ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: HOW SIX FOURTH GRADERS EXPERIENCED

                               AND UNDERSTOOD LITERACY EVENTS

                               DURING ONE YEAR IN A QUALITY SCHOOL

                               LIBRARY

                               Anita N. Voelker, Doctor of Philosophy, 2006

Dissertation Directed By: Dr. Marilyn J. Chambliss
                               Associate Professor
                               Department of Curriculum and Instruction
                               University of Maryland, College Park

        In this one year study, I employed a "childist" lens (Hunt, 1991) to discover how six

fourth grade students experienced and understood literacy events in a quality school library

program. To locate a quality setting, I sought experts' suggestions, reviewed resources,

interviewed librarians, and visited four sites. Of these four sites, I chose the quality setting

with the highest percentage of racial diversity within the student population.

        In response to Snow, Burns, and Griffin's (1998) call for more research on fourth

grade students, I focused this study on students in this grade level. Using data from Terra

Nova scores, teacher ranking, and a Title Recognition Test, I selected six fourth graders, who

represented diversity in reading ability, reading experience, race, and gender.

Using a sociocultural perspective (Gee, 2001) and Halliday's (1980) "social-functional approach" (p. 37), I defined literacy for children as learning existing, new, and evolving language and language systems in text and technology; learning *about* language and language systems in social and cultural settings that are meaningful to the community of learners; learning *through* language and language systems by understanding the power of words in text and technological contexts. With this established literacy definition, I selected the literacy event as a unit of analysis.

Collecting and analyzing data were reciprocal processes. During the academic year, I collected data via observations and interviews. There were three distinct types of interviews: post literacy event, with artifacts, and with a library model. I employed an emic perspective to view the literacy events through the experiences and understanding of the participants. Using an etic lens, I applied my understandings of literacy research to analyze the child's perspective. To crystallize the findings from the analysis, I created literacy portraits for each participant that aligned with the subsidiary questions.

In summarizing the literacy portraits, I found a paradox: Although literacy events were ubiquitous in this quality school library, literacy was rare. Drawing on Swales (1990) theory of discourse communities, I argue that the contradiction may stem from differences in the school library and literacy discourse communities, as well as complexity in defining literacy.

HOW SIX FOURTH GRADERS EXPERIENCED AND UNDERSTOOD LITERACY

EVENTS DURING ONE YEAR IN A QUALITY SCHOOL LIBRARY

By

Anita N. Voelker

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Advisory Committee:

  Associate Professor Marilyn J. Chambliss, Chair
  Professor Mariam Jean Dreher
  Associate Professor Hanne Mawhinney
  Professor J. Randy McGinnis
  Professor Jeremy Price

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Statement of Problem

Research about school libraries is a relatively new and expanding field of study

(Latrobe, 1998). Early findings support the importance of a quality school library program

for students' reading achievement. (Didier, 1984, 1988; Krashen, 1995; Lance, Rodney,

Hamilton-Pennell, 2000a, 2000b; Lance, Welborn, & Hamilton-Pennell 1993). However,

little has been written about the literacy experiences and understandings of children who

have access to a quality school library program.

Recent research examined only the relationship between school library components

and student achievement. For example, Lance et al. (2000b) conducted a study of reading

achievement and school library programs in Pennsylvania. They noted that students' access

to a quality school library program predicted higher scores on the reading achievement

component of the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA) despite low levels of

both family education and socioeconomic status (SES). Although the correlations were

predictive, not causal, supporters of school libraries were encouraged by the results (J. L.

Emerick, Director, Office of Commonwealth Libraries, personal communications, March 14,

2003). However, nothing in the study indicated what type of experiences led to higher

reading achievement. Instead the study related how specific components of a school library

program, such as a certified librarian and staff, aligned with higher reading achievement on

state-wide standardized tests in reading.

Taking a more holistic view in his book, *Library: An Unquiet History,* Battles (2003)

wrote that the library "is no mere cabinet of curiosities; it's a world, complete and

uncompletable, and it is filled with secrets" (p. 5). Similarly, a school library is more than the

sum total of its components. In this study, I investigated "points of transformation" (Battles, 2003, p. 21) within the children who had access to the quality school library program. By focusing on the children's perspectives, I learned how six fourth grade children experienced and understood text, artifacts, and social interaction during literacy events in a quality school library program.

This introductory chapter is divided into six sections. In the first section, I frame the research problem. In the second section, I explain the significance of a quality school library as a setting for this research, and include a definition of a quality school library program. Following the definition, I discuss why this particular research study of fourth graders is an important and worthy pursuit. In the fourth section, I position myself as the researcher along with epistemological assumptions as a prelude to presenting the research questions. Finally, the chapter concludes with a list of pertinent definitions and an overview of the remaining chapters.

Framing the Research Problem

There are three facets that shape the research problem: literacy, children, and school libraries as a literacy environment for children. To frame the problem, I begin by explaining the complexities in defining literacy. After establishing the density of this term, I present the definition of children's literacy that informed my study. In addition, I characterize a literacy event because it was the unit of analysis. Secondly, I focus upon children by providing historical, philosophical, and academic perspectives. Lastly, I frame the problem by presenting the dual roles of school libraries: providing access to information and supporting students' learning.

Defining Literacy

To define literacy, I find it necessary to begin by presenting what literacy is not. After this is established, I present what literacy is. In the twenty-first century, literacy is not one-dimensional (Gee, 2001; Luke, 2000; The New London Group, 1996). Literacy is not the distinct property of schools, nor is literacy defined solely by in-school practices (Resnick, 2000). Likewise, those engaged in understanding literacy extend outside of academia and into other contexts: social (Heath, 1983), political (Mikulecky, 1990), and technological (Bruce, 1997). Literacy is no longer viewed solely as a skill, or even as a process.

Recent authors espousing social theory perspectives (Luke & Freebody, 1997; Gee, 1996; Luke, 2000; New London Group, 1996) have expanded the traditional views of literacy. In today's complex world, preparing children to access, manipulate, critique, and/or refute texts has become a major issue of literacy education (Luke, 2000).

But as early as 1990, Venezky, Wagner, and Ciliberti acknowledged the difficulty of defining literacy by likening it to jelly and sand. They noted that all three were "without intrinsic shape, defined and redefined by the vessels that hold them" (p. ix). Their thinking can be justified in viewing recently published journal articles: literacy was blended with other nouns, as in media literacy (Trier, 2006), specified through life stages, as in youth literacy (Moje, 2002), or modified with adjectives, as in critical literacy (Behrman, 2006). By adding terms, these authors shifted and reshaped the meaning of literacy.

In their attempt to view the term literacy from a number of "vessels", Wagner, Venezky, and Street (1999) divided *Literacy: An International Handbook* into nine parts. In doing so, their edited book addressed a number of literacy contexts: historical, psychological,

political, sociological, curricular, and more. Although this handbook appeared to be a comprehensive view of literacy, Moje (2002), in a review, pointed out the omission of youth literacy within the otherwise well-crafted handbook. Moje's comments highlighted the nature of literacy as dynamic, incomplete, complex, and far-reaching.

Along a similar line of thinking, Lankshear and Knobel (1997) argued that literacy can no longer be viewed as singular, but rather as "literacies" (p. 96). Other scholars have expanded Lankshear and Knobel's literacies to "critical multiliteracies" (Kazemek & Rigg, 2003, p. 313), where visual, graphic, technological, and print media are components of literacy. In consideration of the intricate nature of literacy and the focus of this study, I selected to define literacy as it relates to children using a sociocultural perspective.

The goal of literacy for those espousing a sociocultural perspective is to prepare children to access, manipulate, critique, and refute texts and discourse (Luke, 2000). In determining the definition of literacy for this study, I borrowed from Halliday (1980), who identified three functions of children's literacy learning as it related to language. Halliday (1978) supported the notion that language has a privileged role in helping children become members of society. Applying a "social-functional approach" (p. 37), Halliday indicated that children learn language, learn about language, and learn through language (1980). Additionally, Halliday (1978) did not sanction a hierarchical step-by-step view of this approach, which fits well with current sociocultural perspectives of literacy (Luke & Freebody, 1997).

In the next section, I begin by linking Halliday's (1980) work to the evolving understanding of literacies (Lankshear & Knobel, 1997; New London Group, 1996) in order

to define literacy as it relates to children. After this explanation, I present the definition of literacy for children that informed this study.

Literacy as learning language. Long after Halliday (1980) presented his social-functional approach, the New London Group (1996), a gathering of diverse, international linguists, proposed a new pedagogy of multiliteracies. They broadened the view of literacy (and literacy pedagogy) to "account for the context of our culturally and linguistically diverse and increasingly globalized societies" including the "burgeoning variety of text forms associated with information and multimedia technologies" (p. 61). Bruce (1997) also lamented that for too long there has been a divide between literacy and technology. Updating Halliday's (1980) idea of learning language to the twenty-first century, I contend that literacy for children can be partially defined as learning both old, new, and evolving language associated with past, current, and evolving text and technologies.

Literacy as learning about language. If the complex nature of literacy is acknowledged, then learning language, even if extended to future texts and technologies, will not suffice as a definition of literacy for children. Researchers and professionals have come to recognize that "literacy is not only a practice but also a culture; it is something individuals *choose* to do . . . [it is] available to a person only to the extent that it is used by other members of that person's sociocultural group" (Kazemek & Rigg, 2003, p. 312). Children's literacy includes not merely learning language, but also learning *about* language that has meaning and value within the community of learners. Therefore the definition of literacy must be modernized to include learning about language that is meaningful in socially constructed contexts.

Literacy as learning through language. Whether using text, media, or online information, children's literacy expands through language. A sociocultural perspective calls for teachers to "view each child as a network of associations formed by her or his sociocultural experiences, a network from which specific ways of knowing the world emerge" (Gee, 1997, p. 297). A sociocultural perspective to literacy also calls for readers to be critically literate, and teachers to enable children to develop literacy practices that question the text in an effort to learn *through* language. Frieberg and Freebody (1997) proposed asking specific kinds of questions while reading to engage critical literacy practices. They suggested questions such as, "What kind of person could write, in good faith and without problems, like this? What kind of reader does the reader need to be in order to read it, again, in good faith and without problems?" (p. 271). Questions such as these call for the word "critical" to be added to "literacy".

Behrman (2006), who reviewed a number of recent journal articles to determine how critical literacy affected classroom instruction and teaching strategies, noted that critical literacy can be applied to any text or subject. Teaching students the power of language through classroom practices, such as reading multiple texts advances the concept of literacy for children as learning *through* language. Today's definition of literacy for children includes learning by acknowledging the power of language and developing strategies for critically understanding old, new, and evolving texts and technologies.

Considering the complexities of defining literacy, I recognized the need to determine a definition that would guide my study. Without a definition, I would be unable to evaluate the literacy experiences and understandings within the setting. First and foremost, I designed

the definition using a childist lens. Then, by updating and juxtaposing Halliday's (1978) three constructs, I defined literacy within this study as it would relate to children.

Literacy for children is learning existing, new, and evolving language and language systems in both text and technology, literacy for children is learning *about* language and language systems in social and cultural settings that are meaningful to the community of learners, and literacy for children is learning *through* language and language systems by understanding the power of words in text and technological contexts. This definition of literacy proved to be an important construct in the findings of this study. Later in chapter 6, I will argue that the difficulties of defining literacy complicate how a literacy environment is perceived.

Once I had achieved an understanding of literacy, I selected the literacy event as the unit of analysis. According to Heath (1982), a literacy event includes "any occasion in which a piece of writing is integral to the nature of participants' interactions and their interpretive processes . . . any action sequence, involving one or more persons, in which the production and or comprehension of print plays a role" (p. 93).

Focusing on Children

Because of the No Child Left Behind Act (2002), national attention focused upon the performance of students on standardized tests. Similar to the school library research mentioned earlier, the focal point was not on children's perspectives of their experiences and understandings. In this study, I did not rely upon standardized test, I employed a childist lens in a deliberate attempt to understand how children experienced and understood literacy via literacy events. In doing so, I followed the tradition of others who value and respect children's perspectives.

One such person was George Orwell (1953) who, in the mid-twentieth century, questioned how society viewed and considered children. In his essay, "Such, Such Were the Joys . . .", Orwell used his own childhood as an exemplar. He argued that there was great difficulty in knowing how children feel and think because adults do not live in the same world as children. More recently, Lenzer (2001), Director of the Children's Study Center at Brooklyn College, continued Orwell's thinking and noted that even in the twenty-first century, "children cannot represent themselves" (p. 185). Zornado (2001) concurred in his book on culture, ideology, and childhood. He claimed that adults often consciously misunderstand childhood, and project an idealized, but erroneous, view as reality. To reverse this ongoing problem, Moje (2002) encouraged researchers to take advantage of opportunities "to learn not only *about* youth literacy but also *from* youth" (p.120).

Heeding Moje's (2002) suggestion, I affirmed children as sources of knowledge. I intentionally concentrated my study on children's views and voices knowing that there was a deficit in the perspective of children's experiences and understanding. At the same time, I respected Mc-Gee Brown's warning: children may provide "multiple interpretations and even competing or inconsistent interpretations . . . at different times or contexts" (1995, p. 202).

Regardless of the difficulties, it is important to gain a children's perspective on their own literacy experiences and understanding. As test scores become more visible and valued, children's voices become muted and disregarded. To support this notion, I present three views of children: a brief synopsis of the child in society, a philosophical perspective on children as learners, and an academic understanding of children's attitudes toward reading. At the conclusion of the three views, I explain the rationale for the participants selected for this study.

Historical synopsis of the child in society. In his translated book, *Centuries of Childhood* (1962), Ariès, a cultural historian, investigated society's perception of the child. His work was "commonly used as evidence of the socially constructed nature of childhood" (Holloway & Valentine, 2003, p. 4) in the western world. His study of artifacts led to the belief that the concept of childhood began after the demise of medieval society. Ariès (1962) noted that art prior to and including the twelfth century portrayed no children. By the thirteenth century, some portraits of children appeared, including images of child-like angels. Through the next two centuries, a period of "Holy Childhood" (Ariès , 1962, p. 36) developed until about the sixteenth century. At that time, two opposing concepts of childhood emerged. The first was identified as "coddling" (Ariès, 1962. p. 132). Families fostered "coddling" by regarding the child with adoration, supported by the depictions of children with angelic qualities. The second concept of childhood developed outside the family where clergy and others concerned about morality began to view children not as "charming toys . . . [but] as fragile creatures of God who needed [to be] both safeguarded and reformed" (Ariès, 1962, p.133). Early moralization led to the institution of schools where clerics and schoolmasters used physical punishment to maintain rigorous academics. Ariès argued that schools began upholding academic discipline and standards through corporal punishment at the same time that "an authoritarian, hierarchical . . . concept of society" (p. 261) developed. As physically chastising children became routine academic practice, society diminished the voices of children in the family and the learning community.

The placing the child's voice back into the center of the school community (Dyson, 2003; Hunt, 1991; Lensmire, 1994; Paley, 1998) aligned with the philosophical views of John Dewey (1990), one of the founders of pragmatism. Dewey's perspectives on the

centrality of children as learners provided a rationale for studying literacy through children's experiences and understandings.

Philosophical perspective of the child as learner. Dewey (1990) called for a "shifting of the center of gravity" (p. 34) from outside the child to the activities of the child. He compared this change to the radical writings of Copernicus who, along with others, argued that the sun, not the earth, was the center of the universe. Although, he believed that human experience grew from meaningful interactions with the environment, Dewey did not see the child as an isolated learner (Gutek, 1997). Dewey argued for collaborative social activity. In such an educative setting, teachers facilitated students' problem solving activities.

Dewey (1938) contended that children required educators who sculpted experiences through the principles of continuity and interaction. These two principles were fundamentally different from the early moralistic educators who expected submission and rote learning. To explain the importance of continuity and interaction, Dewey stated that "every [educative] experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after" (p. 27). Dewey indicated that it was the responsibility of educators to create such experiences by manipulating the environment. Dewey perceived the principles of continuity and interaction as the longitude and latitude of the child's educative experience. By actively binding these two principles, Dewey affirmed his view that education was an active process (continuity) and required relationships (interaction). Dewey (1913) intentionally emphasized the idea that children needed to show interest in order to learn. Unlike the hierarchical, authoritarian structures Ariès (1962) described in early schools, Dewey supported the child's interest as a powerful and integral part of learning. When students became focused on a goal, Dewey encouraged educators to

develop a means to help children arrive at their goal. Interest sealed the gap between means and goals. In sum, Dewey (1913) noted that the educator provided the environment, and linked experiences from past to future. In this process, students' interest was nurtured as it sustained the spaces betweens means and the end.

Dewey's attentive response to the concept of childhood set the stage for more focus on how schools responded to children and vice versa. Literacy researchers (McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995) who focused on children's perspectives found a relationship between children's attitudes toward reading and the number of years they spent in school. In the next section, I provide understandings of the child reader in elementary schools because reading is the core of literacy (Venezky, 1990).

Academic perspective of the child's reading attitude. Lance et al. (2000b) found that components of a school library program predicted higher reading achievement on state standardized testing (Lance et al., 2000b). In order to further elucidate the importance of this finding, I will discuss the research of McKenna and his colleagues (1995) who noted that the role of children's attitude was vital. They explained that attitude "may affect the level of ability ultimately attained by a given student through its influence on such factors as engagement and practice" (p. 934). Believing that reading attitude impacted students' literacy practices, these researchers conducted a nationally representative survey of reading attitudes of elementary students.

The result of this survey presented a negative trend in children's reading attitude as they progress through elementary school. In their summary, McKenna and his colleagues (1995) reported several findings including the following: attitudes toward both recreational and academic reading were at their highest in grade one and reached their lowest point in

grade six, attitudes toward recreational reading were related to ability with the most severe decline for poor readers, attitudes toward both recreational and academic reading were higher for girls at all levels, and reading attitude did not appear to be related to ethnicity.

When viewed as a composite, the results from McKenna et al., (1995) helped set the stage for understanding the importance of what occurs when children have access to a quality school library program. McKenna and his colleagues argued that attitude toward reading mattered because of its relationship to students' ability to achieve in reading. Although the research of Lance et al. (2000b) regarding quality school library programs did not investigate children's attitude toward reading, the results predicted higher reading achievement in children regardless of low parental education or low SES. Considering the findings from the McKenna study and the Lance study led me to question what children experience and understand during literacy events in a quality school library program. In essence, I was curious to know what was happening in literacy learning from the children's point of view.

I made two decisions after considering the historical and philosophical views on children and childhood. First, I framed my study through the eyes of the children. Second, I chose an array of differences in the participants after considering the diversity variables presented in the McKenna et al.'s study (1995). By selecting a small number of children to study, I allotted more time to each child and honored her or his individual voice. As evidence of my intention to represent the voice of each participant fully, I have devoted chapter 5 to literacy portraits of each child in the study.

I had two reasons for selecting fourth graders specifically as my participants. First, a quality school library represented a unique literacy environment with print and technological resources readily accessible to all children regardless of their home literacy environment. I

wondered how fourth graders, a generation accustomed to the digitized world (Prensky, 2001), would respond to this literacy environment. Secondly, having read Snow, Burns, and Griffin's (1998) national report on preventing reading difficulties, I responded to their call for more research on fourth grader readers. Within the literacy community, fourth graders had the dubious distinction of being in a national, recurring slump in reading achievement. More specific details on the selection process are included in chapter 3.

Understanding the Roles of School Libraries

In John Dewey's conception of how children learn, he included "areas of inquiry . . . designed to expand children's perspectives into time and space" (Gutek, 1997, p. 326). Had Dewey known of today's quality school library programs, I contend that he would have acknowledged that such spaces provide communal, experiential, problem-solving experiences for children.

In a recent message to the American Library Association (ALA) , Michael Gorman, current president of the ALA and Dean of Library Sciences at California State University, indicated that meaning is often "cloaked in obscurity of academic jargon" (2006, p. 3). To simplify, he stated that "there is a discipline called librarianship" (p. 3). To reflect the current thinking of the ALA, and for simplicity, I chose to use the term "librarian", rather than other designations (e.g., media specialist), throughout this study.

Historically, libraries evolved in response to society's need and technological advances. As such, they continue to be places of constant change. In his historical account, Petroski (1999) traced environmental, ecological, and consumer issues that influenced the arrangement of books on shelves. For example, in early academic libraries, librarians piled books in horizontal stacks with the "fore edge" (Petroksi, 1999, p.122) facing the reader.

With the realization that light and weight had detrimental effects on the physical composition of the books, librarians changed the storage system to a vertical system with spines facing out to protect the text.

School librarians continue to catalog and shelve books by the well-ordered Dewey Decimal system. Yet popular culture and emerging technology are shifting the library's contents and design. In today's postmodern school libraries, randomness has joined the long standing order. For example, paperback books are often placed in rotating round racks due to popularity, rather than an orderly system. Front facing displays of arbitrary books are used to encourage readers in making book choices. Computer screens convey limitless amounts of text, graphics, and games. Librarians purposefully place an array of recently returned books on carts to encourage students to check out what other children read (F. Coleman, personal communications, May 25, 2004).

In the milieu of educational practice, many may recognize the physical changes in the design of school libraries, but be unaware of their role in literacy. Quality school libraries have two roles in literacy: access to information and support for students' learning (Lance, 2000b). In the following sections, I explain the importance of these dual functions in the literacy development of children to underscore the need for literacy research in school libraries.

Access to information. Despite the growing number of franchised bookstores, libraries continue to purchase more than half of the children's books sold in the United States (Roback, 1991). More recently, in a 2006 national survey of K-12 school media centers, Brewer and Milam (2006) reported that elementary librarians had an average annual budget of $15, 337.72. These trends support the notion that libraries have importance in both

economic and educational roles. One dynamic metaphor that links these two roles is to view the library as a marketplace, more specifically, a marketplace of ideas. Marketplaces hold resources to nurture and care for both needs and wants. The school library, when viewed through this metaphor, provides nourishment for children's minds and curiosity.

I will begin discussing the importance of access to information by presenting international research conducted by Warwick Elley, Emeritus Professor of Education at the University of Canterbury in New Zealand. Elley, a recognized authority on global literacy, found strong support for the notion that access to information matters to children's literacy.

Elley (2000) described literacy conditions in third world countries where there are no libraries in either the school or the classroom. Elley discussed his concern about the need for children learning English in third world countries because English language ability is a gateway skill for more advanced learning. He noted that within schools where children succeeded in English acquisition, there was a school library. Elley also learned that in one particular school, the children made significant progress after they were gifted with a donation of books. This led to his experimental study where books were flooded into needy schools to enhance the presence of materials in English. His hypothesis that the access to books would lead to gains in the acquisition of English as second language was confirmed, and an equally encouraging finding was the "spread of effect" to other disciplines (p. 239). Although Elley's early study was the origin of book floods, numerous similar studies continued in other third world countries in the ensuing years.

Researchers in the United States found that third world countries were not the only locations where access to information was limited. In her award-winning research, Duke (2000) studied 20 first-grade classrooms in the greater Boston vicinity. Hypothesizing that

the more experiences children had with print the more successful they would be, Duke explored and compared the print available in very low and very high SES school districts. In her appendix to the study, she described two classroom libraries. The classroom library in the high SES school offered more diversity, and included a large selection of books from the school library. The selected library books changed every week. In contrast, the low SES class library had fewer books, which were difficult to access and infrequently used. The teacher supplemented the classroom with library books checked out of a public library. In the low SES school, there was little variation in the classroom library week to week, unlike the high SES library.

Neuman and Celano (2001) echoed Duke's (2000) findings. They conducted a three-year study in Philadelphia exploring four neighborhoods. Their findings indicated differences between neighborhoods of lower SES and those of middle level SES. They reiterated the need expressed by Elley (2000): children need access to information through books. Neuman and Celano noted that much research existed on literacy achievement and low SES but most studies focused upon attributes of individuals, rather than on the structure of environment. They determined to understand how literacy began for a growing diversity of children by studying the environments in which children come to know and experience literacy in its many forms. They surveyed reading material within consensus boundaries and identified the quality of signs, public spaces for reading, and residents' comments. They also observed, and documented the number of books in child care centers, school libraries, and pubic libraries.

