that separated boys from girls, Moon decided to reunite boys and girls into coeducational classes.</p>	
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