Although there were only minor differences in access to print between neighborhoods of similar incomes, there were major and striking differences in access to print in almost every category between neighborhoods of different incomes. Neuman and Celano (2001)

recommended redesigning classrooms to ensure better access to books due to the powerful evidence that access to books in close proximity to children could greatly improve children's literacy needs.

In their seminal report on preventing reading difficulties in young children, Snow et al. (1998) indicated that schools in low SES urban districts have larger class sizes. Larger numbers within classes amplified the need for more books and literacy materials per classroom in low SES schools. Snow et al. called for "good school libraries" (p. 11) to assist children who have reading difficulties and additionally noted that ineffective schools do not use their school libraries sufficiently. Snow and her colleagues did not define a good school library, nor elaborate on what experiences children required within the library setting.

Recently, Neuman and Celano (2006) reported on four studies that examined how low-income and middle-income children used resources before and after a large scaled renovation of several urban, public libraries in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The project attempted to level "the playing field for low-income and middle-income children" (p. 176) by increasing access to information via updates in technology and books. Neuman and Celano reported a distressing finding: despite the elaborate and costly renovations, the knowledge gap for low-income children was reinforced, not leveled or lessened. They suggested a need for "caring adults that provide stability, [and] consistency" (p. 198) to children from low or middle level SES neighborhoods. By highlighting one librarian who invested in caring, modeling, demonstrating, and guiding children, Neuman and Celano aligned their thinking with the need for support for students' learning, the second role of school libraries.

Much like Neuman and Celano (2006), I was interested in viewing the children within the setting, not simply the resources available to them. I also came to the realization that the

adults within the literacy environment matter. In chapter 6, I address Neuman and Celano's call for caring adults within the library.

   Support for students' learning. Children's acquisition of literacy depends upon access to information via books (Duke, 2000; Elley, 2000; Neuman & Celano, 2001). However, as noted in Neuman and Celano (2006) most recent findings, access alone is not the answer. Teachers who received professional development on how to utilize books provided a better environment for literacy achievement (McGill-Franzen, Allington, & Yokoi, 1999) than teachers who did not attend training. When teachers spent time introducing and practicing strategies, students' comprehension was enhanced (Guthrie, Van Meter, Hancock, Alao, Anderson, & McCann, 1998). To further support the need for instruction, McGill-Franzen et al. (1999) studied the kindergarten classes in six elementary schools for one school year and examined three types of interventions: teacher training and books; books only; and a control (no books and no teacher training). Through pretesting and posttesting, using Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) and the Concepts About Print and Diagnostic Survey (CAP), McGill-Franzen et al. (1999) found that the training and books intervention classrooms had "reliable and positive achievement effects" (p.71). Observations, interviews, teachers' logs of read-alouds, and inventories of the classroom's literacy environment indicated that students in the training and books classrooms read more books.

   Researchers, such as McGill-Franzen et al. (1999), were not members of the school's faculty and, thus, not available day to day. However, in the Lance et al. (2000b)study, certified librarians were a constant, and they provided professional development as needed. Lance and his colleagues found that fifth-graders in schools with a full-time certified librarian and at least one full-time aide or support staff achieved average or above average on

the Pennsylvania Systems of School Assessment (PSSA) reading assessment test. By contrast, fifth-graders in schools without one full-time certified librarian and one support staff person scored below the state average on the PSSA reading test. Furthermore, Lance and his colleagues found a statistically significant positive relationship between library staffing and reading achievement scores in grades five, eight, and eleven.

The International Reading Association (IRA, 2000), in a position paper recommended the purchase of more books for classroom, school, and public libraries. They acknowledged the strong research base that supports the connection between improved achievement and access to books. Their recommendation indicated that in a typical school year, a child should be able to select a new book to read every day. The IRA also noted that 'use' was as important as access, and indicated that librarians and teachers must be a part of the success. How children use books is as important as the availability of those books. The IRA encouraged more research into the combination of access and use. This current study concerns both access and use, and attempts to further the understanding of the school library's role in literacy through understanding the children's perspective.

The Importance of Literacy Research in a School Library Setting

This study provided an in-depth exploration of literacy in a quality school library program. At the conclusion of this study, I presented each child through her or his own literacy portrait. Reading these portraits offers a unique perspective of the school library through the children's experiences and understandings of literacy. Although I believe the literacy portraits by themselves have merit and will inspire other research, I contend that there are two additional reasons that this study was a worthwhile and important investigation.

First, in today's high stakes testing environment, reading achievement has become a prominent literacy indicator. Previous studies of school libraries, completed primarily by members of the school library discourse community, focused upon library components and students' reading achievement on standardized tests. There was little, if any, mention of literacy.

Given the earlier discussion of the complexities of understanding literacy, I contend that prior research has disregarded this sometimes messy, but imperative, aspect of a school library. Almost universally, researchers investigated countable, identifiable components of a library (e.g., computers with Internet access, books, presence of a certified librarian) and their relationship to standardized reading achievement scores. None have viewed the literacy experiences and understandings of a diverse sample of children in the school library. None have specified literacy events as the unit of analysis. Few have looked at how children comprehend text and produce artifacts. Yet, as noted by the historical and philosophical perspectives presented early in this chapter, children's perceptions of their experiences and understandings have merit. Therefore, I argue that my investigation of a quality school library which uses children's voices about their literacy events provided an alternate view of understanding literacy in this setting. It explored beneath the surface of what was obvious.

Secondly, I entered this study as a member of the literacy discourse community. As Swales (1990) noted, a discourse community, unlike a speech community, "recruits its members by persuasion, training or relevant qualifications (p. 24). As a doctoral candidate pursuing a PhD in Curriculum and Instruction in Reading Education, and as a member of the International Reading Association, I read *Reading Research Quarterly, The Reading Teacher*, and *The Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy* regularly. I teach undergraduate

elementary and early childhood education majors with the hope that they will become effective and influential teachers of reading. I am devoted to enhancing the development of elementary teachers who will be able to assist all children in becoming independent readers and writers who choose to read and write. Therefore, my background differs radically from other researchers from the school library discourse community who have previously investigated the school library.

In an effort to understand school librarians, as well as be prepared to make sense of the setting in my study, I engaged in learning about the school library discourse community. First, I enrolled in a graduate course in library science. Secondly, I joined the ALA, the American School Library Association (ASLA) and the Pennsylvania School Library Association (PSLA). I began reading a number of journals related to the school library community: *The School Library Journal, American Libraries, Knowledge Quest,* and *Learning and Media.* Through my investigation, I found that members of the school librarians' community do not always use language as members of the literacy community nor do they have the same backgrounds. In chapter 6, I argue that the issue of language and content expertise had implications for the children's literacy experiences and understandings.

Therefore, due to my perspective as a member of the literacy research community and my decision to use the children's experiences and understandings, I present a unique and important contribution to the research.

Researcher's Position and Epistemological Assumptions

In qualitative study designs, the researcher becomes an instrument in the research process (Janesick, 2000, LeCompte & Schensul, 1999a). Bogdan and Biklen (1998) suggest that the researcher consider her or his effect on the research study. In this section, I position

myself by describing personal characteristics and epistemological assumptions that apply to this study.

Having been raised in a bilingual home, I learned early that language was meaningful and pleasurable. Books, conversations, grocery lists, letters, newspapers, phone calls, and prayers coexisted in two languages and cultures in my childhood home. Learning languages, learning about languages, and learning through languages mattered. Although my school did not have a library, the book mobile made bi-monthly visit to the school's parking lot. In addition my family took occasional Saturday trips to the Enoch Pratt Library in Baltimore, Maryland. My comfort and appreciation of language and libraries led me to four years of employment in the academic library at my university during undergraduate studies. With these life experiences, I entered this study with a deep respect for books and languages, as well as appreciation and first hand experience with issues of diversity in social and cultural literacy contexts. Therefore, I sought diversity in the setting and participants in my study.

A researcher's epistemological assumptions also need to be considered in a qualitative study. Metaphorically, I consider epistemology to be like groundwater; it supplies and fortifies research. Like groundwater, a researcher's epistemology may seem invisible. But in time, like a pentimento in a piece of artwork, it emerges through the surface layers of the study. Because my epistemological assumptions intentionally inform my study, I present a brief view of the source and scope of knowledge (Hofer, 2002) in this study.

As stated earlier, I affirm that children are sources of knowledge. To trust that children, my participants, have knowledge is to embrace the dynamic nature of ethnography. Although an ethnographer records daily, moment-by-moment experiences, the participants' lives continue beyond the data collection. Fetterman (1998) explained this by noting that

ethnography is a present tense "slice of life" (p. 124). The ethnographer views experiences through the eyes of the participants. To do so requires social interaction and conversation, as well as understanding that there is always more beyond what is learned.

The meanings people give to their everyday living are the meanings the ethnographers intend to bring to light. Yet knowledge is also active and socially constructed. Therefore I included other sources of knowledge in the study. The teacher and librarian who worked with the children in this study also provided knowledge. The school curriculum and school culture were also valuable sources of knowledge. At times, the children provided information about their families as well. This knowledge also informed my investigation.

Another component of epistemology is the scope of knowledge. I agree with a postmodern view that ethnography's goal is not to make knowledge universal, but rather to show knowledge through the concept of crystallization (Janesick, 2000; Richardson, 1994). As such, the researcher's scope of knowledge requires a multifaceted view, just as a crystal looks different from various angles and light sources. In chapter 5, I crystallize each participant's experiences with text, artifacts, and social interaction through literacy portraits.

Research Questions

I explored the following research question based upon my epistemological assumptions about the source and scope of knowledge: How do fourth-grade students experience and understand literacy events in a quality school library program? In order to answer this question, I employed Heath's (1982) definition of a literacy event, which included any occasion in which the production or comprehension of text takes place. Using Heath's definition, I developed the following subsidiary questions to guide my data collection and analysis:

1. What is the nature of literacy events?

2. How do children use text during literacy events?

3. What artifacts do children produce as a result of literacy events?

4. What is the role of social interaction in the children's interpretive processes during literacy events?

Definitions

In order to investigate a quality school library program, I reviewed the research to develop a definition of a quality school library program to guide this study. Through synthesizing the findings from the various statewide studies of libraries (Lance et al., 2000a, 2000b; Lance et al., 1993) and the American Library Association's (ALA, 1998) expectation, I found four consistent components in a quality school library program: *staffing, collections, technology, and integration into standards and curriculum*. When successful, these aspects work together to provide students with access to information, and to support their learning. In chapter 2, I review the research that supports each component of a quality school library individually.

Along with a quality school library, there are other terms that are pertinent to this study. Although defined here, they are also more fully explained in chapter 3.

1. *Artifa*ct: a type of durable material culture (Hodder, 2000); any item the children produced as a part of the school library program.

2. *Childist*: term coined by Hunt (1991) as a stance or lens that respects the experiences and understandings of children, analogous to a feminist position

3. *Crystallization*: a methodology which uses a crystal as a metaphor for viewing and writing during qualitative research; what one sees and how it is analyzed

depends upon the viewing angle (Richardson, 1994); realization of a partial understanding. Using crystallization, I selected particular facets of each child's experiences and understanding to highlight in the literacy portraits.

4. *Discourse community*: A group of individuals who can be identified with six characteristics: set of broadly agreed upon common public goals, mechanisms of intercommunication among its members, possesses and uses one or more genres in the community, a specific lexis, and has members with relevant content and discoursal expertise (Swales, 1990).

5. *Emic*: meanings individuals within the community give to their experiences

6. *Etic*: the perspective of the outsiders, the researchers who employ their knowledge to the insider's experiences

7. *Exposition*: rhetorical structure in books or artifacts based on author purpose such as "compare and contrast", "problem and solution", "sequence", "cause and effect", and "description" (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998; Dreher & Voelker, 2004).

8. *Genre*: a communicative event with a shared purpose; exemplars vary, and are determined by the discourse community who established the genre (Swales, 1990).

9. *Literacy*: learning existing, new, and evolving language and language systems in text and technology; learning *about* language and language systems in social and cultural settings that are meaningful to the community of learners; learning *through* language and language systems by understanding the power of words in text and technological contexts.

10. *Literacy event* : "any occasion in which a piece of writing is integral to the nature of participants' interactions and their interpretive processes . . . any action sequence, involving one or more persons, in which the production and or comprehension of print plays a role" (Heath, 1982, p.93).

11. *Literacy portrait:* a type of case study where a child's experiences and understandings of text, artifacts, and social interaction during literacy events are presented and analyzed by using salient examples.

12. *Narrative*: rhetorical structure used by writers with the purpose to tell a story where setting, character, and plot are integral components (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998).

13. *Pile sorts*: a data collection strategy analogous to word sorts often used with children during a word study (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2004). Items are placed on similar sized cards to be moved about in response to questions about the items. Like word sorts, pile sorts explore relationships where "researchers ask each respondent to sort a set of cards or objects into piles" (Ryan & Bernard, 2000, p. 770).

14. *Rhetorical structure*: schema that aligns with the macrostructure of text types, such as narrative and expository; used by authors to organize text and by readers to understand how a particular text is organized (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998; Kintsch, 1998).

15. *Quality School Library Program*: a school library program staffed with a certified librarian and aide, containing a rich collection of print materials that are routinely reviewed for accuracy and currency, and providing ample access to technology,

including online databases, software, and CD-ROMs. All aspects of the school

library program are integrated into the state academic standards and curriculum

with the goal to provide students with access to information, and with support for

their learning. (Lance, Rodney, Hamilton-Pennell, 2000a; 2000b; Lance,

Welborn, & Hamilton-Pennell, 1993).

16. *School Librarian*: a certified professional with a Masters degree in library science

who has four roles: teacher, collaborative partner, information specialist, and

program administrator. The term "librarian" reflects the current thinking of the

ALA (Gorman, 2006), and was selected purposefully, rather than other

designations (e.g., media specialist).

17. *Social interaction*: any occasion when participants are in a setting with others

from their discourse community where they share ideas and/or actions.

18. *Technology*: information storage systems in the library, such as computers, CD-

ROMS, electronic games, online databases.

19. *Text*: words and/or images which provide meaning, including, but not limited to

signs, books, online information, notes, and handouts.

Overview

This study explored how six fourth-grade students experienced and understood

literacy events in a quality school library program (ALA,1998; Lance et al., 2000a, 2000b).

Throughout one academic year, I observed and interviewed my participants who represented

diversity in gender, race, reading ability, and reading experiences. Using the definition of

literacy events established by Heath (1982), I focus upon how the students experienced and

understood texts, artifacts, and social interaction. I crystallized my findings using literacy portraits of each child.

In chapter 2, I begin by focusing on the three aspects that frame this study. In the first section, I present literature related to literacy as learning language, learning about language, and learning through language. Because of the "childist" (Hunt, 1991) lens I use for this study, I review selected qualitative research that employed the child's perspective in the second section of my literature review. In the third major section, I explore research on school libraries and clarify the definition of a quality school library (ALA, 1998; Lance et al., 2000b) that grounded the setting for this study.

Chapter 3 explains the research questions and the emic and etic perspectives. Because the early phase of locating a setting was a large and important component of this study, I detail the process that led to the site selection. I present how the students were selected for the study, the data collection procedures, and the data analysis. In this chapter, I also describe a field trip that I arranged for the students to thank them for their participation in the study.

In chapters 4 and 5, I present my findings. I use chapter 4 to describe three features: the framework for the school library program, the basal reading series that guided the library sessions, and an assertion related to the first subsidiary question concerning the nature of literacy events. Chapter 5 frames each participant in literacy portraits based upon the remaining subsidiary questions.

In the final chapter, I discuss the findings from the four subsidiary questions in order to answer the study's overarching research question (i.e., How do fourth-grade students experience and understand literacy events in quality school library program). Through the exploration of the four questions, I discovered a paradox: Although literacy events were

ubiquitous in this quality school library, literacy was rare. Drawing on Swales (1990) theory

of discourse communities, I argue that the contradiction may stem from differences in the

school library and literacy discourse communities, as well as complexity in defining literacy.

In addition, I suggest research and instructional implications based upon my analysis of this

study. Prior to the conclusion in chapter 6, I present the limitations of this study.

Chapter 2

In this chapter, I review research related to three areas that frame my study: literacy, children, and school libraries. In the first section, I present research on literacy as it relates to the definition that guides this investigation: learning language, learning about language, and learning through language (Halliday, 1980). In the second section, in order to acknowledge the merits of viewing literacy through the perspectives of children, I review other qualitative research studies that employed a childist lens (Hunt, 1991). In the final section, I review various studies on school libraries, and I present the researched-based definition of a quality school library program.

Research on Literacy

For some time, society has acknowledged that reading involves more than words on a page (Freire & Mercado, 1987; Gray, 1969; Nell, 1988). Despite embracing this notion, educators have not dismissed the reality that decoding is fundamental to literacy. Decoding, or learning how to operate the language system, not only remains important, it has expanded to include the language systems of various technological sources. Additionally, to be literate, children must learn *about* language: the various genres, vocabulary, and rhetorical structures within a burgeoning number of sources. Because most educators and researchers recognize that the comprehension of language is closely related to experiences (Halliday, 1978; Gee, 2001), literacy for children also includes learning *through* language using social interaction and engagement with others. Although I support Halliday's (1980) belief that these three segments are not clearly separable, I present each individually to explore the research in an organized manner.

Literacy as Learning Language

Learning language, and in particular learning how to read and write words on a page, is dependent upon knowing the graphophonemic code. Likewise, learning how to read and write words on a computer screen depends upon knowing the graphophonemic code. But computer literacy is also dependent on knowing how to operate the language system of the computer.

In this section, I review studies (i.e., Morris, Bloodgood, Lomax, & Perney, 2003; Ross, Hogaboam-Gray, & Hannay, 2001) that relate to the aspect of literacy as learning language. Because reading is the core of literacy (Venezky, 1990), I selected to review the work of Morris et al. (2003) to present the continuing importance of teaching phoneme awareness and the concept of word in print in the development of early reading skills. Secondly, because technology has expanded the role of literacy, I reviewed Ross et al.'s (2001) research on the impact of teacher efficacy on children's computer skills. The children in my study demonstrated that learning language impacted other literacy experiences. For example, if a child was unschooled in decoding in a domain or content specific words, they had difficulty comprehending the meaning. Likewise, if they had difficulty negotiating the organization systems of the library, they were unable to access what they wanted to find.

Learning to use the graphophonemic code. The theoretical model of reading development proposed by Morris and his colleagues (2003) outlined how young children's reading occurred over time. Building on prior studies on word knowledge, Morris et al. (2003) hypothesized that phoneme awareness and the concept of word in text developed in cadence with one another, as such they found "gains in one area leading to gains in the other"

(p.309). Their goal in this study was to replicate a previous study completed by Morris a decade earlier. However, they intended to use a larger sample of readers and more refined analysis. To accomplish this goal, the researchers constructed a longitudinal study of 102 children from the beginning of kindergarten to the end of grade one. The students attended four different schools in a rural area of the southeastern United States. An overwhelming number of the children were Caucasian (98%) but, according to the researchers, this represented the population of the area accurately.

To retest their theory , Morris et al. (2003) selected seven components directly from the earlier research model: "alphabet knowledge (ABC), beginning consonant awareness (BC), concept of word in text (CW), spelling with beginning and ending consonants (SPBE), phoneme segmentation (PS), word recognition (WR), and contextual reading (READ)" (p.309).

Using prior findings, the researchers identified five times over the course of a child's first two years of school when they predicted particular reading skills would develop. The researchers marked the beginning of kindergarten as Time 1 where alphabet knowledge preceded and led to beginning consonant awareness. In the middle of kindergarten (Time 2), their model indicated that children developed the parallel skills of concept of word in print and spelling beginning and ending consonants. The ability to see the spaces between words (i.e., realization that words have boundaries) was identified as a major turning point for an early reader. After this watershed experience, children began to segment sounds from the middle to end of kindergarten (Time 3). The children also became aware of the medial phoneme in a one-syllable word having a consonant-vowel-consonant pattern (e.g., dog). By the second month of first grade (Time 4), the children had the ability to recognize some

words because they were "armed with phonemic awareness" or the "glue" (p.309) for remembering words in print. Morris et al. speculated that children who received direct instruction in reading and word study would enhance their word recognition abilities and be able to read by the end of first grade (Time 5). With this model delineated, the researchers selected measures to assess the seven components in their model.

Although instruction was not altered by the researchers in this study, Morris and his co-researchers (2003) interviewed the kindergarten teachers individually at the beginning of the study and in the spring before the children moved to grade one. In summarizing their findings, Morris et al. noted that at the beginning of kindergarten, all teachers focused upon the alphabet. The teachers did very little, if any, guided reading during the fall semester. But there were instances when the teachers modeled reading by pointing to words and having the children dictate sentences. Even in the spring, the teachers did not engage in much guided reading, but many used big books and language experience stories dictated by the children. Most writing instruction began at the middle of kindergarten and included caption writing and some journal drawing/writing.

At the conclusion of the data gathering, Morris and his colleagues (2003) assessed their data and its relationship to the theoretical model. Using two indices, goodness-to-fit and comparative fit index, the researchers found that the data they gathered matched their hypothesized model. According to Morris et al., both indices resulted in a value of .90, indicating that the model and the data fit. Thus, the longitudinal study affirmed their speculations and confirmed the original model.

In order to examine the relationship among the variables within the model, Morris et al. (2003) employed structural equation modeling. All paths in the model (e.g., ABC → BC)

were statistically significant ($p < .05$), with a positive relationship in all paths. These results substantiated the researchers' theory that each variable impacted the next in the model.

To determine if there was a difference for children who arrived at kindergarten with less knowledge, the researchers divided the children into two groups, high-readiness and low-readiness, based upon the assessment of alphabet knowledge in the fall of kindergarten. The researchers found that there were no differences in the pattern of the model for either group; however the low-readiness group lagged behind the high-readiness group in attaining the ability to learn beginning and ending consonant phonemes. Whereas the high-readiness children could perform this skill by the middle of kindergarten, the low-readiness group did not complete this skill until the second month of grade one. Regardless, the model's sequence remained intact for both groups.

This study affirmed a developmental sequence to early reading acquisition. Children's abilities in kindergarten have a tendency to develop through a five-step pathway: alphabet knowledge, beginning consonant awareness, concept of word in text, spelling with beginning and ending consonants. Then in grade one, the pathway continues with children developing word recognition which leads to contextual reading ability.

Morris and his colleagues (2003) noted that their study can only provide "tentative implications" (p. 321) for instruction. However, given the affirmation of the model and the difference in time that the low-readiness readers attained spelling beginning and ending phonemes, it seems reasonable to suggest that all children benefit from instruction in the graphophonemic code. This supports the belief that teachers need to assist children to learn language as a part of literacy acquisition.

Learning to use the computer. As noted in Morris et al. (2003) having graphophonemic awareness is a fundamental part of a child's ability to learn written language. However, learning language in today's classrooms involves not only decoding text, but it also includes being able to decode the language systems of the resources that house the text. For example, children must be able to negotiate turning on the computer and locating the online catalog. Manipulating the mouse and keying in information is also a part of operating or decoding in this language system. There are many other language systems within the library. Children must know how the library is organized in order to find items. In my study, I noted that the children's confidence with operating the computer did enhance their willingness and interest in using the computer for more academic purposes. However, my findings were anecdotal. Therefore, I was interested in reviewing research that investigated children's ability and efficacy with using the computer.

I found intriguing research on specific technology-related programs, such as Labbo and Kuhn's (2000) case study of a child's ability to comprehend while reading considerate and inconsiderate CD-ROM books, but I was interested in reviewing research on the operational aspect of learning to use the computer. In addition, I was primarily invested in the child's perspective in my research, yet I recognized that adults in the child's environment play a vital role in literacy learning. Ross and his colleagues (2001) were also interested in children's performance on computer literacy in relationship to teachers' efficacy. According to Ross and his colleagues, teachers with higher efficacy about their abilities had students who achieved higher scores on "core academic subjects" (p. 142) than teachers with low efficacy. Similarly, I found that both the librarian's and teacher's confidence, along with their willingness to take time to apprentice students in the computer skills, made a positive

difference in the students' ability to operate the computer and, subsequently, use the computer confidently for other academic purposes.

Over an 11 month period, Ross et al. (2001) investigated the effects of teacher efficacy on computer skills of primary grade students. In this study, 387 Canadian students, ages six through nine, from 46 different schools participated. The students were selected randomly from senior kindergarten, first, and second grades, and they attended four different school districts. Although the term "senior kindergarten" (p. 145) was not explained, I assumed these were children in kindergarten for a second year because the researchers were interested in students who changed teachers, but not schools, in September.

This study looked at children and basic computing. For example, the teachers evaluated the students' operational skills, such as basic keyboarding (e.g., locate specific letters, numbers, spaces), computer literacy (e.g., ability to turn on a computer, open a file), and word-processing (e.g., enter text, delete words). The researchers (Ross et al., 2001) were interested in two kinds of student experiences. They identified an "upward trajectory" (p. 144) for children from a teacher with lower teacher efficacy to a teacher with higher efficacy. A "downward trajectory" (p. 144) involved children moving from a teacher with higher efficacy beliefs to one with lower. Ross and his colleagues predicted that the children who experienced upward trajectory would have higher outcomes than those in the lower trajectory group on three measures. The three student outcome measures included basic computing skills, advanced computing skills, and computer self-efficacy.

To demonstrate basic computing skills, the children completed five keyboard functions and two basic operations. The child's teacher administered the computer performance tasks and identified the kind of support the children required in order to be

successful. The teachers employed a four point scale ranging from the number one that noted there were no prompts to the number four where the child required exact directions in order to complete the task. Teachers assigned all students' scores on computer performance tasks.

 For advanced computing skills, the children demonstrated word processing (i.e., from simple text entry to copying and pasting parts of documents), more advanced operations (e.g., closing a file), software application (e.g., loading a program, using a CD-ROM, printing segments of text material), and using graphics (e.g., changing color of font, inserting a graphic into a story). Once again, teachers used a four point scale to measure the children's success.

To identify the children's self-efficacy with computers, Ross et al. (2001) developed an interview protocol with ten tasks that mirrored the 22 computer tasks the children were asked to perform. The children could select one of three faces to identify their confidence with the task. For example, the teacher asked, "How sure are you that you can use a computer to save a file?" (p. 154). The child responded by selecting one of three possible choices: a happy face for "Yes I could", a neutral face for "Maybe" or a sad face for "I couldn't do it" (p. 154).

Drawing upon the literature on teacher efficacy, Ross and his colleagues (2001) hypothesized that students in the upward trajectory group would demonstrate improvement in the three areas measured: basic computer skills, advanced computer skills, and computer self-efficacy. After collecting the final surveys, Ross et al. (2001) analyzed the data. They conducted multivariate regression using students' basic and advanced computer skills as the dependent variable and focused upon the interaction of time with the upward and downward trajectory variables. Secondly, they reran the analysis using the students' computer self-

efficacy data as the dependent variable, once again viewing the interaction of time with the trajectory variables. In addition, they reran the analysis and introduced district variables. However, I selected to eliminate these findings from my review since they had little bearing on my study.

Ross et al. (2001) found that students in the downward trajectory group (i.e., students who had been taught by a teacher with high efficacy scores one year and then moved the next year to a teacher with low efficacy scores the next) did increase their scores on the advanced computer skills measures but at a "lesser degree than students in the upward trajectory (i.e., those who moved from a low to a high teacher efficacy classroom)" (p. 148). As for the children's computer efficacy, Ross et al. (2001) found that students in the upward trajectory group had a larger increase in their computer self efficacy than the students in the downward trajectory group. Although this study investigated the relationship of teachers' efficacy with students' performance and efficacy, I surmise that librarians with strong computer efficacy, along with ample opportunities to interact with the students, could also impact students' computer self-efficacy.

Ross and his colleagues did not report on correlations of the children's computer self efficacy with students' performance on the basic, advanced, and other areas of the computer. This information would have been helpful in considering if there is a domino effect on performance in situations such as these where the teacher's efficacy affects the children's efficacy. In my investigation I noted that when a child gained confidence with the computer, she or he was more willing and interested in using the computer for more academic purposes. Without more research, this remains an interesting observation, but not a conclusive finding.

Literacy as Learning about Language

As I noted in chapter 1, literacy is complex. Due to the denseness of this term, I contend that learning language, as indicated in the previous studies, is simply one facet in understanding literacy for children. An extension of learning language is learning *about* language because it is insufficient to have the ability to pronounce words, but not be able to make meaning. In much the same manner, merely having the ability to operate a computer is inadequate for evaluating information and gaining knowledge. Readers also need to make meaning, and arrive at pragmatic understandings (i.e., comprehension).

Learning *about* language may be a limitless category, but it includes understanding the special text features used by experts in particular disciplines, as well as an awareness of how to determine the quality and veracity of different sources on the internet. Learning about language also includes knowledge about rhetorical structures. Children need to learn about structures because some structures that children encounter are not naturally occurring. For example, Chambliss and Calfee (1998) noted that one rhetorical structure, exposition, "is an invention, an artifact, a construction" (p. 23). Therefore it must be taught as a part of learning about language. Without instruction about language, children will not be able to comprehend, even if they can decode.

When children are apprenticed in learning about language, they exhibit the ability to engage strategies flexibly in order to make meaning. Although not a comprehensive list, other markers of children who have been apprenticed in learning about language include asking questions, checking dates on sources, identifying the author's expertise, seeking intervention from others, locating additional sources, cross checking information, and a willingness to reject inaccurate or questionable sources.

One way to reveal how readers learn about language is to describe what they do. Another is to teach readers something new about language and measure the effects of the instruction. Therefore in this section, I begin by reviewing a study which investigated how children respond to texts in two rhetorical structures: narrative and expository (Kucan & Beck, 1996). Next, I review a study that describes strategy use and its impact upon the readers in a literacy classroom.

Children responding to two rhetorical structures. In my observations, I noted that children were able to express what kinds of texts they enjoyed reading. Observing the children's actions while they read printed or online information led me to recognize a pattern. Rhetorical structure changed the way children responded to the text they were reading. Others have also noted this pattern in their research. Building on a long history of literary theory, Kucan and Beck (1996) used the term "genre effects" (p. 259) to describe this event.

In their investigation of fourth grade readers, Kucan and Beck (1996) transcribed the think-aloud processes of four children while they read narrative and expository pieces of text. Knowing that "exemplars or instances of genres vary in their protypicality" (Swales, 1990, p. 49), Kucan and Beck used a "family of narrative texts and a family of expository texts" (1996, p. 265) in their investigation of developing readers' on-line processing. Using purpose as a determinant of genre, Kucan and Beck selected texts that had the purpose of informing through a variety of topics and disciplines for expository representations. To select narratives, they used the purpose of telling a story. Using this framework, Kucan and Beck selected texts in both genres that displayed a variety of subgenre traits.

All four readers selected for this study were considered average by their scores on standardized comprehension tests given at their school. However, the fourth graders' reading

habits were not identical. The two female participants, Angelica and Annie, indicated that they read daily. Neither Zack nor Joseph, the two male participants, read daily. Although Zack indicated he liked to read sports and humor. Joseph read infrequently and identified the newspaper as a text he sometimes read. I was attracted to this study because, like Kucan and Beck (1996), I was interested in investigating children of both genders and various types of readers. However, I was also interested in children who represented a spectrum of ability, race, and socioeconomic circumstances. But it was Kucan and Beck's focus on genre that made their study particularly valuable.

Over an eight month period, Kucan and Beck (1996) visited the fourth graders monthly, and had the children individually read ten excerpts (five narrative and five expository). Each excerpt was about 400 words in length. The children read directly from various trade books which were identified as having readability levels from 5.0 to 5.5. The researchers segmented each excerpt into about 15 parts by placing lines in the books where the students were to stop and talk about their thinking. Sessions were transcribed and analyzed.

Kucan and Beck (1996) classified the children's processing into five categories: paraphrasing, questioning, elaborating, hypothesizing, and monitoring. Although the difference in the narrative and expository processing were sharply different, there was also an important over-all similarity. Almost universally, the four children did not question the text. One of the female participants questioned during the first two narrative texts readings and the first expository text reading, but she did not question while reading either genre in the remaining seven excerpts. The other female participant also used questioning, but only with the final expository excerpt. Questioning represented only 5 % of her responses for that

think-aloud. None of the other children questioned the text in any of the ten excerpts. In my study, I also found that children questioned text rarely, if ever, regardless of their reading ability, experience, gender, or race.

Because of my own investigation, another area that I was interested in was how the children monitored their reading. Like questioning, I saw little evidence of children self-monitoring while they read. Kucan and Beck (1996) identified monitoring as "evaluating text information and their understanding of it" (p. 272). But they also used monitoring to indicate that the child demonstrated awareness of text structures. For example, one expository excerpt began with a poem and one child revealed her monitoring when she reported that the author was "sort of putting a poem about bees" in the text. (p. 272). Coding the process of monitoring provided Kucan and Beck with opportunities to see when children did and did not know what they were reading.

Although not quite as rare as questioning, monitoring did not occur often in the strategies the children employed with either narrative or expository passages. In reading Kucan and Beck's (1996) description of monitoring, I likened it to "click" and "clunk", two tools in Klinger and Vaughn's (1999) collaborative strategic reading (CSR) concept. With CSR, students use self-monitoring and are taught to recognize information they know ("clicking"), and identify what they do not understand ("clunking"). But in providing their findings, Kucan and Beck reported very few times when the children were metacognitive about knowing or not knowing what they were reading through the process of monitoring. For example, Joseph never monitored or questioned. He also was the participant who reported that he did not read very often. Zach, who liked to read sports and humor, used monitoring rarely but almost equally with exposition (8.3 %) and narrative (9.9%). However,

both female participants, who were more avid readers than the male participants, used monitoring more with exposition (i.e., 10. 3 % for Angelica and 11.1% for Annie) than with narrative (i.e., 6.5% % for Angelica and 8.1 % for Annie). Although they used monitoring more with exposition, both female participants used paraphrasing with exposition much more than monitoring (i.e., 52% for Angelica and 44.4% for Annie).

It is possible that a lack of instruction on the structure of exposition may cause students to paraphrase rather than to question or monitor their reading. Since paraphrasing often involved the children using, "The author says" or "It says here" (Kucan & Beck, 1996, p. 268), it is possible that the children did not feel confident questioning because they were unable to monitor their own understandings of the literary conventions of exposition. This seems to be a reasonable suggestion when considering Joseph, who did not choose to read. For Joseph, paraphrasing was the primary process he used (98.5 % with narrative; 93.5% with exposition).

Although Joseph demonstrated almost identical processing skills with both genres, I was very interested in learning about the differences for the other readers. Most of the reading and writing that occurred in my study involved exposition, and the artifacts often had errors that resulted from miscomprehending expository text.

Given my experiences with my own participants, I was not surprised to learn that Kucan and Beck (1996) found that there were overall differences in the ways children read narrative verses expository texts. With the exception of Joseph, the others used hypothesizing most frequently with narrative texts, and elaborating more often with exposition. Hypothesizing involved an inclination to guess what would happen. The children revealed their openness to conjecture with narrative texts, much more than with exposition. However,

with exposition, the children revealed a tendency to elaborate by referring to themselves or their families. Keene and Zimmerman (1997) identified this kind of processing as text-to-text, text-to-self, and text-to- world connections. In my study, one of my participants was more likely than the others to engage in these kinds of elaborations; however, she made these types of connection or processing with both narrative and expository texts. Therefore, I was interested in understanding this difference more completely.

Kucan and Beck (1996) defined elaborating as students making connections with their personal experiences. However, elaborating also included comments, opinions, and comparisons as well. In all cases, Kucan and Beck noted that elaborating was more focused on the personal knowledge of the child, than upon the text. They indicated that possibly some readers, through a strong association, place themselves into the text. However, Dewitz and Dewitz (2003) offered an alternative explanation. They noted that when students do not understand text, they use elaboration as a default strategy. This might better explain why the children in this study had a tendency to elaborate more with exposition, a rhetorical structure that needs to be taught, rather than the organic, story-like nature of narrative.

In addition to coding the children's online processing, Kucan and Beck (1996) compared the children's ability to summarize what they read. In all cases, the children scored higher percentages in their narrative summaries than in their expository summaries. In some cases the differences were dramatic. Annie, who reported that she liked to read daily, scored 93% when her narrative summaries were averaged. However, she scored a 40% in her expository summaries. Although Annie was an avid reader, who scored the highest of any of the children on the narrative summaries, she scored in the average range on the standardized reading comprehension tests. Her difficulty with summarizing exposition may provide a clue

as to why she was not performing higher on standardized tests, despite her excellent scores on narrative summaries. By grade four, content reading, often written as exposition, becomes more and more a part of the classroom literacy environment and the standardized testing environment as well.

Kucan and Beck's (1996) work indicated that there was much to be gained from listening to children, even in small case studies. Their thorough view of four developing readers provided helpful understanding of children and the genre effect. Lack of instruction with exposition may have contributed to these four readers' lower score in summarizing after they read expository texts. It seems plausible that teaching strategies would make a difference in children's comprehension. The next study explored the value of strategy instruction in children's literacy development.

Children using strategies. Strategies enable readers to achieve their goal of making meaning of the text. Good readers know and use strategies to enhance their understanding. Because most good readers are motivated, they put forth effort willfully to comprehend what they are reading. But to be successful, readers must be flexible in their ability to apply strategies to monitor and repair any disrupted meaning. As Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) documented, good readers use a variety of different strategies for different reading challenges. Therefore, a strategic reader is aware, thoughtful, and flexible.

Byrnes (2001) argued that strategies and processes that aid a reader should be "arrayed along a continuum of deliberateness and explicitness, with some being more deliberate and explicit than others" (p.167). But Luke and Freebody (1997) disagreed. Rather than a continuum, they supported a non-linear approach to using strategies, much like Halliday (1978). They explained that although their model did not provide easy, simple

answers, it fit well with the intricate array of texts and technologies available to today's student. Therefore, in constructing their model, Luke and Freebody (1997; 1999) avoided terms like "practices" or "strategies" purposefully because they contended that these words had connotations with a hierarchical, linear approach to reading.

Instead of "practices" or "strategies", Luke and Freebody (1997) used the term "roles" to allow for a flexible and fluid application that aligned more fittingly with the newly emerging hybrid texts and technologies. Drawing on a socio-cultural perspective of literacy, they designed a range of roles to engage both reading and writing. In their four resource model, Luke and Freebody (1997; 1999) identified four roles: code breaker (coding competence), meaning maker (semantic competence), text user (pragmatic competence), and text analyst (critical competence). As a code breaker, the reader used alphabetic code, patterns, and structural analysis. As a meaning maker, the reader's role required participation in understanding (i.e., comprehending) the text or graphics. To apply the role of text user, the reader used functional knowledge of the conventions of the text. He or she understood the structure of the text's order as well as how to use the structure to make meaning. In the role of an analyst or critic, the reader engaged in many of the expectations of critical literacy, such as acknowledging the power of language.

Whether readers' actions are called roles (Luke & Freebody 1997), strategies, or practices, spotting the strategic aspect of a reader is not always obvious. Guthrie, Van Meter, McCann, Wigfield, Bennett, Poundstone, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell (1996) argued that observing success in authentic literacy activities allows researchers to "infer the successful use of strategies" (p. 322).

Block's (1993) research in literature-based classrooms was able to capture how successful instruction of strategies assisted readers. Block studied three schools to investigate the effects of strategy instruction for elementary students. Each school had both experimental and control classrooms that were randomly assigned.

In the experimental classrooms, strategy instruction was explicit, student-centered, and allowed for student choice of objectives and materials. In addition the students self-assessed their learning after completing their reading. The intervention group received 16 strategy lessons twice a week for 32 weeks from research assistants. In the first part of the intervention, strategies were explained and modeled for the students. Each student received thinking guide instructions for each strategy and could reference these guides during the practices. In the second part of the intervention, students designed their own application of the strategies by self-selecting what to read as well as what strategy to use; students also chose their plan for demonstrating what they learned. Although research assistants were assigned to the control classrooms, they did not offer any strategy instruction. The Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) was used to assess reading skills, and post-experimental writing samples were used to measure the transfer to real-life situations. Additionally, Harter Self-Perception Profile of Children was used to measure social competence and self-esteem. Videotaped lesson from the last day of the study were also analyzed to view the use of strategies.

The experimental group scored significantly higher on reading comprehension, vocabulary, and total reading scores, using the ITBS results as a measure. There were statistically significant differences in the post-writing samples where students described something important they learned this year. When asked if anything they learned in school

helped them to solve problems outside of school, 92% of the treatment group, verses 0% of the control group, was able to answer this question by relating examples from their life outside of school.

The significantly higher scores on self-perception of social competence in the experimental group at the conclusion of the study are particularly interesting. At the beginning of Block's (1993) study, there was no significant difference in the two groups of students in the pre-testing phase. Yet after the intervention with strategies, the experimental groups showed significant gains in self-perceived competence.

According to Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003), children's perception of their competence is similar to self-efficacy, which Bandura (1986) defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (p. 391). Linnebrink and Pintrich also noted that one's perception of competence "plays an important role in student engagement in the classroom" (p. 136). In my investigation, I found that students' confidence and interest increased when they employed a strategy during their literacy events. In turn, the students became more invested in the literacy practices. Unfortunately, there were many occasions when the students were not equipped with strategies during their literacy experiences.

Literacy as Learning through Language

Like literacy, classrooms are complex. Although a classroom is a physical space where many social interactions affect the dynamics of literacy acquisition, it is also a cultural setting where the teacher and students negotiate power and authority, as well as language and beliefs, as they pursue knowledge. All of these issues, and others, are a part of learning through language.

In their vision for the future of literacy education, Moje and Sutherland (2003) endorsed learning through language as a central component. They argued that literacy must become a tool for negotiating what separates discourse communities. When this view is embraced, literacy includes children learning *through* language. In the process, children also learn how to participate in the world and contribute to society.

Literacy practices are one way children learn through language. Cairney (1995) regards literacy practices as situated in social interactions involving literacy. For example, literacy practices at school would be interactions between students and teachers; whereas literacy practices at home would include interactions between family and community members. In this section I begin by reviewing research that investigated literacy practices, or learning through language, within an elementary classroom. Next, I review research that examines the relationship of literacy practices that occur at school verses literacy practices that occur at home.

Literacy practices during content instruction. I was interested in understanding if literacy practices affect how children view the source and nature of knowledge. I was pleased to locate Kovalainen and Kumpulainen's (2005) research because they focused their study on how an elementary classroom community jointly constructed knowledge.

Using a sociocultural approach to literacy in this case study, Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005) examined the discourse that occurred within a Finnish classroom of 17 third graders and their teacher. The children represented a spectrum of socioeconomic backgrounds but their teacher was not representative of all Finnish teachers. He had a distinct interest in creating a classroom where there was "collective discussion and small group

activities" (p. 218). However, Kovalainen and Kumpulainen only analyzed instances of whole class interactions.

Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005) collected data by videotaping lessons from three learning situations: mathematics, science, and philosophy. Because the science lesson, more than any other, had similarity to the social studies/reading lessons I observed in the school library, I present the findings associated with this learning situation. I was particularly interested in how Kovalainen and Kumpulainen would answer their research questions about "the location and nature of knowledge constructed during the lessons investigated in this study" (p. 218). In my study, I found that the way children were instructed impacted their views on the source and nature of knowledge.

During the recorded science lesson, the topic was Finnish animals and fit with the curriculum, which aimed to broaden the children's knowledge about the kinds of species that lived in their part of the world. The teacher encouraged the children to select a topic within this area that appealed to them. For example, some children investigated the feeding habits of a particular animal, while others considered society's responsibility and relationship to the animal kingdom. The teacher and children discussed both content and research procedures. At the conclusion of the research, the children presented their findings with posters. The presentations were followed by a collective discussion.

Because Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005) were interested in the discursive practices of the classroom community, they used message units as their unit of analysis. Message units were considered "minimal units of conversational meaning" (p. 221), which enabled the researchers to analyze the source and nature of the conversation (i.e., who spoke to whom and for what reason). The researchers coded the following categories to identify the

discourse moves of the participants: "teacher-initiations (TI), teacher responses (TR), teacher follow-ups (TF), student-initiations (SI), student response (SR), and student follow-up (SF)" (p.222). In analyzing the message units, they coded ten functions: evidence negotiation (EVI), defining (DEF), experimental (EXP) where the speaker positioning him or herself using "I" or "we" pronouns, view sharing (VIEW) which included asking or sharing opinions, information (INFO) which consisted of asking for or providing factual information with little explanation, orchestrations (ORC) where someone took charge of managerial items, like turn-taking, non-verbal communications (N-VERB), neutral interactions (NEU), confirming (CON), and evaluations (EVA).

Although the over-all findings from the three learning situations indicated that both the teacher and the students initiated interaction (SI = 214 message units or 14.4%; TI = 338 message units or 20.2%), I was most interested in the findings related to the science lesson. During the science content lesson, the teacher initiation and student initiation moves were almost equal (TI = 17.8%; SI = 18.6%). Student response (SR) was the highest discourse move during the science lesson (36.3%), yet student follow-up (SF) was the least often used discourse move (3.8%). However, the teacher follow up moves were four times that of the students (15. 2%). In analyzing the teacher's follow-up moves, the researcher found that most often the moves were neutral. For example, as one child presented her thoughts on hunting lynx, other students began talking at the same time. The teacher did not ask the other children to stop talking. Instead, he asked the child speaking to hold her thought. Then he asked the children about the rules of participating in joint discussions. According to Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005), the teacher "implicitly remind[ed] the students that the whole learning community has authority and responsibility" (p.229). In this way, the knowledge of the child

who was speaking was affirmed by the whole community, not just the teacher. Following this incident, there were many student-initiated message units coded, which included elaborating, confirming, and providing feedback to the first child who had an opinion about hunting lynx. When the teacher allowed the discourse community to affirm one child's knowledge, other children added to the discussion. This sequence providing confirmation that all persons were considered to have knowledge in this community of learners.

The nature of the communicative functions within the science lesson provided insight into how knowledge was situated and understood by the students. There were four communication functions that were almost equally used during this lesson: VIEW (16.7%) where opinions are asked for or expressed, INFO (15.8%) where factual information or observation are asked for or provided, EVI (14.5%) which included providing or asking for evidence or justification, and DEF (13.2%) which indicated asking for and providing definitions, extensions, explanations and the like. Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005) did not sequence the communication function moves during this lesson, but these four types of communication provided some evidence to support the importance of combining facts, evidence, explanation, and opinion in learning about the topic. Furthermore, the lowest communications move was EVA or evaluation (2.9%) which inferred that the children were not judged for their contribution or meaning making.

Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005) posited that in classrooms where there is a sociocultural approach to meaning making, learning and instruction will more likely include social interaction and joint construction of knowledge. They called for more research on the interactive nature of classroom participation, as well as a need to explore longitudinal participation in a larger number of classroom communities. However, this qualitative study

does reveal that the type of discourse community established in a classroom impacts the way knowledge is constructed and understood. In my study, the discourse community was much different from the one described by Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005). However, they also constructed and developed an understanding of knowledge. In chapter six, I discuss this topic in depth.

   Literacy practices of school and home communities. Like Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005), Clairney and Ruge (1997), Australian researchers, viewed literacy through a sociocultural perspective. They acknowledged that literacy has many forms and purposes, but they affirmed that it is ultimately a process situated in sociocultural contexts and "defined by members of a group through their actions with, through, and about language" (p. 1.) Therefore, they explored the distinctions between literacy practices of schools and homes. They hoped that their work would determine if differences in these two communities had an impact on children's success in school. However, they were especially interested in identifying how differences in literacy practices shaped the conception of literacy.

   Clairney and Ruge (1997) selected 35 student participants to "reflect diversity in culture, age, social class, and membership of some specific target groups" (p.10) from four different schools. After piloting this concept, the researchers also asked one member of each child's family to become a part of the research team. Family member researchers gathered data from the home and community setting through observations, tape recording interactions, taking photographs, conducting an audit of literacy resources in the home, keeping a log of reading and writing activities, as well as audio recording certain habitual literacy practices (e.g., bedtime story reading). Given the elaborate expectation for data gathering, I was not

surprised when Clairney and Ruge noted that not all family members completed the data gathering fully. In addition, the children, parents, and teachers provided self reporting of their literacy practices. Outside of these measures, the researchers also interviewed the students, parents, teachers, and community members and collected data on student achievement from school assessments.

To gain perspective on the literacy practice in the classroom, the researchers (Clairney & Ruge, 1997) observed eight classrooms in four different schools on 82 days. As a result of early pilot research, they developed the following data collection instruments to aid in the classroom observations: a set of guidelines, classroom observation record sheets, and classroom observation summary sheets. They trained three research assistances in how to use these instruments and how to record extensive field notes. Researchers also collected copies of artifacts.

To analyze the extensive amounts of data they gathered, Clairney and Ruge (1997) began by constructing maps for each recorded event. These maps included compilations of information for each event: persons, roles and relationships of the participants, the time and space, the conditions for the communications, the goal or purpose, the outcomes, and notes of any links between home and school.

Using domain analysis, the researchers reviewed the event maps and identified patterns initially. By linking the patterns together, they were able to identify domains that appeared during the events. Along with the analysis of the event maps, the researchers also determined any sequential cycles that occurred during literacy events (e.g., how school work was accomplished at home). This process led to identifying "key literacy events" that "were significant in the formation and shape of school knowledge and success" (Clairney & Ruge,

1997, p.15). Once this was accomplished, the researchers could use these findings to locate matches and mismatches in the literacy practices of home and school. In the process, five major literacy structures were identified: exposition script, recitation script, elicitation script, responsive script, and the collaborative script. Each of these scripts represented a different kind of literacy practice. Exposition script referred to occasions when one participant was in charge of both initiating and maintaining speech while the other participant(s) were passive. In most cases, the participant who talked was an adult and the passive participant was a child. Exposition scripts appeared in all classrooms that were observed. However, the same type of literacy script was not found in the data from the children's homes, except in one family. However, the exposition scripts in this family were few, and they were much shorter in duration than the school exposition scripts.

In an example provided in their article, Clairney and Ruge (1997) displayed a transcript of a teacher talking to the students about the work they were about to complete. The teacher "specified what knowledge students were expected to 'find' in the text, but also how this knowledge was to be displayed in writing" (p.18). However, the researchers noted that the teacher "explicitly declined" to show a model. The teacher also did not provide a strategy for the children.

But recitation, not exposition, was the most common literacy script located in schools. Recitation scripts included a participant (most often a child) reciting or reproducing knowledge that was requested by an adult. In many ways, the description of recitation followed a pattern of adult initiating, student responding, and adult evaluation (I-R-E). This type of script occasionally occurred in the home literacy practices of many of the families in the study, and related most often to homework.

The elicitation script, which appeared in many homes and classrooms, involved some recitation of information but also elicited knowledge. For example, Clairney and Ruge (1997) provide a transcript of an aunt and a child discussing stalagmites. The transcript began like a recitation with the aunt asking a factual question, and the child providing an expected response and followed by the aunt's evaluation of his answer (i.e., "good boy"). However, the script did not end there. The aunt continued to elicit more knowledge from the child (i.e., "How come?") and the child extended his thinking and explained more. Although most elicitations involved an adult and child, a few examples involved the child in the controlling role.

Responsive script was an uncommon interaction. Following many of the traits of the elicitation script, the responsive script also involved exchange. However, the participants responded or drew on each other in the response. The researchers found that this type of script occurred only when two or three participants were together, and never in a whole class setting.

The final script, collaborative, was akin to the responsive script. However, rather than responding back and forth to gain knowledge, the participants in a collaborative script co-created. Found mostly in the home environment, the collaborative script can be exemplified by a mother and daughter talking while writing up a "to do" list for the day.

After Clairney and Ruge (1997) analyzed and matched the various kinds of scripts between home and school, they arrived at the answer to their question about how differences in home and school literacy practices shape the conception of literacy. To present their finding, they discovered four definitions of literacy situated within this study: literacy as

knowledge, literacy as performance, literacy as negotiated construction of meaning, and literacy as "doing school" (p. 25).

Literacy as knowledge involved students producing information directly taken from text in the school setting. It was derived primarily from the pervasiveness of two types of scripts, recitation and elicitation where one person had control or authority. It was also a construct found most often in homes of non-English speaking families when children were completing homework.

Literacy as performance was determined from scripts where children were expected to demonstrate their ability through a literacy-related task. In most cases, adults expected the performance. However, *literacy as performance* was also a construct identified through adult performances. For example, in one exposition script, a mother read a story to her son. Despite the son's comment (i.e. Wow!) at one point in the story, the mother did not stop but continued to read until the end of the story. When asked by the child if she would read the story again, the mother replied, "No." The child repeated his request and added "Please" but the mother replied once again, "No."

Literacy as negotiated construction of meaning was the third construction of literacy to appear in this study. It was related most frequently to responsive and collaborative scripts. The researchers noted phrases like, "I wonder" and "it might be" in the teachers' speech. These kinds of comments provided the children with opportunities to negotiate their knowledge. In the examples from specific transcripts, the teachers' use of these kinds of hedges typically led to longer comments from the students in response. This construction of literacy was found in classrooms where hand raising was not an expectation, and children were able to participate at will. In these classrooms, teachers did not control the turn taking

by calling names or recognizing speakers. As for families, this construction of literacy was rare, and appeared in only a small number of homes.

The final construction of literacy, *literacy as 'doing school'*, was isolated to the school communities. According to Clairney and Ruge (1997), this construction of literacy involved instances when the teacher focused more on the expected behaviors of the children during the literacy event than on literacy. For example, in one transcript, the teacher commented on the way the children were sitting during the story, "Are your legs crossed and your hands in your lap?" (p. 32). In this transcript, there was no evidence of literacy as negotiating meaning. The teacher announced that "when we are enjoying a new story we are not talking about it" (p. 32). Another example of this view of literacy included a teacher giving instruction on how to hold the text, rather than engaging in conversation about the text.

Through their research, Clairney and Ruge (1997) found that literacy is situated within different contexts. As such, literacy does not mean or look the same in every setting. But, as noted in their study, regardless of the setting, the definition of literacy was constructed and most often controlled by the adults, not the children. In their discussion, Clairney and Ruge (1997) indicated that school literacy can be both empowering and disempowering. However, one important finding from their work is that disempowerment can happen to all children, not only to those who have low socioeconomic status or limited English proficiency. They posited that "many children from the dominant and mainstream culture encounter a more restricted range of literacy practices at school than the literacy practices they engage at home" (p. 35). Clairney and Ruge extended their warning by noting

that although children may be doing well academically, they may be experiencing a

constrained and limited view of literacy.

As this section demonstrated, literacy for children is complex. Children must learn

language by understanding the graphophonemic code and the resources that house text. But

that alone will not assure their literacy acquisition. Children need to be apprenticed about

language. They must learn about the various genres and have strategies to understand the text

they decode. Because all learning is socially situated, children also need to learn through

language in environments where they construct their understanding of knowledge. As a

composite, these studies represent the complex nature of literacy learning for children in

today's world. Realizing the intricate nature of literacy, I focused upon the children in order

to discover how they experience and understand literacy. In the next section, I reviewed

studies that also took a childist lens in their research.

<p align="center">*Research Employing A Childist Lens*</p>

In this section, I review three qualitative studies that used both literacy exploration

and the perspective of children. They were selected because of their strong emphasis on a

sociocultural perspective of literacy (Gee, 2001). In the first study, I explain how one

teacher's use of children's experiences and understandings uncovered difficulties about

writing within the social space of a third grade classroom. I selected this study because of the

close proximity to the ages of the children to my study, and because Lensmire (1994) used

children's perspectives. In the second study, I present how kindergarten children respond to

an author's study (Paley, 1998). Although this study involved younger children as

participants, it explored the power of interest and literacy. In addition, Paley's work won the

1999 David H. Russell Award for Distinguished Research in the Teaching of English from

the National Council of Teachers of English. She also won the Virginia and Warren Stone

Prize which is awarded annually to an outstanding book on education and society by Harvard

University Press. The third study investigated popular literacies and children's perspectives.

Because Dyson (2003) noted that she was more interested in children, than the tasks they

perform, I found her work helpful in understanding my study.

Children's Perspective in Writing Workshop

Although Lensmire (1994) began his study in order to conduct research on his own

teaching within his own third grade classroom, his use of the children's perspective and

views became the focus of his case study. In his own words, Lensmire indicated that his

research focused "on the underside of our workshop community" (p. 2). He examined the

children's culture by viewing the roles of gender, status, and power distinctions among his

third grade students. Lensmire would most likely agree with Orwell's (1953) notion that

adults do not fully know the world of children. Lensmire's research provided an opportunity

to remember childhood through child eyes.

Lensmire (1994) gathered data for one year through field notes, memos, teacher and

classroom documents, audiotapes of writing conferences, interviews with children, and

children's artifacts (writing). Although he intended to study his experiences as a teacher as

well as the writing life of his classroom, his students' experiences dominated his findings. I

will focus my review on Lensmire's core focus: student intention and relations within the

writing workshop framework.

Through observation and analysis of his students' writing, Lensmire (1994) found

that writing was closely tied to social interaction and power. For example, Lensmire

chronicled one student named James, who saw himself as "the funny person" (p.48) in the

classroom. James's ability to use humor in writing often included using the names of children in his stories and illustrations. In addition, when sharing his writing, James performed his writing by using sidebar comments, raising his voice, and pointing out particular scenes to assure that the other children understood who was being mocked. Through his analysis, Lensmire noted that James used action within the classroom to exert his control over other children, and sometimes, the teacher. This same theme was apparent in James's writing where children were excluded or included to fit the power structure that James created. Because of James's socially elite position in the classroom, other children were impacted by his writing and performances. One of James's story included dinosaurs with names that mimicked his view of other children. The strong, powerful dinosaurs were named after James and his two friends. James named the weakest dinosaur William, which was also the name of one of the smallest boys in the class. James decided to call him "little squirt" (p. 66).

Lensmire (1994) identified this pattern as "disturbing" (p. 70) because of the negative impact on the other children. To analyze his finding, Lensmire noted that writing workshop was developed to "allow children to choose and pursue meaningful projects across the school year" (p. 70). Although James and the other children with equal social capital did choose and bring meaning to their writing, Lensmire recognized that powerful peer culture was also part of writing workshop.

As Lensmire (1994) re-visioned writing workshop, he warned that some children had prominent status in the classroom. Despite having dubious intentions, they were strategic and powerful writers. Through his study, Lensmire wrote of the paradox of the writing workshop. In attempting to change the pattern (and power) of teacher as authority and provide children with voices and space, a new elite authority developed. The child-writers struggled with

more than words and the craft of writing as they worked through social issues, such as gender, home background, and physical size. Ultimately, Lensmire drew the assertion that children in writing workshop classrooms were both vulnerable and assertive. Lensmire's ability to create space for viewing the children's voices, actions, and writing provided a level of understanding that required attention to what children experience and how they understand what they experience.

When the focus moved from the instructional process to the children's experiences within the process, Lensmire (1994) made new discoveries. His discoveries had large implications for teachers. In much the same way, in the next study, Paley (1998) learned about her instructional practices, not by focusing on them, but rather by focusing on her students.

Children's Perspective in Author Studies

In her final year of teaching, veteran Kindergarten teacher, Paley (1998) chronicled the voices of her students as they explored the work of author/illustrator Leo Lionni. Although this research had a unique format because it read like a narrative story, Paley indicated that the events were true. However, she noted, at times, the stories seemed surreal. Paley did not indicate that she had a specific research question but rather, she had a research purpose: to learn the culture of the classroom where she had been teaching for 30 years through the perspectives of her students.

Much like Lensmire (1994), Paley found that the children kept track of each other. Although Paley's classroom did not have the negative social disruptions that occurred in Lensmire's (1994) study, there was a child, Reeney, who had social power within the classroom, and shaped the literacy events. Other children were not focused upon as

completely as Reeney, but Paley (1998) presented their views and actions. The other children, however, tended to follow, and agree to Reeney's ideas. Therefore, even when Paley discussed the other children, she reinforced the powerful literacy position Reeney had in the classroom.

Paley's action research chronicled the year beginning on day one when Reeney, the student with the most social capital, entered the room. Paley demonstrated that Reeney had a strong sense of herself and used language comfortably in academic and social settings of school. For example, early in the year, another child in the classroom talked to Reeney with what she considered inappropriate language. Immediately, Reeney confronted the student, and explained the issue to her teacher.

Although Paley selected to read *Frederick* (Lionni, 1973) as a read aloud to her kindergarten students, she had not planned to read all of this author's works. However, Reeney's response to *Frederick* was intense. She used art, drama, and shared writing to re-tell and revise the book. Either Paley or her classroom aide, Nisha, recorded Reeney's stories. They discovered that Reeney's robust interest in *Frederick* was soon integrated into the other children's literacy events.

As the year continued, Paley completed more read alouds that focused the children's study of Lionni's books. Reeney, with her socially powerful position, requested that the class write to the author/illustrator and ask that he visit their classroom. In her ethnographic research, Paley described the children's emotional disappointment when they realized that Lionni was unable to come to their school.

 Despite dealing with the initial disappointment of not meeting the author, Reeney re-engaged the class by questioning other issues within the stories Paley read. For example,

after reading *Tico and the Golden Wings* (Lionni, 1964), the children viewed the meaning critically. The children asked and discussed questions about friendship, and how friends respond when someone acquires something special. In many ways, they were engaged informally in the strategy of "Questioning the Author" (McKeown, Hamilton, Kucan, & Beck, 1997). They also made text-to-text, text-to-self, and text-to- world connections (Keene & Zimmerman, 1997).

Paley not only researched through the child's perspective, she also instructed through the child's perspective. As the children became more engaged in all of Lionni's books, they created large posters and re-enacted the stories in the drama center. Their stories often mixed characters from various books with the children in the classroom. The melding of the children's literacy lives and the children's real lives was one of the main findings in Paley's work.

Through the author study, the kindergarteners discussed gender issues, socioeconomic struggles, friendship, the role of art in society, and the author's place in the classroom. Paley blended her own autobiographical memos into the research, in much the same way.

As she began the study on the first day of the year, Paley ended her study with the last day of the year. She recognized the children's voices even on the final day. At the children's request, she agreed to leave their Lionni art work on the walls for next year's children to see.

Paley's (1998) work reinforced the positive elements and difficulties of researching the children's perspective. Paley allowed the children's story to evolve naturally. However, my own research required much more structure because, unlike Paley, I had a particular

research question to investigate. Regardless, reading Paley's research was a reminder that children have social power, and the social structures within classroom affect literacy events.

Children's Perspectives and Popular Literacies in School Cultures

Having previously completed a number of studies in urban school, Dyson (2003) was comfortable in the setting for her study. The school had a diverse mix of children from a variety of socioeconomic areas. Dyson purposefully located a setting that was diverse, and a teacher who was experienced and interested in literacy expressed through the arts. For one academic year, she observed the children for four or five hours per week, during which she took field notes and used an audio tape to gather the children's conversations. As she focused on six children, she collected 440 artifacts. Dyson interviewed the children through conversations at the end of the observational period, but also during the observation if needed. But Dyson also listened and provided opportunities to hear the adults in the children's lives, including the teacher, parents, and other members of the community.

To analyze her data, Dyson (2003) focused on what she called, "children's productions" or "all of the child action and interaction that occurred during the production (and/or the interpretation) of text" (p. 22). Because Dyson was interested in how cultural literacies affected school literacies, she wanted to understand the genesis of the children's songs, stories, art, and comments. Relying on Bahktin's dialogic theory, Dyson borrowed language from rap artists to describe her findings.

Children, according to Dyson, come to school with their culture. Rather than learning the adult practices, active children begin by appropriating text that they knew and "recontextualize"(p. 178) them. Using the musical metaphor of "remix" (p. 177), Dyson claimed that literacy development was not about acquisition of a list of skills, it was taking

what was known and reshaping it with the new understandings. Contrary to many contemporary views, Dyson found that it was not the teacher's actions that engaged the students, but rather the children's desire for social participation.

The three qualitative studies provided helpful understandings of the role of the researcher, the data collection process, and analysis. In addition, the studies (Dyson, 2003; Lensmire, 1994; Paley, 1998) supported my thinking as I considered how to analyze and present my data. Because the studies also shared a sociocultural perspective on literacy, they reflected the definition of literacy I used in my study. Finally, they also assisted in the development of my research design.

All of the studies I presented up to this point in my literature review took place within a classroom setting. Because my own study's setting was not a classroom, but a school library, I investigated research on school libraries. In order to locate a quality school library setting, I began by reviewing current research that outlines the components of such a setting.

Research on Quality School Library Programs

In this study, I selected a quality school library as the setting for my examination of children's literacy activities. Although I provided the components of a quality school library in chapter 1, here I will provide the research that supported the definition. Within this section, I also present studies that provided insight to my understanding of how a school library enhances students' reading achievement.

Defining a Quality School Library

Lance and his colleagues (2000b) conducted a study of reading achievement and school library programs in Pennsylvania. They noted that students' access to a quality school library program predicted higher scores on the reading achievement component of the PSSA.

They indicated that a quality school library consisted of four components: staffing, collection, technology, and integration with the curriculum and standards. These four components have been supported as worthy of study by other researchers in the field.

Staffing. The concept that a librarian is important in an educational setting has historical significance. In 1868, Ralph Waldo Emerson made a plea to the Harvard College library to consider creating a new position which Emerson called a "Professor of Books" (Carpenter, 1990, p.10). Emerson noted that this new position was unlike none other at Harvard Library in the late nineteenth century. Previously individuals worked shelving, organizing, and checking out books for students, but in this plea Emerson requested social interaction with a knowledgeable person to sustain the students' intellect. Emerson's forward thinking is still profoundly important today and is manifested in Lance and his colleagues' (2000b) study of school libraries in contemporary times.

Lance et al. (2000b) found school library staffing was a predictor of PSSA reading scores among students in grades five, eight, and eleven. Additionally, after reviewing 75 studies on the impact of school libraries and academic achievement and completing six state school library studies, Lance (2002) indicated key findings about the staffing. Although previous studies indicated the importance of a professionally credentialed librarian, Lance noted that these correlations only spotlighted the need to know what the librarian is *doing* that makes a difference. Within his six large state studies, Lance found that the librarian performed three functions: learning and teaching, information access and delivery, and program administrator. These three functions were later clarified into four roles by the ALA (1998): teacher, instructional partner, information specialist, and program administrator.

As with all complex designs, these roles intersected each other, more than they remained separate entities. However, I will present each individually beginning with the learning and teaching role. Students performed better on achievement tests where the librarian "is part of the planning and teaching team with the classroom teacher, teaches information literacy, and provides one-on-one tutoring for students in need" (Lance, 2002, p. 3). Lance noted information access and delivery was a role that is consistent across the research. In this role, the librarian provides:

> quality collections of books and other materials . . . to support the curriculum, state-of-the-art technology that [is] integrated into the learning/teaching process and cooperation between school library media centers and other types of libraries, especially public libraries (Lance, 2002, p. 3).

Callison, Director of Library Science and School Media Education at Indiana University, indicated that librarians should have a "wide knowledge of resources and literature, an understanding of curriculum development, and use and application of technologies for instruction and information access" (1999, p. 39). However, he indicated that librarians must also develop and practice social skills. In essence, Callison called for a collaboration, which he described as prolonged and interdependent.

Callison (1999) specified the uniqueness of the term 'collaboration' by contrasting it with two other terms: cooperation and coordination. Cooperation was "informal, with no commonly defined goals or planning efforts" (p. 39). An example would be a librarian who read a story during a scheduled library visit. Both teacher and librarian came together briefly but not purposefully related to curriculum or standards. Callison viewed coordination as the middle ground of the three terms. Coordination involved some planning where the librarian

and teacher "make arrangements to plan and teach a lesson" (p. 39). But collaboration was markedly different. It was "a working relationship over a relatively long period of time . . . requires shared goals, derived during the partnership" (p. 39) By using the term partnership, Callison indicated that these professionals were jointly committed to the students' achievement and the curriculum.

Lance (2002) indicated another function that he viewed as a key aspect: program administrator. In this capacity, the librarian not only managed the library, but also was an advocate for information literacy with "the principal, at faculty meetings, and in standards and curriculum meetings" (p. 3). Within this role, the librarian was a trainer providing in-service programs on integrating information literacy into the curriculum and encouraging the best use of technology.

In numerous ways, successful librarians were the intellectual leaders in the school community. Lance and his colleagues' research (2000b) noted that librarians were not able to complete the demands of the roles unless they had effective support, both human and financial. When librarians advocated and invested in the goals of the school's academic life, they were thoughtful and proactive in providing needed materials, including print, non-print, and technology, as well as skills and strategies to access information.

Collection. There were a variety of studies on collections and their relationship to classroom libraries (e.g., Fractor, Woodruff, Martinez, & Teale, 1993; Martinez, Roser, Worthy, Strecker & Gough, 1997; Morrow, 1982; Morrow & Weinstein, 1982) however, there were fewer studies that specified school library collections. As stated above, the collection of books and materials in a quality school library program were selected to support

the curriculum and standards. In Pennsylvania, Lance et al. (2000b) noted that collections of information resources were predictive of reading scores.

Doll, an associate professor at the Graduate School of Library and Information Science at the University of Washington, authored several books and articles on school library collections. Doll (1997) noted that the number of items in a collection was previously used to measure quality. For example, she noted that the *Standards for School Media Programs* published by the ALA, indicated that an elementary school with 250 or more students should have 10,000 volumes. As Doll argued, this only set minimum guidelines, and did not assess the quality or condition of the collection. She argued that the timeline or schedule that the librarian used was one possible solid comparison area. For example, "Given the probable currency of the curriculum, if the average copyright date of books in the library media collection is about twenty years, there could well be need for updating the library media center collection" (Doll, 1997, p. 97). She suggested using a random sample and computing the average copyright date as one measure of collection quality. However, as Kletzien and Dreher (2004) noted, copyright was not always a useful criterion, since many kinds of books are not rendered ineffective by the date and, conversely, a recent copyright date does not assure accuracy of information.

Doll (1997) noted that less effective libraries had a "pattern of neglect with regard to school library media collections" (p. 100). The task of culling and expanding a collection impacted the school's academic life. Since a quality school library was a collaborative venture with numerous interested parties, it would appear that in such a library, students, teachers, students, administrators *and* librarians would evaluate the materials in the

collections and select new additions. One indication of the collection's integrity can be determined by the manner in which acquisition and culling occur.

Information technology. Lance et al. (2000b) indicated "the presence of a large collection of books, magazines, and newspapers in a school library is not enough to generate high levels of academic achievement by students" (p. 45). Lance and his colleagues noted that integrating information literacy into the school's standards and curriculum depended on more than "traditional library resources" (p. 48). When school libraries provided access to licensed databases, there was a statistically significant correlation (.408) with integration of information literacy into the activities of fifth grade students. Additionally, access to school libraries with integrated information technology is a statistically significant predictor of reading achievement on the PSSA, yet the correlation coefficient is exceedingly low (.148). In fact, Lance et al. (2000b) noted that the "most dramatic statistical difference between lower and higher achieving schools is in the area of information technology" (p. 53). In the Pennsylvania study, higher achieving schools had on average 40 to 50 computers, while lower achieving schools had between six and ten networked in the school library. Importantly, at the higher achieving schools, the staff of the library was also engaged in committees, in-service training, and teaching students how to access, both print and electronic resources.

Integration with standards and curriculum. In each of the above components, the issue of integration with the school's standards and curriculum made a difference to the success of students. Lance et al. (2000b) found that regardless of grade level, school library staffing increased access to computer resources, and in return, increased access to computer resources increased integration with the standards and curriculum.

In many ways, the integration component represented a domino effect that expanded from the staffing issue. In comparing high achieving schools with low achieving schools, Lance et al. (2000b) found that libraries in the high achieving schools had more weekly support hours, more teachers being trained by the library staff, and more access to licensed article databases.

In one of the few studies that focused on children's perceptions, Kreiser (1991) studied a group of fifth grade students. In this study, Kreiser investigated how an integrated and flexible curriculum design when using the school library would affect the students' attitudes toward the library, reading, and the way they utilized the library. Kreiser investigated six schools: three with curriculum integrated library programs and flexible scheduling and three traditional library programs with fixed schedules. Schools were matched according to enrollment and ethnicity. In addition, each school had a centralized media collection and a full time certified librarian. The three schools that had integrated curriculums had a minimum two-year history with the program.

Kreiser (1991) administered the measurement instruments to 68% of the fifth grade students in the schools with 209 total participants in the sample (105 in the integrated curriculum and 104 in the traditional library program). Kreiser's instruments were a utilization questionnaire based on the Purdue Self Evaluation System for Media Centers.

In addition, Kreiser (1991) interviewed 40 students from each library type. She asked four questions: "Who do you believe decides when you may use the library? If you could suggest something to be brought to the library what would it be? What do you like the most about the library? What do you dislike the most about the library?" (p. 41). She compared the answers based on gender and within each library program to locate common themes.

Kreiser (1991) found that there was a statistically significant difference in the utilization and positive attitude and library utilization. She also learned that minority and non-minority students in integrated library media programs had a more positive attitude toward reading. However, in the area of utilization, non-minority students were more likely to use the library in traditional programs, and minority students had greater utilization in integrated programs. Girls had greater utilization in both library programs, and higher attitude scores toward reading than the boys in the study.

To review, a quality school library program was defined in the research through these four components: a certified librarian with staff who integrates the rich print collection and information technology into the curriculum and standards (Lance, 2002; Lance et al., 2000b). In a quality school library, the librarian performs the role of teacher, instructional partner, information specialist, and program administrator (ALA, 1998).

Understanding Students in the School Library

There were very few studies that involved the children's perspectives within the school library. I selected to review Pitts's study (1995) because this work received the American Association of School Library's prized Highsmith Research Award, despite the fact that she studied high school, not elementary, students. However, similar to my study, Pitts (1995) suggested understanding students' behaviors in a library matters, and it is complex.

Pitts (1995) focused upon how the students made decisions when they had access to a large amount of information. In this qualitative case study, Pitts spent nine weeks with a class of 26 students who were assigned to work in groups to produce a video documentary on some aspect of marine biology.

Using observations, Pitts (1995) found students approached research tasks by using broad topics, rather than research questions or specific problems. They gravitated to familiar and interesting topics quickly. Pitts noted, "Almost instantly, the topic would be adopted" (p. 179). The teacher provided little support and noted that the "only way students could develop those skills was for them to figure everything out on their own" (p. 179). At no point was the librarian mentioned. Consequently, the students were unsuccessful users of the library resources, despite an attempt to integrate the library resources into the curriculum.

I will organize my analysis through the definition of literacy established in chapter 1 and include components of a quality school library program that could have assisted the students. In addition, I will analyze the social interaction component of this study.

Literacy as learning language. If the teacher and librarian had collaborated (as previously suggested by Callison, 1999), they could have scaffolded the search process. The librarian could have spent time with the students explicitly teaching strategies for creating a research question, searching both print and non-print materials. Through collaboration, the teacher could have assisted the students in organizing the data in order to understand the findings and present the video. However, in this study, when asked what kind of information they were seeking, students restated their topics or shrugged and answered, "I don't know" (Pitts, 1995, p. 180).

Literacy as learning about language. Despite a database of online journal, an electronic catalog system, and full texts available on CD-ROMs the students in this study struggled. In Pitts words, "Students did not know how to access journal articles" (p. 181). Interestingly, the teacher in this class had recently completed a master's degree in science education, yet did not know how to access information in journals. Once again, the

knowledge of the librarian in the role of information specialist would have assisted both students and teacher. In a quality school library program, the librarian devotes time to in-service teachers and work with students.

Literacy as learning through language. In Pitts (1995) study, the students were interested in creating the end result: a video. This interest in technology overrode the motivation to learn content. The technical aspects of the project "absorbed much [of the] student time and effort during the unit" (p.182). Jetton and Alexander (2001) found similarities when they investigated classrooms where using the Internet became the source of interest, "over and above any of the content" (p. 310). Because the students in Pitts' (1995) study focused on the final product, they were motivated to choose information that would be interesting in the production of the tape, not necessarily in learning information. Pitts noted there was little evaluation of information. Students viewed plagiarizing a source "as a reasonable and accepted way to add information to the final videotape" (p. 182). Open tasks do create motivation (Turner, 1995); however, without the braiding of knowledge and strategies, the motivation links to tangential products, not to the essence of learning or expanding subject matter knowledge.

Despite the students' team approach to this project, the true social interaction that would have benefited the results of their work was absent. This complex unit required a team approach among the *educators*, first and foremost. In a quality school library program, the librarian is an integral part of the school curriculum. The classroom teacher's role is as expert in the content area, but the librarian is the expert partner in the information technology aspect. In addition, the librarian, in collaboration with the teacher, can purchase materials for the collection that meets the needs of the curriculum and standards, but only if the librarian

also is a program administrator who studies the curriculum. Students in this study had access

to print and non-print materials, but they were unable to use the readily available materials

due to a lack of support for their learning.

Zora Neal Hurston (1942) wrote, "Research is formalized curiosity . . . poking and

prying with a purpose" (p. 74). In this chapter, I began formalizing my curiosity by

presenting the research that aided my understandings during my exploratory study of literacy

events in a quality school library program. Prior to presenting the specific details of the

methods in chapter three, I will provide a brief overview as a segue.

<center>Overview of Methods</center>

Using Dewey's philosophical view of the centrality of the child (1990) and the value

of educative experience, I constructed a research design for this investigation. I was drawn to

ethnographic research because it allows for observation, interview, and analysis by valuing

the interpretations of the participants. In addition, LeCompte and Schensul (1999a) indicated

that ethnography can serve four research purposes: "to better understand a problem, to

illustrate what is happening in a program, to complement quantitative data on program

processes or outcomes, to identify new trends" (p. 38). In particular, my study fit with several

of the purposes, but most specially with the idea that ethnography can be used "once a

program is in place to document and understand better what is happening in the program, and

to provide information on program staff and participants that can complement other,

quantitative data collected on the program" (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999a, p.39).

My study followed the tradition of other researchers (Dyson, 2003; Lensmire, 1994;

Paley, 1998) who selected the students' perceptions as the central lens. The primary focus

was the experiences and understandings of six children during literacy events in a quality

school library program over the course of one school year. My contribution to the literature includes a comprehensive view of the children through individual literacy portraits. The findings also provide an understanding of how diverse readers experienced the same context. This study will assist educators in decisions concerning instructional programs within school libraries.

Chapter 3

Methods

My study explored the following research question: How do fourth-grade students experience and understand literacy events in a quality school library program? In order to answer this question, I developed four subsidiary questions based upon Heath's (1982) definition of a literacy event as "any occasion in which a piece of writing is integral to the nature of participants' interactions and their interpretive processes . . . any action sequence, involving one or more persons, in which the production and or comprehension of print plays a role" (p. 93).

A) What is the nature of the literacy events?

B) How do children use texts during literacy events?

C) What artifacts do children produce as a result of literacy events?

D) What is the role of social interaction in the children's interpretive processes during literacy events?

An ethnographer's central concern is meaning. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) noted that "researchers who use this approach are interested in how different people make sense of their lives" (p. 7). One way to understand how people make sense of their lives is to select a particular view or lens. In this study, I could have viewed the quality school library literacy events through a number of participants: the teacher, librarian, parents, administrators, the children, or my own perspective. Because of my interest in children, I have intentionally selected their voices for this study. However in order to have a fully developed understanding, I also employed two perspectives.

Researchers employing qualitative methods often rely upon two perspectives: emic and etic. Pike (1967), an anthropologist, linguist, and poet, derived these two terms from an analogy to "phonemic" and "phonetic". He indicated that just as there are two systems to analyze language systems, there are two systems to analyze cultural systems. While phonemic refers to the "intrinsic phonological distinctions . . . meaningful to speakers of a given language" (Lett, 1996, p. 382), emic refers to the meanings individuals within the community give to their experiences. In contrast, phonetic analysis "relies upon the extrinsic concepts and categories that have meaning for scientific observers" outside the culture (Lett, 1996, p. 382). For example, linguists, who study and specialize in understanding languages, categorize the "th" in the word "this" as a voiced dental fricative and the "th" in "thing" as a voiceless dental fricative. These terms have meaning for those who study the English language, not necessarily for those who speak and use the language. Etic, therefore, describes the perspective of the outsiders, the researchers who employ their knowledge to the insider's experiences.

Pike (1967) warned researchers to fully acknowledge and understand the emic/etic distinctions. Emic structures he noted "must be discovered" (p. 38) and although the emic and etic data may appear to be synonymous, it is the researcher's viewing through both lenses that changes the understanding of what is found. Pike noted that the result is neither purely emic nor purely etic, but rather provides a third multi-layered view.

I began my study intentionally using an emic or "childist" perspective when observing and interviewing the students in this study. I was first introduced to the term "childist" in the scholarship of children's literature. Hunt (1991), an expert in literary criticism and children's literature, coined this neologism as a term to preserve the worth of

the child's eye. In considering this approach to scholarship, Hunt indicated that this term is somewhat analogous to a feminist view. Feminist views are not restricted to women, but rather include all persons interested in women's diverse perspectives and situations. Further, those who support a feminist view advance varied and wide-ranging research which considers any "issues of concern and matters for feminine inquiry" (Olsen & Clark, 1999, p. 356). Using parallel thinking to the feminist lens, Hunt (1991) noted that children's views must be engaged and heard in the research community. Therefore, by espousing the "childist" or emic perspective in my research, I intentionally selected the students' views as a lens in my scholarly inquiry.

However in order to understand the actions of the students, I also engaged an etic or outsider's perspective, particularly during analysis of the data. By applying my knowledge of literacy research, I employed models and ideas from literacy scholarship to make meaning of what I observed and heard in the interviews. In this way, I used an etic lens but *only* to gain a better understanding of the emic (i.e., childist) perspective. I did not bifurcate the two perspectives. However I discovered the students' experiences initially through the emic lens. Afterwards, I read and applied my knowledge of literacy to discern my findings, applying an etic perspective. During analysis, I layered both views to discover how fourth-grade students experience and understand literacy events in a quality school library program.

Another foundational quality of ethnography is a natural setting. Because the intention of this ethnographic study was to present a "bellwether or ideal case study" (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999a, p. 114), the natural setting had to be a quality one that possessed "all of the necessary components for program success or maximum presence of the characteristics of interest to the researcher" (p. 114). I selected a quality school library

program by using criteria identified by Lance et al. (2000b) as related to reading scores on the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA) combined with the guidelines adopted by the ALA (1998).

In the following sections, I present the specifics of the methods I used during the year- long study. To maintain both organization and chronological order, I begin with a timeline. Although my study began in late May, 2004, the actual data collection (i.e., observations and interviews of the six participants) did not begin until late September, 2004. Therefore, I created a timeline of the four months (Figure 1) that precede the data collection period. After presenting the timeline, I provide specific details under the following headings: site selection, participants, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Prior to the conclusion of the chapter, I describe a field trip I organized for the students, teacher, and librarian to thank them for their participation in the study.

Figure 1

Timeline from Early Site Selection through Data Collection

May, 2004	June	July	August	September, 2004

Gathered input from experts

  Selected four potential sites

    Reviewed resources

      Visited the four sites for interviews

        Compared sites

          Selected Library A

            Met with principal and school librarian

              Applied for school board approval

                Rec'd teacher/librarian consent

                  Rec'd school board approval

                    Observed the setting

                      Sent letters to parents/guardians

                        Met parents/guardians

                          Rec'd consent

                            Gathered rdg.levels

                              Selected students

                                Validated selection

                                  Rec'd assent

                                    Began observing

Site Selection

Bogdan and Biklen (1998) urged researchers to begin the process of site access well in advance of the study. Additionally they cautioned that "the location of your data sources can be critical" (p. 52). In the state of Pennsylvania, there are 2,234 public schools serving grades five, eight, and /or eleven (Lance et al., 2000b). Although the choices may seem plentiful, I designed a multi-layered plan that included using experts' suggestions, available electronic resources, and on-site visits with interviews.

The site selection process was vital to all other aspects of the study. As stated earlier, the process of selection was lengthy. I begin by presenting the early phase, exploration of sites, which is divided into three segments: using electronic documents to compare resources, using pile sorts to collect data, and using traditional interviews to collect data. After presenting the early phase, I compare the sites. Using a table (See Table 1) and a description of each of the four school library programs, I substantiate the selection of School Library A for the study's setting. I conclude the site selection section with three items that relate to the selection of Library A: an explanation of the steps taken to achieve access, background information on the selected teacher and librarian, and early observations of the setting.

Early Phase: Exploration of Sites

The purpose of the early phase was to locate several possible sites and to collect and display data for comparison. This section includes how I compared the resources using available electronic documents, as well as on-site research with pile sorts and interviews. After receiving approval from the University of Maryland Institutional Review Board, I contacted the Director of School Libraries at the Pennsylvania Department of Education to request a list of quality school library programs. The Director forwarded my request to the

School Library Development Advisors in the Division of School Library Services. The advisors provided two contacts within my geographic location. One school was eliminated because it served students in kindergarten through grade two, and my research interest was fourth grade students.

In their report on preventing reading difficulties, Snow et al. (1998) called for more research on fourth grader readers because of a national, recurring slump in reading achievement at this level. Recently released data by the National Center for Educational Statistic (NCES, 2005), indicated that in 2004, fourth graders had the highest median reading score at the 50th percentile than any prior years. In addition, there were statistically significant positive differences in the 10th, 25th, and 75th percentiles when compared to five years ago. This positive news was released as I was concluding my study of fourth graders. Although the welcomed report from the latest National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) was encouraging, my study provided another insight: the children's stories through their eyes.

Therefore, to expand possible sites that included fourth graders, I requested input from members of the Pennsylvania School Library Association via e-mail. The final list of possible sites contained six names. I reduced the list to four by using the geographic limitations of proximity to my teaching institution. With these expectations, I considered only those settings within a 65 mile radius from work. To begin the exploration of the four possible sites, I viewed and compared each site's resources, which were available as electronic documents. With this information as background, I later visited each site.

Using electronic documents to compare resources. Initially I investigated the school libraries by using the website of the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE, 2004),

which provided a wealth of quantitative data, including technology and library resources. I assembled the number of library titles for books, approximate number of titles checked out during the school year, number of online references (i.e., databases), number of CD-ROM titles, and computers available for student use, and computers with Internet access for all four school libraries. (See Table 1.)

Table 1

Technology and Library Resources in Four School Libraries (PDE, 2004)

Resources	Library A	Library B	Library C	Library D
Titles/child	16	30	32	21
Titles checked out/child	44	75	33	48
On-line References	3	9		8
CD-ROM titles/child	.21	.10	.16	.26
Lab computers/child	.21	.10	.16	.26
Classroom computers/child	.10		.07	.05
Library computers/child	.06	.24	.07	.18

In Table 1, I displayed an overview of the technology and library resources of all four school library programs. As indicated on the table, the four recommended school libraries had similarities and differences in their resources and technology. To understand if there was a deficit in the resources of any library, I considered how the resources fit together. For example, Library A had half the titles of Library C. However, the titles in Library A circulated at a much higher rate than the titles in Library C. Similarly, although Library B had no computers in the classrooms and the smallest number of lab computers per child, it had the largest number of library computers per child. Conversely, Library A had the lowest number of library computers per child yet they had the largest number of computers per child in the classrooms and the second highest number of lab computers per child.

When I recognized that comparing the number of resources was confusing and not as helpful as I had initially thought, I attempted one other technique. I viewed the empty cells. Library A and D had no empty cells. Library B had one but, as stated above, it was in the number of computers in the classrooms and this deficit seemed to be negated by the number of computers available in the library. Like Library A, Library C had one empty cell. But, this empty cell indicated that there were no on-line references in the school library. On-line references include the databases students can access for conducting research. Because access to technology that is connected to the curriculum was one of the elements of a quality school library, I had reservations about continuing to pursue Library C as a setting for my study. Despite this concern, I recognized that resources alone did not guarantee that I would locate a quality setting where students were engaged with the resources (McGill-Franzen et al., 1999). Therefore, I included Library C in the next stage. In addition, Library A and B had female librarians, while Library C and D had male librarians. By keeping Library C, I maintained gender diversity in the process of site selection.

I prepared and sent letters to the four school districts requesting permission to meet with the four librarians to discuss their possible participation. After receiving the permission of the school district administrators, I contacted each librarian via e-mail.

For the final part of the early phase of selecting the site, I visited and interviewed each librarian. In addition, I requested an opportunity to observe children in the school library. However, due to the end of the school calendar, I was only able to observe in one school library: Library A.

The librarians selected the date and time that suited their schedule. I sent an e-mail outlining what we would do when I visited. They were prepared to begin with sorting cards

about their work in the library and also to answer traditional interview questions. I also requested that they provide a tour of the facility.

Using pile sorts to collect data. Pile sorting is a data collection strategy analogous to word sorts often used with children during a word study (Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2004). Items are placed on similar sized cards to be moved about in response to questions about the items. Like word sorts, pile sorts explore relationships where "researchers ask each respondent to sort a set of cards or objects into piles" (Ryan & Bernard, 2000, p. 770).

I used the pile sorts to understand the relationships in the roles of the school librarian and also to understand the workings of the school library. Unlike interviews, using pile sorts provided physical movement of items that I deemed important from reading research. However, I also included blank cards and a pen if the participant identified other items. I word processed items on five by eight inch card stock paper, which I later laminated for durability. The flexible nature of the pile sort provided opportunities for informal conversation that extending my understanding of the setting.

By color coding the three pile sorts, I prevented confusion for the participants and for myself. For example, when I placed the cards for a particular sort on the table, all cards were the same color (e.g., blue) and used only for that particular question. After the blue cards were collected, I placed them back in an envelope, and green cards were used for the next question.

Because the librarians selected the time and place, they expected my visit. All four librarians expressed that they had limited time; therefore, I knew they wanted to begin the process almost immediately after my arrival. In all four places, I began with the first pile sort which involved the roles of librarians as distinguished by the ALA (1998).

The librarian and I sat next to each other on one side of a table. I showed the first pile of cards which had the following roles listed on individual cards for this pile sort: teacher, information specialist, program administrator, and instructional partner. As I placed the cards face up on the table, I asked each librarian to do the following: "Read these four cards and, whenever you are ready, place these in the order you believe best represents the time you spend on each role from most to least." By allowing the librarian freedom to move the cards in any direction or plane, I learned nuances about the position and roles. In the following excerpt, the librarian is demonstrating how one particular role is clarified by holding one role up above the other roles which were on the table:

> Actually . . . think of this [holding program administrator card in the air] card as a transparent sphere . . . [it] would be the outer casing and these three [points to teacher, information specialist, instructional partner] would kind of bump around inside – like a gerbil ball . . . really it depends on how narrowly or how widely you interpret 'program administrator'. I think anytime you are a lobbyist, you're a program administrator. If you are doing budgets, you're a program administrator, but I would say on a day-to-day basis, the things that I do the most are teaching and guiding. This [points to program administrator] is all encompassing (Librarian D, Interview, July 6, 2004)

This librarian had a unique definition and view of program administrator. Although I expected to see how his time was spent, I learned his perception of the roles. None of the other librarians had such a deliberate and unique comment.

I used two other pile sorts. In the second pile sort, I attempted to understand the librarian's collaboration with teachers. Once again, I presented the cards by sitting beside the librarian and placing the cards face up on the table, while I said, "Please place the four cards in order by the amount of time you spend on these collaborative activities with the faculty over the course of a school year. I will read each card as I place it on the table: identifying materials for teachers, teaching cooperatively with teachers, teaching information literacy to students, and providing in-service training to teachers."

In the final pile sort, I sought to understand how the librarian spent his/her time. Following the same format as with the previous pile sorts, I asked each to "place these items in order of the time you spend doing each in the course of the school year: meeting with the administrator, serving on standing committees, serving on curriculum committees, meeting with the library staff, meeting with the faculty, teaching students."

After organizing each pile in order of importance in her/his decision-making processes about the school library, each librarian then arranged the cards in the ideal. In almost every case, little change was made from the lived to the ideal. Since the pile sorts were identical for all the librarians, I was able to compare similar items across all participants.

Using interviews to collect data. The conversations from the pile sorts provided some idiosyncratic answers, which both enriched and complicated the selection process, as I report in this section. I found the pile sorts affirmed that I had located intentional and thoughtful

librarians. To provide another view of the setting, I developed a protocol for a traditional interview with the librarian. The interviews also provided triangulation for the pile sort information. I designed the interview protocol to map onto the research I outlined in earlier chapters (ALA, 1998; Lance et al., 2000a; Lance et al., 2000b). Therefore, I focused the interview on the elements related to improving reading achievement: staffing, print collection, technology, and integration into the curriculum.

Using a cone-shaped interview sequence (Fetterman, 1998), I moved from a wide perspective to a more narrow detailed view of the library. The interview included the following components: a grand tour question (i.e., "Tell me about the library."), specific structural questions (e.g., "How do you schedule students' time in the school library?"), and attribute questions (e.g., "How do you think the teachers in the school would describe the school library?"). Afterwards, I asked the interviewee if he or she had any questions for me or wished to share any other points.

With the signed consent of each librarian, I audio taped the pile sorts and interview sessions and transcribed the tapes within two days of the visit. To provide for member checking, I emailed the transcripts to the participants requesting any corrections or editing of the data. Librarian A and D responded and clarified the meaning of one or two sentences; Librarian B and C did not provide any feedback from the transcripts.

Comparison of Sites

To compare the sites, I created a matrix to display the data from the 56 pages of typed transcripts. (See Table 2). On the matrix, I displayed each library with three categories: context quality school library criteria, electronic resources, and librarian's roles.

Table 2 *Comparison of Research Variables in Four Possible Sites*

	A: Grades 3-5	B: Grades K-5	C: Grades K-4	D: Grades K-4
CONTEXT				
1. Geographic setting	Suburban	Small town	Rural	Suburban
2. Diversity[1]: % of non-white	47%	6%	10%	10%
3. SES: % of free lunch (state average = 22%)	25%	25%	22%	15%
4. PSSA/Grade 5 Reading Scores[2] (state average = 57%)	62%	59%	57%	63%
LIBRARY CRITERIA[3]				
1 Certified librarian	+	+	+	+
2. Support Staff	+	+	+	+
3. Rich print collection	+	+	✓	+
4. Electronic resources	+	+	-	+
5. Context w/in curriculum	+	+	-	+
LIBRARIAN'S ROLES[4]:				
1. Teacher	+	+	+	+
2. Instructional Partner	+	+	+	+
3. Program Administrator	✓	✓	-	+
4. Information Specialist	+	✓	✓	✓

Key = + high ; ✓ satisfactory/ adequate; - low

[1] National Center for Education Statistics (NCES): Diversity and SES
[2] Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE): PSSA Reading Scores that exceed set standards
[3] Lance et al., 2000b
[4] American Library Association (ALA, 1998)

To provide an understanding of the information found on Table 2, I provide descriptions of the four libraries based upon the table. In the final analysis, I could have selected Library A, B, or D. These three settings were quality school library programs. However, of the three quality library settings, only school library A had a large percentage of diversity. Because I was interested in selecting a site that had a diverse population of students, I selected Library A.

Library A. Unfortunately, neither the Department of Education nor the professional library association members named any urban schools in their lists of quality programs. School library A was the closest of the four libraries in proximity to an urban setting. Despite being classified as a suburban setting by the Department of Education, Library A was in a township adjacent to a city, and located only five miles from the State Capitol Building.

Most importantly for this study, Library A was situated in a diverse school population where almost 50% of the students were classified as non-white. The percentage of students receiving free lunch (25%) was slightly higher than the state average (22%) indicating that there would also be diversity in the socioeconomic status of the students. Since the PSSA reading scores of the fifth graders (62%) exceeded the state average (57%), Library A also represented the outcome Lance et al. (2000b) attributed to quality school library programs.

Lance et al. (2000b) noted that a quality school library would have specific criteria: a certified librarian, a library support staff, a rich print collection, electronic resources, as well as a context within the curriculum for technology. Prior to visiting the school, I knew that the librarian was certified and that sufficient resources were available. However, I needed affirmation that the librarian aligned the resources with the curriculum.

The librarian's use of technology provided evidence that Librarian A aligned

resources with curriculum. Having a full time aide to assume the circulation desk and clerical duties of the library, Librarian A had time and opportunities to use her professional and technical skills. For example, the librarian created a library homepage with links to the curriculum, school district and state initiatives, and databases to assist the faculty and students. In addition to the website, Librarian A purposefully categorized new material in the online catalog by considering the curriculum. For example, if a particular resource was added to the collection, Librarian A would link the new acquisition to areas of the curriculum that matched, such as reading themes or social studies units. If a teacher searched by reading theme or social studies unit, the new material would be included in the retrieved information. In this interview excerpt, Librarian A explained how she organized materials to assist all library patrons:

> On OPAC [online catalog], there is a feature in my cataloging to create categories. Both teachers and students know how to use our categories . . . that are visible to all library patrons [including parents] . . . These categories match reading themes, special classroom units that are outlined in the curriculum. When a teacher needs an item for a particular unit, they can do a subject or a "category" search . . . When I get new materials in the library, I think them through . . . in the themes or categories (Interview, May 25, 2004).

The final area of consideration was the librarian's roles. In order to determine if Librarian A was engaged in the roles as outlined by the ALA (1998), I re-read her comments during the pile sorts about her roles. It was often difficult to parse the roles into individual areas, but from her comments, I learned that she embraced all four roles: teacher, instructional partner, information specialist, and program administrator.

In the first interview, Librarian A indicated that she viewed teaching cooperatively with the teachers and teaching information literacy as reciprocal. Teachers did not view the time the students spent in the library as a "planning period". Instead, the teachers were always present with the students. Librarian A often taught the teachers how to use new technology, while she taught the students.

In the following excerpt, Librarian A discussed how she extended resources for the students and teachers through POWER library (i.e., an acronym for Pennsylvania Online World of Electronic Resources, an initiative of former Governor Tom Ridge and the Pennsylvania General Assembly). POWER library provides access to full text magazines, newspapers, reference materials, as well as current and historical photographs.

> When I teach the POWER Library, I always give the teachers and the students how to
> access from home . . . Everyone has personal research needs. We have a teacher who
> lives a good distance from a public library, and he has a son in middle school . . . and
> he says, "I can use that at home with my son instead of running out to the library all
> the time" (Interview, May 25, 2004).

Although Librarian A valued her role as a program administrator, she viewed it as less crucial than her role as a teacher, instructional partner, and information specialist.

> I touch base with my administration fairly regularly because I have to budget items,
> permissions, contacts. But I don't see it as taking major pieces of my time. I serve on
> two committees. I am the chair of the visiting author/illustrator committee every year.
> We meet but I spend a lot of time on that committee, communicating with the
> authors, and the committee, that sort of thing. Then I am also on the reading
> committee (Interview, May 25, 2004).

Even in conversation about her program administrator role, Librarian A returned to discuss curriculum in the above excerpt. I felt confident identifying her as high in the roles of teaching and learning as well as information specialists on Table 2. However after having interviewed Librarian D who viewed the role of program administrator in more robust terms (i.e., as a lobbyist, as well as an overarching role), I determined that Librarian A had a satisfactory rating in the role of program administrator.

In addition, I was able to observe Librarian A teach a fourth grade class in late May, 2004. The class I observed was the last lesson of the school year for the fourth-grade class, and the topic of the lesson was "Reading Possibilities for the Summer". During the lesson, I took field notes. Librarian A introduced four different programs to the children using a PowerPoint presentation. She introduced a county-wide public library program entitled, "Discover New Trails @ Your Library: Hit the trail with Lewis and Clark" which included opportunities to win prizes, such as tickets to the National Horse Show and tickets to baseball games. The children could also participate in the Patriot Newspaper program with weekly reading challenges, and a trip to Hershey Park if the projects were completed. The school district instituted their own summer literature circle program for the children, and a summer book cart was available at the elementary school's front office every day.

I confidently identified Library A as a quality school library program. But through visits and interviews, I found that there were other school libraries that were high quality as well. School Library B had many of the same components as School Library A.

Library B. Geographically, School Library B was the biggest challenge. It was 68 miles from my work and the route was heavily congested. My first trip to the school took one

and a half hours. However, once I arrived, I was pleased that I had taken the trip. The recently built school was modern and bright with open architecture.

Library B was located in a small town (borough) within the tourist hub of the Amish community. Recently the local Mennonite Church began assisting Russian immigrants in finding local housing, and the school increased to include about 6% Eastern European children in the school.

Similarly to School A, the percentage of children receiving free lunch was only slightly above the state average, and the Grade 5 PSSA reading scores (59%) exceeded the state average (57%) but by slightly less than School Library A (62%).

Library B had a full time certified librarian, and a support staff as well as a rich print collection. In addition there was a large computer lab adjacent to the library, and the doors between the two rooms were open most times for access to additional computers. The school board was considering a wireless option as well.

As to librarian roles, like School Librarian A, there were no weak areas. In the following excerpt, Librarian B, who was also the Social Studies Chair, noted that she volunteered for curriculum writing and loved the challenge of content literacy:

> Last year we piloted a science program that was linked with literacy and we had parents come in and we showed them how to read aloud easy non-fiction science books with the children and we did activities, and then they could take the books home. And they ended up with 15 hardbacks and the science materials (Interview, May 27, 2004).

Although Librarian B noted that she did not perform much program administration, she noted that her department chair was much more of a spokesperson for all the librarians:

>Our plus . . . is that our department head at the high school is very proactive. I won't say she pushes the principals around, but she stands her ground, she knows her information and she knows when she goes to propose something to the higher ups; they know she knows what she's saying. She has the background, the statistics; she is very good at putting things together with words. Plus we have had two very good administrators, who oversaw the elementary . . . back when we first decided to go with the flexible scheduling in 1989 (Interview, May 27, 2004).

Prior to leaving this school library, I knew that it was a solid choice. I mentioned the possibility of my future study and the school librarian expressed an interest. Later, when viewing the completed information on the matrix, I was further convinced that this site was worth pursuing despite the lengthy trip.

Two days after my visit, I e-mailed Librarian B the transcript of our conversation and thanked her for her time. I requested that she read over the document and return any comments or changes when she had time. She did not return any comments or revisions.

The next week after sending the transcript, I e-mailed the librarian and asked that she consider my request to complete the study in her school library. She sent one e-mail indicating that she was very busy, and would get back to me soon. She never responded to other contacts. I was disappointed because this setting had great potential despite the geographic issues. In a recent Pennsylvania School Library Association publication, I viewed a picture of Librarian B presenting at a conference. I assumed that she had other areas of interest than my study.

Library C. Studying Table 1, I was uncertain if it was worthy to visit and interview Librarian C. Because there were few male librarians at the elementary level and Librarian C was recommended, I set up the appointment. Through the interview process, I would gather more information to make a judicious decision.

Library C was located in the rural apple-growing region of south central Pennsylvania. As such, the area had a large influx of migrant workers during every growing season. Since the apple harvest is in the fall, many of the migrant workers' children began the school year at the local elementary school. With the increase in language assistance from the district, more families were settling permanently in the area. Because this was a rural district with no local public library, the school kept their library opened two nights a week in the summer, and teachers volunteered their time to keep the library open for the children and adults (Interview, June 9, 2004).

It was surprising to learn that the percentage of children who receive free lunch was lower than in the previous two schools (22%) and matched the state average. In addition the reading scores of the fifth graders on the PSSA were a perfect match with the state average of 57%. Unlike school A and B, the fifth graders were not located at this school but rather were a part of the middle school.

When I first entered the library, I noticed that half of the library was a large castle. The librarian informed me that he had constructed and painted it to add whimsy and fantasy to the room. The castle was the story telling and pleasure reading hub of the library, and the home of the Great Books program.

Librarian C was an animated storyteller and book lover, well versed in juvenile literature and picture books. However, the library setting was weak in the area of electronic

resources as evidenced in the tour where Librarian C noted that he relied upon filmstrips and slides, but had begun to teach PowerPoint to the teachers. In contrast, the other librarians noted that their students (even first graders at School Library B) were already using PowerPoint in presentations. Librarian C acknowledged that technology decisions were district-wide, and he had little input. There was nothing that indicated a context for teaching technology within the curriculum as evidenced in this selection from the interview. (In all transcribed dialogue, I represented my comments with the initials AV.)

> AV: What's the role of technology in this library?
>
> Librarian C: Well, my principal still calls me "the old guy". I try to hold onto some of the old but we are moving on. We do things with Power Point and computerized catalogs, some online searches (Interview with Librarian C, June 9, 2004)

Librarian C's answer to the question was ambiguous. He did not discuss the role of technology; he merely provided some examples of how the technology was used. Even when probed, his answers were unclear:

> AV: Can you talk to me about how you make decisions about the use of technology?
>
> Librarian C: Well, POWER Library is the model used throughout the library. With the computerized catalog, you have to come in to search.

The answer given did not match my question. In his response to my question about decision making, the librarian described items used in the library but did not discuss how decisions are made. Additionally, this library was the only one that did not have a website. Librarian C

noted that he did not use a website because he believed his best work was achieved when the teachers ask him face to face questions. He preferred to fill their needs, rather than identify things that may overwhelm the teachers (Interview, June 9, 2004). In this answer, I learned that working together was initiated only if a teacher expressed a need which did not fit with the role of a *collaborative partner* as outlined by the ALA (1998). A collaborative partner would be knowledgeable about the curriculum, and offer ideas and ways to meet the academic standards. In contrast to Librarian C, Librarians A, B, and D established user-friendly websites for the students, teachers, and parents. They also discussed occasions where they offered collaborative help without the teacher initiating the request. Their position was more closely aligned with the ALA, than Librarian C's view.

I was confident in eliminating Library C but realized that without a response from Library B, I was now left with one choice. Although School Library A was a quality school library, I wanted to be certain that I had exhausted all possibilities. I had difficulty scheduling an appointment with School Library D and had to wait until July to meet with the librarian. However, it was a worthwhile interview, with time well spent.

Library D. School library D was located in a growing suburban school district. When first built, the school won an award for its architectural plan which has many arched, rather than straight, hallways. As I entered the building, the library was the first room I saw with glass walls and wide open space. Similar to Library B, there was an adjacent computer lab; however this lab was larger and had more updated equipment.

When compared to the other three schools, this school had fewer low SES students with only 15% of the population receiving free lunch, about 7% below the state average. The reading scores of the fifth grade students on the PSSA (63%) exceeded the other three

schools and the state average. Like school C, the fifth graders were not in this school but a part of the middle school.

As I introduced the pile sorts, I learned that Librarian D also had a full time support person and parent volunteers. He was also the department chair for all the librarians in the school district. Librarian D viewed his roles as a "total package" when possible: "In the absolute, ideal world I think my role as a teacher would be synonymous with instructional partner and information specialist. An integrated whole" (July 6, 2004). Librarian D was firmly committed to collaborating with teachers in both planning and in implementing lessons:

> And even now when a class comes in with a pretty much focused subject, one of
> the things that has preceded that, is a meeting with the teacher where we talk about
> their objectives and what they want to accomplish. I find when working with
> teachers, it's best to focus on the product – what do they hope to get out of it once
> we're done. (Interview, July 6, 2004).

In addition, Librarian D was passionate in his views about technology, and like Librarian B, he volunteered to be on the curriculum writing committee with regards to technology:

> [There is] the tendency of students to say, "Well, if it's on the Internet, it's better than
> in a book." By keeping their focus in OPAC, when we look at resources, we look not
> only at local resources but we'll get things that are not local. So they will see them as
> co-equals. Um, one of the standing committees that I am on is the group that is
> writing the computer/technology curriculum. One of the reasons I volunteered to be
> on that was just so I could make sure that we focus on using subscription databases,
> rather than doing Google searches (July 6, 2004).

Through the pile sorts and the interview, I was confident that this setting was a quality school library program. When I mentioned my study to Librarian D, he immediately indicated his interest.

As I considered my decision and viewed the information on the matrix, I realized that Libraries A, B, and D had the ingredients of a quality school library. In many areas, these three sites were similar. All three districts had higher than average reading achievement scores, but Library A and B had a higher percentage of low SES. Library A remained the only setting that had close to 50% diversity in the student population. In addition, Library A was the only site where I was allowed to observe a class. I decided this site would be a wise choice and began the process of gaining access to begin the study in the fall of 2005.

I considered it an ethical responsibility to explain my decisions to the unselected librarians. They had provided their time and information to the study, and deserved to understand my thinking process. I contacted Librarian C and D via email. First, I thanked them again for their helpfulness. Secondly, I indicated that I had selected another library due primarily to the diversity of the student population. Although there were other reasons that persuaded me to not select Library C, I shared the most significant reason for my decision. I did not contact Librarian B because she had not returned any prior messages or contacts after our initial interview. Both Librarian C and D returned my email with a kind response and wished me well in my research.

The Selected Site

By identifying the best setting possible given my limitations, I had completed a substantial phase in the study, but gaining access to the site was not automatic. I was confident in my selection of Library A (pseudonym: Lewis Elementary) as representative of

a quality school library program for my study and pleased that the librarian was interested in my study. But I needed to proceed through the school district's protocol in order to begin the study in the school library.

Gaining access. To facilitate the process of gaining access or permission to complete the study in the selected school, I contacted the principal of Lewis Elementary, Rhonda Jackson (pseudonym). Not only did Ms. Jackson express her support, but she indicated that she and the librarian had selected two fourth-grade teachers for possible participation in the study. Only one of the two teachers was interested in joining the study. Serendipitously, this was the same teacher whose class I observed in May, 2004. The principal informed me that I needed to contact the Assistant Superintendent and receive school board approval in order to have access to the school library for my study.

In late July, I wrote a letter to the Assistant Superintendent and requested permission for the study. The next week I received a kind reply. The principal had already contacted the Assistant Superintendent and my request would be placed before the school board in August for approval.

With approval pending, I began the process of knowing the adults, both the teacher and librarian, who would be a vital part of understanding the experiences of the fourth-grade students in the coming academic year.

Acquiring background information. On August 18, 2004, I met with the selected teacher and librarian. Together they represented forty-six years of teaching experience. Both educators were essential to selecting the student participants and the data collection. Their brief biographies provide context for the selection of the student participants.

The 2004-2005 academic year was Fran Coleman's (pseudonym) eighth year as the school librarian at Lewis Elementary. A tall slender woman with a gentle southern drawl, Fran explained that she had a varied background, both in her own education and in teaching experiences. In addition to a Bachelor of Arts degree in Elementary Education, Fran held a Masters of Library Science degree. Prior to moving to Pennsylvania, Fran Coleman taught third, sixth, seventh, and eight grade students, remedial reading for grades one through three, middle school English, and served as a teacher for academically gifted students in grades six through eight. Previously, she was a school librarian in both a middle and high school.

Mae Sun-Ya (pseudonym), the fourth-grade teacher, graduated with a Bachelor of Science degree in Elementary Education, and was pursuing a master's degree at a nearby university. Prior to beginning her teaching career, she worked as a sales representative in the insurance industry. She had thirteen years teaching experience at Lewis Elementary and was nominated for two awards: The Governor's Excellence in Teaching Award and the Disney's American Teacher's Award. In addition, Mae Sun-Ya was a member of the Math/Science Alliance, the Math Committee, and the Student Competencies Committee in the school district.

Once in conversation, Mae indicated that she was proud of her last name and preferred to be called Mrs., not Ms. Therefore, I selected a comparable Thai pseudonym for her surname and, I will refer to her as Mrs. Sun-Ya in this document.

Mrs. Sun-Ya was open and helpful throughout the year, despite an unexpected family situation that developed in the fall semester. In early November, Mrs. Sun-Ya shared that her husband had accepted a position in Florida, and their family would be moving. She kindly affirmed that my study was important to her, and she had committed to working throughout

the year with me. I was humbled by her decision to be separated from her husband in order to continue in the study. Mrs. Sun-Ya and her daughter flew to Florida the evening of the last day of classes in June, 2005 to rejoin her husband.

At our first meeting, both Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman reviewed the study, and willingly signed the consent forms and agreed to assist in selecting the student participants, provided I received the approval of the school board. One week later, on August 24, 2004, the Assistant Superintendent contacted me, and indicated that my study received the approval of the school board.

Although I did not have consent forms from the parents and/or guardians, I did have permission to observe the library program, but not specific children. While I worked to acquire parental consent, I also began early observations of the setting as context for the observation of the students.

Observing the setting. In this section I briefly describe my decisions about early observations of the setting. I present an expanded framework and my understandings of the library program early in chapter 4.

School libraries have numerous dimensions (Dressman, 1997); but as I considered my early observation of the setting, I reminded myself that the setting in this study would be an ongoing and fundamental aspect. In addition, the setting was carefully selected, as described earlier in this chapter. Recognizing both points, I determined that I would terminate the initial phase of focusing on describing the setting as soon as I collected the consent forms from the children. Once I had the signed consent forms, I would begin formal observations of students. To use the time prior to observing students as judiciously as possible, I took digital

photographs of the library, explored the website, collected and read the "material culture" (Hodder, 2000, p. 703).

The study of material culture has developed into "an impressive volume of research activity, the publication of a new international journal, the *Journal of Material Culture*, and a flood of books, edited collections and papers devoted to this theme" (Tilley, 2001, p. 268). According to Hodder (2000) material culture is a diverse category extending from texts to ritualistic behavior to the construction of physical items, but ultimately it can be bifurcated to "two areas of material meaning" (p. 706). One area of material culture is "designed specifically to be communicative and representational" (p. 706). The most distinguishable example in this type of material culture is written texts. However material culture may also have meaning based upon practice and are considered "evocative and implicative" (p. 708). One example would be the paintings or art work throughout the setting.

As Denzin and Lincoln (2000) noted it is not possible to have a conversation or interview this "mute evidence" (p. 635), but rather researchers must discover meaning, and importance by interpreting the texts, objects, and/or artifacts. Regardless of the type, Hodder (2000) noted that material culture must be interpreted "in relation to a situated context of production, use, discard, and reuse" (p. 706).

In the library setting, I was able to both read the material culture, and also ask questions of the librarian to better understand the meaning of these documents from her perspective. Additionally, I observed how the material was used whenever possible. Importantly much of the material culture I read during the pre-observation of the sample set of students was written or selected for the teachers in Lewis Elementary. Since my study did

not include observation of teachers in the library, I only observed times when Mrs. Sun-Ya used the material culture.

Primarily, the kinds of material culture that I read included text written by the librarian, such as recommended reading lists, a list of fourth grade suggested collaborative lessons correlated with the state reading, writing, and research standards. However, I also read other types of material culture that were prepared by the school district or commercially prepared brochures on specific data bases, such as the New Teacher Orientation brochures, NoveList K-8 resources, and POWER library information. In addition, I viewed and took digital photographs of the paintings, posters, graphics, and placement of objects within the setting. As noted earlier, these will be more fully described in chapter 4.

From this three week observation period, I affirmed that the setting had elements that were consistent, but also areas that changed frequently. Therefore, each observation throughout the year involved a description of the setting including those areas that remained intact as well as notable changes. These early observations of the setting also assisted in creating a routine for the observations that began once the students were selected. For each observation during the school year, I arrived approximately 30 minutes before the children, and completed the following task: set up the lap top computer where the librarian recommended, and walked around the library with my notebook to note changes in the setting.

Participants

In this section, I explain the process of selecting the students who participated in my study. My goal was to select a sample set of six students who represented a diverse mix of genders, race, reader type (i.e., ability, motivation, interest), along with other factors (e.g.,

English Language Learner/ELL, learning disability, giftedness). In this section, I discuss how I secured a large group of possible participants for the selection of the sample group. Next, I describe how I gathered information about the reading abilities of all available students, and used a matrix to display and analyze the data. Before the final selection of the six students, I demonstrate how I validated my selection process.

Receiving Parental Consent

After securing approval from Ms. Jackson, Lewis Elementary principal, to distribute explanatory letters and consent forms to the parents, I asked Mrs. Sun-Ya to select the most appropriate time to send the material home. Mrs. Sun-Ya suggested that attaching these documents to other materials that she sent home on the first day of classes would assure that most parents and/or guardians would read the material. She also invited me to attend Back to School Night on September 8, 2004 where I met the parents, briefly explained my study, and offered to answer any questions. There were none. By the end of the evening, all parents, except one who was not in attendance, signed the consent form.

Gathering Information about the Participants as Readers

To select six participants from twenty-three possible children, I gathered information about reading abilities to assist in the decision making process. In this section, I explain how I used teacher ratings and Terra Nova Reading Scores to begin to the selection process. Because I was selecting students at the beginning of grade four, I used third grade Terra Nova test results.

Similar to McKenna and his colleagues (1995), I used a matrix to display information during the selection process. I began with teacher's input and requested that Mrs. Sun-Ya list the students in order from high to low ability readers. Mrs. Sun-Ya divided the list into three

groups: above average, average, and below average readers. This list became the vertical axis of the matrix. (See Table 3.)

For the horizontal axis of the matrix, I used the students' Terra Nova Reading scores from April, 2004. Originally I intended to use the PSSA results because Lance et al. (2000b) indicated that a quality school library program predicted higher achievement on that particular standardized test. However, at the time of my study, the Department of Education reported PSSA scores for third grade students by school only, not by individual students. Therefore, I used Terra Nova individual reading scores.

On Table 3, all students' names are pseudonyms. I placed pseudonyms of the six students who were selected to be participants in the study in bold type. The details of the selection process follow Table 3.

Table 3

Mixed Matrix of Teacher's Reading Ability Ranking and Terra Nova Percentile Scores

Terra Nova →	100	95	90	85	80	75	70	65	60	55	50	45	40
Teacher Ranking ↓													
1. Caitlin				x									
2. Jamal			x										
3. Esther	x												
4. Sofia				x									
5. Alex													
6. Jacqie	x												
7. Martin											x		
8. Ian						x							
9. Andrew		x											
10. Terrence													
11. Carly								x					
12. Julian											x		
13. Madison					x								
14. Demont								x					
15. Garret									x				
16. Elizabeth											x		
17. Trey												x	
18. Ashleigh											x		
19. Kayla		x											
20. Kamia									x				
21. Julian								x					
22. Lester										x			
23. Anthony											x		

The vertical axis of Table 3 is Mrs. Sun-Ya's ranking of her students by reading

ability. The students' Terra Nova reading percentile scores are displayed on the horizontal

axis. After displaying the information on the mixed matrix design, I shaded three boxes to

represent students who were ranked high on both teacher ranking and the Terra Nova test

(High/High) , students who were in the mid range on both assessments (Mid/Mid), and

finally students who were ranked low on both assessments (Low/Low). I selected two

students from each shaded box to provide a wide range of reading abilities, as evidence in

two measures: teaching ranking and Terra Nova reading scores.

Selecting Students

To achieve a diverse sample set, I wanted a mix in the areas of reading ability,

gender, race, reader type (e.g., interest, reading experiences), along with other factors (e.g.,

English Language Learners/ELL, learning disability, giftedness). After reviewing the

information displayed in the matrix, I needed more information to achieve my goal of

achieving a diverse sample. I proceeded with the selection process by meeting with the

teacher and librarian for one hour.

While seated in the school's courtyard, we discussed the students in Mrs. Sun-Ya's

fourth grade class. Maintaining that only two students could be selected from each shaded

box on the matrix (Table 3), we began the selection process. Knowing we wanted a mix of

genders, we first viewed the names of the students who were ranked as high ability readers.

There were three boys in the group designated by Mrs. Sun-Ya as high ability readers. In

determining which of the three might be a wise selection, I noticed that Jamal (all names are

pseudonyms), an African American boy, was the only male student who also had a high

percentile ranking in the Terra Nova test (90th percentile). Although the two other boys were

also ranked as high ability readers by their teacher, they did not fit the high percentile

ranking on Terra Nova scores. Alex was new to the school, and had no Terra Nova scores

from the prior spring semester. Martin scored low on the Terra Nova Test. In conversation

with Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman, I learned that Jamal was identified as gifted at the end

of third grade, but was just beginning the program this year. Both the teacher and librarian

agreed that Jamal would be a good choice for the study.

To complement Jamal as another High/High reader, I selected Caitlin, who had a twin

sister in another fourth-grade classroom. Caitlin, a ten year old Caucasian, was ranked first

by her teacher, yet her Terra Nova score was in the 82nd percentile. Importantly, Caitlin was a

student the librarian noted as the most avid and eclectic reader in the class:

> I was just talking [about] a book . . . it's called, *Hitty: Her First Hundred Years*
>
> (Field, 1929) which is an adaptation of a 1930 Newbery book. And it sat on a library
>
> shelf for many, many years, and anyway . . . I said "Have any of you ever read *Hitty:*
>
> *Her first hundred years*?" Finally, a hand went up – and what they [referring to
>
> Caitlin and her twin] read is just, it's so surprising because they don't read the
>
> popular literature necessarily. They go and, deliberately make choices . . . when they
>
> come to the library. (Fran Coleman, Interview, September 23, 2004).

I felt confident that Caitlin was not only a high ability reader, but also was dissimilar to

Jamal because she was not in the gifted reading program.

In selecting two students from the Mid/Mid range, I noticed there were eight names

listed by Mrs. Sun-Ya as mid range readers, but only four also had matching mid range Terra

Nova scores. Three out of the four names were boys. I selected Ian, a ten year old Caucasian

boy, from the top of the mid/mid range of the matrix for several reasons. He, like Jamal, was

identified as gifted. However, his Terra Nova reading score was in the 73rd percentile. Mrs. Sun-Ya also noted that the speech pathologist met with Ian weekly due to difficulty with articulation. But primarily I selected Ian because of a memorable first meeting in the library. I noted Ian's strong preference for reading expository material, particularly science magazines. Since I was hoping to locate diversity in as many ways as possible, Ian represented a reader with a developed interest. Both Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman approved of Ian as the third choice.

To complement Ian, a Mid/Mid reader, we selected Demont, a ten year African American boy. Demont scored at the 64th percentile on the Terra Nova Test but Mrs. Sun-Ya suggested that I add him to the selected list: "You'll like Demont, he's an average student and very nice." (Interview, September 23, 2004).

In selecting two readers from the Low/Low range, I told Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman that I wanted two female students because we had selected two males in the Mid/Mid range. In my final group, I wanted an equal number of girls and boys. Elizabeth, a nine year old Caucasian girl, scored in the 51st percentile in the Terra Nova Test. Mrs. Sun-Ya noted that in third grade, Elizabeth received Learning Support and this year she was being monitored to see if she could succeed without the additional assistance because she had made progress. Once again, I considered this information helpful in selecting diversity among the selected students.

As I searched for the final student in the sample, I noted that Mrs. Sun-Ya ranked Kamia as the female student with lowest reading ability. However, Kamia scored higher on the Terra Nova (60th percentile) than the other female students in the Low/Low range. For this reason, I was drawn to Kamia as a possible addition to the sample. Since I previously

selected three Caucasian students and two African American students, I was pleased to learn that Kamia was an African American. Mrs. Sun-Ya later indicated, "[Kamia] is about the same reading level as Elizabeth." (Interview, September 23, 2004).

At the conclusion of our discussion, we grouped six participants together to represent a diverse sample: Caitlin, Jamal, Ian, Demont, Elizabeth, and Kamia. To affirm that the group was eclectic, but also representative, I asked the teacher and librarian to assist in creating a Title Recognition Test (TRT). The TRT is a "quick measure of reading experience" (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990, p. 733). After presenting the results from the TRT in Table 4, I explain the specifics of creating and analyzing the TRT.

Table 4

Selected Participants, Teacher Ranking, Matrix Range, and TRT results

Names	Ranking	Level	TRT Titles Identified	TRT Foils Not Identified	TRT Total Score
Caitlin	1	High/High	20/24	15/15	35/39
Jamal	2	High/High	15/24	12/15	27/39
Ian	8	Mid/Mid	4/24	15/15	19/39
Demont	14	Mid/Mid	5/24	13/15	18/39
Elizabeth	16	Low/Low	3/24	12/15	15/39
Kamia	20	Low/Low	11/24	8/15	19/39

For Table 4, I extracted information from the whole class matrix (Table 3) and placed the teacher's ranking and matrix level in the first two columns of Table 4. The last three

columns contain data from the Title Recognition Test (TRT) which was a checklist-with-foils survey of trade book titles.

Validating Selected Participants with the TRT

The Title Recognition Test or TRT measured the differences among children's reading outside of school. In the TRT developed by Cunningham and Stanovich (1990; 1991), there were 39 items. I created a similar checklist with 24 actual titles and 15 foils. As suggested by Cunningham and Stanovich, I selected titles that "were not prominent parts of the classroom reading activities" (1990, p. 735) or school curriculum. I asked the teacher and librarian to review the titles I selected and make suggestions. Because I have taught children's literature at the undergraduate level for over a decade, I felt confident that I had knowledge of classic, award winning, popular, and recent trade books published for children.

Mrs. Sun-Ya administered the survey by reading the directions orally as the children read along with her. Afterwards, the children read silently the list of titles and checked only the ones that they knew were actual books. The children were told not to guess. Mrs. Sun-Ya gave the TRT to all the students because she thought it would be helpful to her assessment of the children. One student did not have a consent form to be a part of the study; I did not receive nor request those results. A copy of the Title Recognition Questionnaire is displayed in Appendix A.

For this study, the TRT was the third measure I used in selecting students as participants. It also provided assurance that a diverse group of readers had been selected. Although considered a "robust predictor of individual differences" in reading experience (Echols, Stanovich, West & Zehr, 1996, p. 302), the TRT does not measure how much a child reads. Echols et al. cautioned that the outcome is indirect, but noted that behaviors such

as the ability to identify a title are "indicators of immersion in a literate environment" (p. 297).

The scores on Table 4 affirmed that I had selected a varied group of readers for the sample set of participants. The mean score for the 21 students who took the TRT was 21.5. Caitlin (High/High reader) scored 7 points higher than anyone else in the class. Because she was identified as the most avid reader, this score corresponded to her profile. Jamal (High/High reader) was 7 points above the average score, but 8 points below Caitlin, with two other students (females) scoring higher than he did. Although Ian (Mid/Mid reader) and Kamia (Low/Low reader) scored the same on the TRT (19/39), their strengths were in direct contrast. Ian identified fewer titles (4/24 or 16.6%) but did not select any foils (15/15 or 100%). He was selective and parsimonious distributing only four checks on the list. Kamia, however, selected more correct titles (11/24 or 45.8 %) but chose more foils (7/15 or 46.6%). She distributed 18 checks. Demont, a Mid/Mid reader, scored one point less than Kamia and Ian. Finally Elizabeth (Low/Low), who was being monitored for learning support, attained the second lowest score in the class. She identified only three actual titles and selected three foils.

As I considered the results, I realized that the TRT scores were not perfectly aligned with the teacher's ranking, For example, Kamia, ranked last in the group of six, scored better than two other children in the sample. However, I was not concerned because I used this measure to identify the children's reading experience and exposure to books. The results indicated that the sample set of students was indeed diverse in reading exposure demonstrated by a twenty point spread in the raw scores.

After determining that the process for selection of participants was valid as indicated by the TRT, I met with the six children. Chapter VI of the Institutional Review Board Guidebook (Penslar, n.d.) indicated that the "special vulnerability of children makes consideration of involving them as research subjects particularly important" (Children and Minors, ¶ 1). Therefore, I carefully explained the procedures to the students, read the assent form aloud, and asked the children to read along with me. At the conclusion of our conversation, all students signed the assent forms.

Data Collection

The purpose of this ethnography was to describe the experiences of the students during literacy events in a quality school library program, and to provide the students' understandings of the events. As stated earlier, I began the process by observing the setting for three weeks in order to have a sense of the library program prior to observing the students' actions. In this section, I specify the data collection procedures: observation of participants, post-observation interviews, interviews with the library model, and interviews with artifacts. During data collection, I maintained an emic perspective, trying to gather information about my participants through my participants' eyes. Although the focus of this study was the children's perspectives, I also describe how I collected data on the adults' (teacher and librarian) perspective. I also present a preview of how the data were analyzed. A more elaborate view of data analysis follows the data collection procedures section. In order to provide a graphic overview, I created a table (Table 5) to display the number of data collected month by month as they occurred.

Table 5   *Overview of Data Sources Collected During 2004-2005*

	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	Total
1. Field note										
Setting	5	2	4	2	2	2	2	3	3	25
2. Observe										
Group A	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	8
3. Interview										
Group A	1	2	1	0	1	1	1	1	2	10
4. Observe										
Group B	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	9
5. Interview										
Group B	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	11
6. Artifact										
Interviews	0	6	0	0	0	3	3	0	6	18
7. Interviews										
w/Library	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	7
8. Librarian										
Interview	2	2	1	2	0	0	2	1	1	11
9. Teacher										
Interview	2	2	2	2	0	1	1	1	1	12
Total	13	16	11	8	6	10	12	11	24	111

In Table 5, the columns represent the months of the data collection and the rows note the data collection procedures I employed. Within each cell is a number that indicates how many times I used that data collection procedure within the month. As evidenced in the table, I collected over 100 data sources throughout the year.

Observations

Observing the participants involved a combination of written description, and memos using a laptop computer and notebook when it was necessary to move about the room. The memos included questions for interviews, background for additional data collection, notes for future research, or ideas that linked to prior research, as well as reflections. Specifically, writing memos aided my later coding, and assisted in my thinking process. I will be describing the memos more fully in the data analysis section.

My interest during observations was the action of the students during literacy events. Because I had previously experienced field noting in a library, I realized that there would be challenges. In previous experiences, I likened myself to the family dog at a picnic, randomly following everyone in pursuit of any morsel. To avoid this complication, I divided the six children into two groups. Each group had a student from each reading ability pair: High/High, Mid/Mid, Low/Low.

I alternated observing the groups on each visit. Later, I combined the data on the dyads to achieve an over-all display of each set of reading abilities experiences in the library. Although this will be explained more fully in the data analysis, I will briefly clarify the procedures with an example. At the conclusion of the study, I placed data from the High/High reader in Group A (Caitlin) and added data from High/High reader in Group B (Jamal) to equal one year of data on a high ability reader. I observed group A seven times,

and group B eight times in the school library program. On two occasions one of the children in the observed group was absent, and I did not record data for that day.

Both the librarian and teacher suggested that I introduce myself to the children on the first observation day (September 9, 2004). I talked with all the fourth-grade students in Mrs.Sun Ya's class, and commented on the excellent library program at their school. I acknowledged that I wanted to know what fourth-grade children did in such a setting. I shared that I also wanted to understand what they thought about their work in the library. I explained my note taking procedure with both laptop computer and notebook. I noted that I planned to ask some of them questions, and record their answers with a tape recorder.

As the year progressed, the students noticed my presence. Many would wave or smile at me when they entered. Once they took their seats, they did not appear to be distracted by my presence as I sat on the edge of the group of tables. For each observation, I divided the time into five-minute segments, moving my eyes from one child in the triad to the other and noting what they were doing. During the group lessons, this was not complex because the children were seated in one area; however, when the children moved to do research on the computers or make book selections, keeping track with five minutes intervals was unwieldy. Therefore, I attempted to position myself to view all three children, and move my eyes back and forth. More than occasionally, I would also join a child to view her or his work. When this occurred, I found that a specific child became my focus, and I lost track of the other two children. I eventually defined a code for "unknown" to use on these occasions.

On occasion, children outside of my sample group asked for my attention. This was inevitable. Although the children in my research sample were my focus, the other children also added to my understanding. Eventually, the children seemed to be comfortable when I

stated that I was taking notes and could not talk at that time. In retrospect, I would have revamped my participant selections to be more like Fyfe, Lewis, and Mitchell's (1996) design where they used all the students in one class, and allowed the informants to develop more naturally.

After each observation, there were three follow-up procedures. The most immediate was interviewing the children I observed. The interviews took place either directly after the observation or, on occasion, during the observations. This process will be discussed more fully in the next section. In the second follow-up procedure, I transcribed any handwritten notes, and combined them with the notes taken on the computer during the observation. The third follow-up procedure involved analyzing the notes by reading, re-reading, coding, inscribing notes to focus the next observation, and creating questions to ask the students, teacher, and/or librarian in future interviews. A more full description of the third follow-up procedure, analysis of the observation, is presented later in this chapter.

Post-Observation Interviews

In the beginning of this chapter, I discussed the importance of the emic perspective, which depends upon the voices and meaning of the participants. Therefore, in order to maintain an emic/childist perspective, I interviewed each student in my focus group after (and sometimes during) every observation. Much like Dyson (2003) I attempted to not interrupt the children's literacy event, unless necessary. These interviews were informal, short, and focused conversations. Similar to Turner (1995), I interviewed as close to the time of observation as possible. Usually as the children were lining up to return to their classroom, I asked the three children I observed to stay a little longer. To allow the children to talk privately, we sat at a table away from the circulation desk, and I recorded their comments

into a tape recorder. Because the observations typically ended around 2:45 p.m. or 3:00 p.m. as the school day was ending, the children did not miss instructional time by staying longer for my brief interviews. None complained or indicated that the interview conflicted with the teacher's expectations. Throughout the year, I frequently checked with Mrs. Sun-Ya to confirm that the timing of my interviews was not interrupting the academics of the class. Knowing that I was going to interview three children, I kept the individual interviews to three to five minutes in length. By spacing the interviews out in the final fifteen minutes, I made certain that it was rare for a child to wait to be interviewed. However, if a student did have to wait, he or she typically spent the time reading a library book or magazines.

Establishing a comfortable rapport with the children was essential to the success of my interviews. If the students were at ease with my presence, they would be more likely to answer questions openly. I intentionally developed a friendly relationship with the children by asking open questions at the beginning of the interview. I also reminded the children that I was their storyteller and what I was writing was through their eyes. Only one child (Demont) was reticent to open up in conversations. He often did not share if other classmates were around him. I made certain that our interviews were private. However, he eventually became more comfortable with sharing and sought me out for conversations.

Fetterman (1998) suggested that ethnographers use "open-ended questions during the discovery phase and . . . closed-ended during confirmational periods" (p. 44). Because the observations allowed me to learn what the *experiences* during literacy events were, the protocol for the interviews was focused upon the children's *understandings* of the experiences. I used the following questions:

1. Why were you in the library today?

2. What did you do in the library today?

3. How did you know how to do that?

4. Was there anything or person who helped you today in the library?

5. How did . . . (insert answer from last question) help you?

6. What are your thoughts about your time in the library today?

7. If you had a choice, was there something else you would have liked to do today in the library?

8. Is there anything else you want to talk about today?

Open-ended questions were ongoing, but, as I noticed patterns and wanted to confirm observation, I used closed-ended questions intentionally. The children's actions were the source of questions but their understanding was my objective in the interview. For example, in early May, 2005, I attempted to disconfirm a pattern that I had noticed concerning Elizabeth. In addition, I was attempting to understand how Elizabeth perceived an experience that seemed to be a pattern.

In my notes, I found that Elizabeth repeated one literacy event often: she spent time at the computer taking a quiz or checking on her progress with the Reading Counts online quiz software program. However, I often lost track of her and wanted to confirm or disconfirm that this was what she did at the computer. In this interview, after I began with an open-ended question ("What do you do when you go to the computer?"), I used a closed-ended question to confirm and understand ("Oh, Reading Counts, are you taking quizzes when you do this?")

AV: Elizabeth, what do you do when you go on the computer in the library?

Elizabeth: Reading Counts.

AV: Oh, Reading Counts. Are you taking quizzes when you do this?

Elizabeth: Yeah I do quizzes or I check my points. (Interview, May 5, 2005)

In using questions that evolved from prior coding, I verified patterns during interviews. However, I became intrigued when I discovered that post observation interviews were verbal snapshots of the students' understandings about their experiences. This idea became the base for writing the literacy portraits which will be presented in chapter 5.

Finally, I also interviewed the children after Jacqueline Woodson, a Coretta Scott King award winning author, visited the school for two days in April, 2005. Ms. Coleman organized the author's visit, book signing opportunity, and she prepared the children for Woodson's presentation. Therefore, I considered this event to be a part of the school library program. I attended Woodson's presentation, and took field notes. Later that day, I interviewed the children about the author's visit in the school. I began by asking them to describe the visit and then followed up with two questions:

1. What will you remember about Jacqueline Woodson's visit to your school?

2. Why do you think Jacqueline Woodson was invited to speak to you?

One of the students, Caitlin, won a school-wide writing contest and joined Ms. Woodson for a luncheon and discussion. Although I did not observe the luncheon, I did interview Caitlin about the experience.

Interviews with the Library Model

If a school had a quality library program, I predicted that the library would be a busy and perhaps congested space. Therefore early in the process of designing this study, Dr. Chambliss, my advisor, and I discussed ways to provide the students with a place to discuss the literacy events outside of the actual library space. Landreth (1999) commented that using materials that allow children to explore real life experiences through manipulation encourages children to express themselves. In addition, Bogden and Biklen (1998) encouraged researchers to use "visual devices" (p. 167). The notion of creating a replica seemed both plausible and helpful.

As noted earlier, I began reading the material culture, and taking digital photographs during the first few weeks of the academic year. I used the photographs to create a replica of the school library. By writing an internal grant from my teaching institution, I funded an undergraduate student as a scholar intern on this project. In addition to the digital photographs, I drew basic sketches and took measurements of the school library in September, 2004. The undergraduate student and I created a diagram, and gathered materials based upon my photographs and sketches. The scholar intern constructed the small, but nearly identical, model of the school library (Figure 2). I also photographed the children, librarian, and teacher to create small laminated figures to fit the dimensions of the library.

Figure 2

Photograph of the Library Model

The library model was used exclusively in May after I had collected a sizeable amount of data on the students' experiences during literacy events. As noted earlier, my intention throughout the study was not simply to describe the students' experiences during literacy events, but to discover the students' *understandings* of the experiences. I used the model for one group interview with the students, and six individual interviews, one with each student in the sample set. The principal allowed me to use a small resource room for the interviews. Because space is at a premium in this school, I had to schedule the interviews with the model for May 5, 2005 when a small resource room would be open for use. After I audio and videotaped the interviews with the library model, I transcribed the tapes.

There were four reasons to create and use the model with the participants. First, I had predicted correctly: the school library was perpetually busy, and there were very rare occasions when children and adults were not in the library in some capacity. By using the library model and small figures of each student, I was able to place the student back into the experience that I had observed without using the actual library setting. Then by questioning and listening, I was able to learn the student's understandings of the experience.

Second, I wanted the students to have an opportunity to talk freely about the library by using a model, instead of the actual setting where other adults and students might be listening. I was pleased that the playful nature of the figures and model provided a less restrictive environment than the actual library. Like Landreth (1999), I found the children were willing to express themselves using the model.

Third, I also wanted all the participants together for an interview where I used the model and figures to demonstrate actions that I observed in my study. This provided interplay in the participants' conversation and a more corporate view. Because the children

were in a group for part of the final interview, a type of folktale (literally: story of the folk)

developed. Without the model, the six students would have had less freedom because they

would be sharing the actual library space where other students would be working. In

addition, the students may have presented a noisy distraction in the library during the

corporate interview.

The fourth and final reason for using the interview process with the model was to

provide an opportunity to verify some of my speculations (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Prior to

the model interviews, I had created conjectures about the students' understandings of their

experiences in the library. By replicating moments in the library, I was able to note points

that matched my previous thinking, as well as new understandings.

The protocol for the individual interviews with the model included four questions.

1. If someone new came to your school, and it was your job to show them

    around the school library, what would you do and say? Use this model and

    figures to show me.

2. Use the model to show what part of the library is the best place for you to

    learn in the school library? Why is it the best?

3. Where is the most knowledge located in the library?

4. Is there anything else you'd like to share about your school library?

In each individual interview, I also placed the laminated figure of the child in various places

in the library, describing incidences that I had observed, and asked the student to talk with

me about what they understood about that experience. For example, Demont spent time in a

particular area of the fiction section; I placed him at that point, and asked him to talk about

what he might be thinking while standing in that part of the library. Information about the

student's individual perceptions is presented in the literacy portraits in chapter 5.

For the group interview, I asked the six children to first set up the library as it would appear on a typical library session. They were to talk with one another and set up every student from their class into the library, as well as Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman. I videotaped and audiotaped their conversation about the process. Once the children had placed all the figures into the model, I first pointed to each child's individual figure and asked that child to explain why he or she selected that placement. Next, I pointed to various sections, and asked the children to explain why that particular child was in that section. Whoever placed the child in that area typically answered my question but often others responded with additional thoughts. Afterwards, I asked all the boys to work together, and all the girls to work together and determine where the most knowledge was located in the library. I gave the children three post-its to label as first, second, and third most important knowledge sources. After they completed the task, each gender group presented their thinking. Then I asked the children to work together, and corporately make the same decision. Finally, I asked all the children to sit by an easel with chart paper, and help me to list their favorite experiences in the library. Afterwards, we talked as a group about why they liked certain experiences. As each child left the room, I presented him or her with a novel and bookmark that I specifically selected to match her or his reading interests.

After transcribing the interviews involving the library model, I analyzed the students' comments by clustering the comments that explained previously coded behaviors in the observation. I also noted those areas of the interview with the model that related to previous post-observation interviews.

Interviews with Artifacts

Artifacts are a type of durable material culture (Hodder, 2000). Specifically, the artifacts in this study represented what was produced as a result of the school library program. During the year, the children produced two artifacts through their work in the school library program: a brochure on a country and a biography of a famous Pennsylvanian. In addition the students completed various worksheets. For example, the children completed a worksheet of questions in preparation for a class discussion on what it means to be a hero.

In order to have a sense of what the children produced as a result of their library program, I asked the six students in my sample group to maintain a folder of the work they produced if it related to time in the school library. I provided the storage bin with hanging folders, and placed it on the window ledge of the classroom. After the children completed any project where they used the school library, they placed the artifact in the folder. This did not require any additional work or time. The storage bin was an innocuous addition to the busy classroom materials, and none of the other children in Mrs. Sun-Ya's classroom asked me about it. I asked each student if they were uncomfortable placing their work in the bin, and none indicated a problems with the plan.

Hodder (2000) noted that material culture "can be given new meaning as it is separated from its primary producer" (p. 709). Recognizing this possibility, I decided to interview the children twice with each artifact they produced through their work in the library. Initially, I interviewed the children after the artifact was completed, then I interviewed the children again using all the artifacts in late May during the final interview. I realized that I was not separating the artifact from "its primary producer" but I was re-presenting the artifacts to the child after a separation of time from original production. In

addition, I also presented all artifacts together, rather than individually.

Interviews with the artifacts took place outside the teacher's classroom at an oblong table in the hallway. In the first interview, I focused upon the artifact the student had recently completed and I derived the questions from the particular project. Afterwards, I photocopied or took digital pictures of the children's artifacts.

In addition, I collected a few artifacts that were produced by individual students in my sample that *related* to the school library but were independent from any particular class assignment. For example, Ian prepared and delivered a book talk over the intercom to the entire school in March. His review was also presented on a bulletin board outside of the school library for the school community to read. I procured a tape of his announcement, took a digital picture of the bulletin board, and interviewed him about this literacy event. No other child in the sample group produced this artifact.

The following protocol merely guided my interactions with the students and their artifact; I varied the conversation by children's responses and the nature of the artifact.

1. Tell me about your work.

2. Why did you do this?

3. What did you have to know to complete this work?

4. What helped you to know . . . (insert answer from question 3)?

5. What kind of other help would you have liked to receive?

6. Is there anything else you want to tell me about your work?

The verbal reflections of their school library work captured the individual experiences of each reader. All observations and interviews were transcribed within a week of the recording.

During the final interviews, I asked the students to reflect on the year in the library, and to talk about the work they completed through the library program. These questions guided my conversation, but varied with each student due to her or his individual responses.

1. [Prior to showing the artifacts] Thinking about the whole year, what kinds of projects did you do throughout the year?

2. [With all artifacts in front of the student] Which of these pieces was your best work? Would you talk about why you think this is your best work?

3. When you were researching, how did you know if a source was useful?

4. When you were researching, how did you know if you had enough information for the project?

After the interviews with the artifacts, I transcribed the tapes. Afterwards, the primary goal of analyzing the interviews with the artifacts was to learn what meaning the students gave to their work throughout the year. I also analyzed the artifact interviews to discover why the student selected a particular artifact as their best work. In chapter 5, I selected particular artifacts that help to crystallize each student's literacy events. Analyzing the artifact interview provided a trajectory to the experiences I previously observed and coded throughout the year.

Meetings with Adults

Like Dyson (2003), I knew that the adults needed to be included. In order to gain the perspectives of the librarian and the teacher, I planned bimonthly lunch meetings. However, due to my January term teaching schedule, I was unable to schedule the lunch meetings that month. Although we were not able to meet twice in every month, I organized 23 lunch meetings over the course of the academic year. In addition, we shared numerous informal

conversations. Through these formal and informal meetings, I gained opportunities for sharing and questions (mine and theirs). The goals of the lunch meetings were to maintain communication, foster a positive relationship, and gain perspective on the teacher's and librarian's objectives. Without the adults' viewpoints, I would have been unable to analyze the children's comments. Lastly, although not a research goal, I also hoped that by providing lunches throughout the year, I demonstrated my appreciation to these two educators for the time they provided for the study.

Due to schedule conflicts, we typically met one-on-one; we met as a triad only twice during the year. The teacher, librarian, and I also kept in contact via email. I accrued 81 emails over the course the study, as well as 138 pages of typed transcripts from 23 lunch meetings. The meetings with the teacher and librarian followed a routine: prior to arriving, I reviewed the most recent observation, field, and interview notes in order to create no more than four questions. Realizing that the time was brief, I knew that four questions were more than enough. Therefore, I carefully constructed questions that were purposeful. It was also imperative that I maintained a punctual schedule because the teacher and librarian had a rigid pre-determined time for lunch. At each lunch meeting, I arrived ten minutes early and set up the lunch and tape recorder. After the second lunch, I did not turn on the tape recorder until we had completed most of our meal and informal conversation. Both educators commented that they appreciated that only the interview was taped. I began each lunch interview by asking for their questions, comments, or concerns. Then I proceeded to ask my questions. Because our time was brief (30 minutes), I did not always get full answers to my questions, and I followed up with e-mails when needed. Mrs. Sun-Ya rarely answered emails but Ms. Coleman was faithful in responding to all my requests.

At the conclusion of each lunch, I listened to the tape in my car on the trip home, and transcribed the tape within three days of the visit. Initially I emailed the transcript to the teacher and librarian. However, they had difficulty with their printers at their school, and eventually requested that I provide a hard copy. After providing a copy, I asked for input and revisions. Mrs. Sun-Ya never returned any transcripts or noted that there was any change needed in the transcripts. The librarian always responded, and usually identified errors or changed wording for clarity. She was particularly uncomfortable if her language was not grammatically correct, as exact speech transcripts often display. Because I provided a word-for-word transcript, she often changed the language if it did not make grammatical sense. Although I explained that I was trying to capture our oral language in the interview, she was uncomfortable without revisions. I always revised and provided her with the original where she had written comments and the new draft.

To keep order in my files, I printed all drafts on green paper, and after revising, I printed the final copy on white paper. I kept the green hard copy of each draft as an archived item in one file in my home office. In addition, as mentioned earlier, there were occasional informal conversations with the librarian and teacher, and I recorded my observations by memory on the tape recorder after I left the school. These often provided additional insights or verifications.

Data Analysis

In keeping with a naturalistic approach and Lincoln and Guba's (1985) notion of prolonged engagement, I spent "considerable time" in the school library (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 4). Because I gathered data on six participants, I collected large amounts of rich descriptions over the course of one academic year. Interviews and observation were

transcribed as closely as possible to the event. The librarian and teacher received copies of all transcripts and provided member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to preserve an audit trail (Janesick, 2000), I kept an electronic and paper log of visits, files of material culture, hard copies, electronic versions, and back-up disks, and tapes (video and audio) of all materials associated with the study.

To maintain balance with the incoming data, I considered the analysis to be a dynamic process which began early in the study, and continued throughout. As stated earlier, I viewed the data collection through an emic perspective. It was during early data analysis that I began deliberately employing an etic perspective using literacy research to understand the collected data. As described early in this chapter, when the researcher views the data through both lenses, an essential third multi-layered view develops. I used this layered third perspective (i.e., etic view of emic perspective) most completely in memos and in writing chapters 5 and 6.

To begin describing the data analysis, I define a literacy event. Next I present the analysis for each type of data collected: observations, post-observation interviews, interviews with the library model, interviews with artifacts, and analysis of the artifacts themselves.

The Literacy Event

In this study, I was interested in students' experiences and understandings of literacy events in a quality school library program. Although I used Heath (1982) definition of a literacy event, I added one component. As the notion of mutiliteracies (New London Group, 1996) continued to evolve, the elements found in literacy material become increasing complex. Therefore, for this study, I employed Heath's original definition of a literacy event but expanded the definition to fit for the twenty-first century multimodal aspects of literacy

(italics indicate the addition to Heath's original definition): "any occasion in which a piece of writing *and/or graphic* is integral to the nature of participants' interactions and their interpretive processes . . . any action sequence, involving one or more persons, in which the production and or comprehension of print/*graphic* plays a role" (p. 93). To understand the students' experiences and understandings of literacy events, I began by analyzing the observations.

Analyzing Observations

To analyze the actions noted during observations, I used introspection through repeated readings, coding, matrices, and ultimately bar graphs to display the actions observed throughout the year. Each will be explained in the sections that follow.

Introspection using repeated readings. Re-reading was the most foundational strategy for analysis because it was both primary and iterative. The analysis began immediately after I completed the observations. Earlier in this chapter, I described how I took notes using both a computer and a notebook. In order to combine the handwritten notes with the word processed notes, I began reading both sets and entering all notes into one composite observation. All observation field notes were organized in files on my computer and backed-up with disks or CDs. After printing hard copies, I placed them in a binder, organized by date. Prior to meeting with Ms. Coleman and Mrs. Sun-Ya, I re-read my field notes to create questions. As I collected new field notes, I re-read former field notes in order to begin coding the observations. Re-reading functioned as an analytical tool and subsumed all other analysis.

Coding. During the reading and re-reading of the observation field notes, I began open coding of the observations using a line-by-line analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) as I closely inspected the transcripts of observations. Concurrently, I was repeatedly reading prior

observations, analyzing what was initially coded and comparing it to the new data and, when necessary, creating new, more applicable codes. By joining "explicit coding and [an] analytic approach" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 102), I employed a constant comparison method in my analysis.

By late January, I began developing a code book and defining codes with anchor descriptors from the observations. Once I determined that codes were reappearing, I considered creating an a priori coding system. In a meeting with my dissertation chair, Dr. Marilyn Chambliss, we determined that I attempt to apply the a priori coding to my future observations. On March 21, 2005, I instituted the following system of observations: maintain the five minutes of observation with field notes that I had been using since September, and then apply the a priori codes to the salient action observed during the five minutes of field noting. For example, if the child raised her or his hand to answer or reply to the librarian, I coded that segment as "responding" even if the child had also spent time during that five minute period "attending". For the three remaining observations (April 12; May 3; May 17) I employed the same strategy.

After analyzing the codes, I revised and combined ones that had like elements. For example, I collapsed the individual codes of playing, wandering, and talking into one category and renamed the action with a new code of 'off task'. In doing so, I condensed the action codes from 28 to10 codes of actions and one code of "unknown" for those times when I lost track of a child. Because the students' actions often involved social interaction and tools, I also created codes to indicate the social interaction and the tools or materials used during the actions. To further understand the tools and materials, I developed a code for descriptors to more precisely define the tools. Codes are presented in Tables 6 through 9.

Table 6

Codes for Actions during Literacy Events

Code	Description
AT	Attending
CM	Computing
CO	Checking out books/magazines
DS	Discussing
OB	Obtaining
OT	Off task
QU	Questioning
RE	Reading
RS	Responding
RW	Reading/Writing
UN	Unknown

Table 7

Codes for Social Interaction During Literacy Events

Code	Social Interaction
l	Librarian
t	Teacher
st	Student(s)

Table 8

Codes for Tools Used During Literacy Events

Code	Tools
b	Book
ho	Handout
mag	Magazine
m	Media
n	Notes
pr	Printer
pt	Peritext (front matter in books)
rc	Reading Counts
ref	Reference materials
s	Shelves, spines, and signs

Table 9

Codes for Descriptors of Tools

Code	Descriptor for Tools
ss	Self-Selected
cc	Curriculum-Bound
bc	Bound Choice
1g	Expository
2g	Narrative

Matrices and bar graphs. Once I established the above code tables, and successfully employed the codes during observations, I applied the same procedure to prior observations. I re-read my previously coded field notes from observations and re-coded the five minute intervals of observation using the newly created code book.

To begin, I placed each ability group together to create a composite picture for each of the three reading ability categories. For example, I observed Caitlin (High/High reader in Group A) on seven dates (i.e., September 28, October 18, December 9, January 6, February 11, March 21, May 3). I observed Jamal (High/High reader in Group B) on eight opposite dates (i.e., September 29, November 3, December 13, January 26, March 2, April 12, May 17). Together their codes provide a picture of what a high reader's actions are during literacy events in a quality school library program during one academic year.

Once I created the three matrices (High, Mid, Low), I invited a member of my dissertation seminar to assist me with a fidelity check of my coding. She independently reviewed my observation field notes and, using the code tables, coded each five minute segment. Later we compared our coding. After discussion on a small number of events, we reached 100% agreement on the codes we selected. An important outcome of this fidelity check was the renaming of items in the code table to provide clarity. The matrices are on Appendix H-J.

Because the matrices did not provide a clear illustration of the actions I observed throughout the year, I displayed the information using bar graphs. (See Figures 3 – 5). By computing the percentage for each action, I analyzed the actions for each individual student, as well displaying the actions by ability, gender, and race. The bar graphs are presented and discussed more fully in chapter 4.

Analyzing Post-Observation Interviews

Post-observation interviews were brief episodes that hinged upon what was observed that day. Although I analyzed all my data using introspection though repeated readings, I primarily analyzed the post-observations interviews through re-reading while listening to the tapes and writing memos. The memo writing after listening to the tapes led to the identification of patterns.

Introspection using repeated listening with rereads. Re-reading, as stated earlier, was the most foundational strategy for analysis. Importantly, all post-observation interviews were audiotaped. Typing the interviews from the audiotape provided another opportunity to analyze the data. However, I also employed repeated listening with repeated reading by playing the tape while reading the transcript. Because I observed three children at each library session, I often experienced a two week lapse between observations of a particular child. By having the student's voice on tape, I was able to hear the nuances and modulations in the child's voice while reading the transcript of the interview. This strategy also created more opportunities to locate patterns because the children each had unique ways of using language. Although I did not develop a code book for the interview, I often wrote memos in my researcher's notebook when I noted patterns. This is more fully explained in the next section.

Memos. In this context, memos are "written records of analysis that may vary in type and form" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 217). Writing memos fostered meaning making, assisted in tracking ideas, and thinking during the data collection and analysis. I wrote memos in field notes during observations and interview transcripts, but primarily, I wrote memos in a researcher's journal after re-reading observations, and re-listening

to taped interviews. Memos were opportunities to employ a multi-layered emic/etic perspective to the observations because I wrote from my literacy background.

By writing memos after listening and reading the post-observation interviews, I noted that patterns emerged. Occasionally, I would discover a pattern via "declaration" (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999b, p. 98) when a student actually told me that a pattern existed. For example, during a post-observation interview, one student confirmed, "I just liked National Geographic" (Interview February 11, 2005). I was able to corroborate this declaration by re-reading field notes from observations. In addition, I then cycled this information into my future observations to note if the pattern reoccurred. Patterns, therefore, also emerged because of the frequency with which they occurred. Memos written after listening and reading the post-observation interviews were a useful analytical strategy to help identify patterns because they made me more aware of what I was reading and hearing.

Written memos also assisted in identifying patterns by co-occurrence (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999b, p. 101). For example, as I sat beside Kamia during observations of lessons, I often wrote memos about Kamia's sub-vocalized comments and gestures. I was able to find a pattern when I noted a repeated association connecting the librarian's statements and Kamia's personalization of the issue. For example, when Ms. Coleman presented a book where a baby showed up on the front porch of a house, Kamia whispered, "I would take care of it." (May 3, 2005). Employing an etic perspective, I labeled this co-occurrence as a version of text-to-self connections (Keene & Zimmerman, 1997). These connections are more fully developed in Kamia's literacy portrait in chapter 5.

Analyzing Interviews with Library Model

Because the library model was used exclusively at the end of the study, interviews with the model provided triangulation. Both individual and group interviews were used with the library model and each were analyzed similarly but will be presented individually.

Prior to employing the model, I reviewed what I had learned from September to May. By analyzing the observations using the codes, matrices, and bar graphs, I knew that the experiences of the children in the study were almost synonymous. Through the interviews and written memos, I knew there were small but important differences in the understandings of the six participants. Therefore, I hoped that the individual and group interviews with the library model would fortify some of the speculations about both the group, and the individuals.

I used two kinds of analysis with the library model. First, I created questions that would provide confirmation or disconfirmation about the speculations I had developed in analyzing the observations and interviews up to this point. Second, I analyzed the differences in the way the children responded individually and then how they responded corporately. Most of the literacy events in the library were collective experiences, yet I had noted numerous examples of personal, unique responses despite the similar activities. In order to validate the differences, I created specific group questions to correspond with the individual interviews with the model. In this section I describe how I used questions as analysis for both.

Using questions as analysis in individual interviews. Because I recorded and analyzed the children's actions and understandings from late September to early May, I created questions for the model that would place the students in a self-reflective position. For

example, I had a sense of each child's preference in reading, but asking them to show where

he or she learned best provided an opportunity to validate or disconfirm what I had earlier

noted. To show how the questions by their nature allowed for confirmation of my thinking, I

present an example using the first question in the interview.

When using the library model, I asked each child to begin by demonstrating how he

or she would show a new student around the library. Taking a new student on a tour provided

an opportunity to verify the student's understandings of the over-all experiences of the

library program. Prior to the interview, I had gathered ample information about each

participant's understandings of the over-all library experience. Because I had a sense of each

child's awareness, I speculated that each would provide similar answers because the pattern

of the experiences was similar. However, in analyzing the tour, I learned there were

idiosyncratic differences that emerged, primarily based upon the child's interests and

personality. For example, Kamia, who related much of what occurred in any literacy event to

herself or her family and friends, began the tour by asking me if she could pick a figure of a

classmate to take with her on the tour. Her need to relate even this innocuous question to

personal relationships validated my earlier speculation that Kamia's literacy understandings

were embedded in personal relationships. In contrast, Caitlin, a prolific reader of biographies,

did not express any interest in the imaginary new student. She took on the task by providing a

curt and somewhat generic tour, pointing out various areas (e.g., "And there's the non-

fictions."); however, when she introduced one of her favorite reading areas, she slowed down

and specifically provided the name of the area and also the kinds of books in the genre (e.g.,

"This *is* part of the collection with biographies and historical diaries is called the Aaron

Brown Collection."). Through this tour, Caitlin validated her preferences and my speculations.

Using questions as analysis in group interviews. The group interview with the model was the sole opportunity to see the six children interact together. Similar to the individual interviews with the model, I created questions for both data collection and analysis for the group interview with the library model. As presented in the data collection section, one reason for using the group interview process with the model was to provide an opportunity for triangulation. I also wanted to explore a larger dimension by asking the children about the knowledge sources in the library both in the individual and in the group interviews. By doing so, I could compare the results to learn if the corporate view varied from the individual views, as well as note if any one child had a more powerful voice in making the group decisions.

Analyzing Interviews with Artifacts

Because artifacts were material culture and represented what was produced during the literacy events in the school library program, they presented an opportunity to discover how the child understood the literacy events in the school library program. The children were not given a choice of artifacts because Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman's decisions were linked to the curriculum. However, the children did have views and understandings about the artifacts. I selected to interview the children twice about their artifacts: once as they completed the project and then in May when they could reflect on all artifacts produced in the year. Primarily, the last interview provided the opportunity for analysis because I was able to formulate questions that would advance my understanding of the child's perspective about her or his work.

The interviews with the artifacts were analyzed to identify how students viewed their own work, both over time and in close proximity to the production of the artifact. The interview also provided information on how much knowledge students retained and transferred to each artifact.

Because the interview with the artifacts was the final interview with the children, I also used this information to formulate a final overall analysis. Lofland (1971) suggested that once the participant provide meaning to the activities the research can create "member-identified or folk type" (p. 31) patterns to view. These interviews provided opportunities for the students to provide meaning to the activities. Therefore, as a final interpretation, using all my analysis, I created descriptive terms for each student. This led to my increased interest in the development of literacy profile which will be discussed in chapter 5. Personally, I regret that I was unable to discuss the terms I selected with the students themselves.

Analyzing the Artifacts

At the conclusion of the year of data collection, I began analyzing the artifacts for each child by identifying them in genres or literary categories. To avoid confusion, I first present my understanding of the term genre, then present what terms I selected to use within my analysis to represent both an emic and etic perspective.

Swales (1990) noted that the term genre is confusing and often misunderstood. He clarified that one way of grasping the concept of genre is to consider several points. First, Swales noted that a genre "is a class of communicative events" (p. 45). To clarify, Swales identified Presidential press conference as one example of a class of communicative events. But, Swales continued, the second criteria must be a "shared set of communicative purpose" (p. 46). Thirdly, when considering what are exemplars within the genre, Swales warned that

exemplars fluctuate in their "protypicality"(p. 49) and may vary widely. Fourth, the rationale for the genre places constraints on what is considered permissible in the genre. Finally, Swales noted that the discourse community that establishes the genre has authority over the term, but only for that community.

As noted early in the chapter, I employed an emic and etic perspective in my research. Both were valuable and helpful in my analysis of artifacts. Given Swales (1990) warning about the difficulty of the term genre, I identified the children's view of genre as well as how I, as a reading researcher, viewed genre.

Emic view of genre in the school library. To understand the emic perspective, I chose terms the children used to describe the artifacts (i.e., the children's writing) and the books they used as resources. Because the children's terms reflected what was described and used by the adults in the school community, I began by reviewing what the children were taught about genre.

Within the school library, the librarian used location as a system to divide, organize, and ultimately name genres. For example, references were located together and identified by a brass plate attached to the bookshelf that said, "References". The reference genre contained atlases, dictionaries, and the World Book. The term "reference books" was used by the children and the adults in the library community to identify this genre. The children were not allowed to take materials in this genre out of the library during book selection time. Magazines, another specified genre, were located near the computers and separated from the references and the books. This genre included all monthly subscriptions, such as *National Geographic* and *Sports Illustrated for Kids*. Magazines were checked out differently from the books and the most recent edition never circulated. The library aide placed the most

recent edition of each magazine on a slanted shelf for easy viewing by the children. The shelf was hinged at the top and opened vertically to reveal three or four prior issues of the magazine. Older issues were housed in upright boxes on nearby shelves with the name of the magazine on the front of the narrow boxes.

Besides references and magazines, the librarian taught the children about two other major demarcations of genres: fiction and non-fiction books. The librarian did not differentiate by rhetorical pattern or literary formats (e.g., fantasy as opposed to realistic fiction). The books in the library were literally divided into books with blue tape to note "true" and pink tape to note "fiction". In the following excerpt (Observation, September 9, 2004), I verified how the school community viewed these two major genres:

Ms. Coleman:	(Pointing to a pink band on the book in her hand) Last thing Before you select your books today: Pink stands for . . . (Every student has a hand raised in the air; some are frantically waving.)
The class (chorally):	Fiction!
Ms. Coleman:	In ABC order by . . .
The class (chorally):	Author's last name!
Ms. Coleman:	(Pointing to a blue band on a book in her hand) Blue is nonfiction. So, blue is . . .
The class (chorally):	True!
Ms. Coleman:	(Pointing to numbers on blue band) In order by . . .

The class (in unison): Dewey decimal numbers! (Simultaneously, several children point fingers at the wall charts that explain the Dewey Decimal system)

The members of the school community viewed all books identified by the Dewey Decimal system as non-fiction and marked with a blue band to signify "true" books. Using Dewey's categorical system, the librarian grouped books marked as blue or non-fiction according to their epistemology: 92s (Biographies, organized in alphabetical order by the subject); 100s (Philosophy and Psychology); 200s (Religion); 300s (Social Sciences); 400s (Language); 500s (Natural Science and Mathematics); 600s (Technology and Applied Science); 700s (The Arts); 800s (Literature: Rhetoric and Poetry); 900s (Geography and History). The librarian placed charts with the information about the Dewey Decimal system on the walls, above the shelves, and on the faces of each shelf row.

Despite the orderly classification system and charts that explained the numbers, the children used the general term "non-fiction" when describing the book housed under the Dewey Decimal system. However there were three exceptions. The children identified the following terms as subgenres within the non-fictions: biographies, sports books, and drawing books.

Similar to the "blue" non-fictions, there were also subdivisions of the fiction or "pink" genre. The librarian and teacher introduced the children to subgenres that corresponded with the basal reader's genre terms, such as problem solvers, American stories, and mysteries. Occasionally, the librarian identified the fiction books with literature subgenres, such as historical fiction, contemporary realistic fiction, fantasy, and memoirs. The children created their own subgenres within the fiction genre for particular groups of

books. The children embraced the term "series chapter books". By this term, they referred to books written by one author who included the same characters in each of the books. For example, Ms. Coleman introduced the popular American Girls books as American stories to fit the basal genre, but many of the girls who read the books used the genre term "series chapter books" or occasionally "American Girl stories" to identify these books. Although the children knew that the books were organized by the authors' last names, they often were more aware of the specific physical location of particularly popular series books. For example, during the interview with the library model, the children pointed to the specific shelves where Goosebumps or Junie B. Jones books were housed. The knowledge of the book was often so closely associated with location that when I asked the children why a particular book was placed on a particular shelf, most could not explain why. Conversely, all children had operational knowledge about the library's order. They easily answered organizational questions like, "How are fiction books organized?" with the rote answer, "By the author's last name."

Etic perspective on genre. As I examined the texts that were read and the artifacts that were written as a result of literacy events, I also employed an etic perspective. There are numerous, and sometime confusing, ways researchers have named and considered genres within children's writing and reading. To analyze both artifacts and texts, I selected to differentiate only two rhetorical patterns to supplement my understanding of the children's genres: narrative and exposition. I selected only these two rhetorical patterns for my analysis because they were aligned with the genres identified by the children (i.e., emic perspective). By analyzing the children's artifacts and books with these two patterns, I was able to better understand the literacy events in the school library.

Because the children identified many books in the library as "true", and they identified shelves that contained reference books and magazines, there was strong likelihood that these kinds of material were written in an expository rhetorical pattern. To determine exposition, I considered books or artifacts that had "expository structures, such as compare and contrast, problem and solution, sequence, cause and effect, and description" (Dreher & Voelker, 2004, p. 263). The following example of exposition was from a text used by Elizabeth, one of the fourth-grade students in the study, as she researched information about Mary Cassatt.

> She [Cassatt] brought her easels and canvases outside, where she could paint in natural light. Instead of sketching imaginary scenes and then having models hold the necessary poses in her studio, she [Cassatt] could arrange her compositions directly in front of her young and willing relatives (Streissguth, 1999, p.62)

In this example of exposition, the author presented information on Mary Cassat in third person, past tense, and used descriptive characteristics. As Chambliss and Calfee (1998) explain, "Descriptive presents characteristics fixed in time, a snapshot" (p.33). In the above example, Streissguth, the author, described a particular "snapshot" of Cassatt's methodology for painting family life. In addition to description, expository writing can inform in other ways. Demont, an Mid/Mid reader in my study, located this information on George Westinghouse in the *World Book Encyclopedia* (World Book, 2000):

Westinghouse was born in Central Bridge, New York. As a boy, he worked in his

father's machine shop. At 15 he invented a rotary engine. Westinghouse served

in the Union Army and Navy during the American Civil War (1861 to 1865). By

1866, Westinghouse . . . perfected a device for replacing derailed railroad cars. (p.

242).

In the above example of exposition, the author used a sequential pattern to inform the reader

about Westinghouse life. The information is presented chronologically and succinctly. Not

all expository writing is as terse as this piece but because the *World Book Encyclopedia* is

written to provide information in a brief space, the information is compacted.

The two examples provided do not fully represent all expository writing because

exposition is often formatted as "the reports and essays found in the world of business,

government, and academe" (Chambliss & Calfee 1998, p. 30). As such, examples of

expository writing are developing perpetually, and include pragmatic books, such as

cookbooks and other how-to books. Recognizing the vastness of examples that might fit this

rhetorical pattern, I created this definition to guide my analysis: artifacts or text written in an

expository rhetorical pattern can be "thought of as reports" (Dreher & Voelker, 2004, p.

263); they provide information, explanation, or argue a claim (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998).

Notably, these writings do not "have a story line with plot and characters" (Dreher &

Voelker, 2004, p. 203).

Because the librarian identified a large part of the library as fiction and an entire

section as biography, there was a strong possibility that many of these books would be

written in a narrative rhetorical pattern. To determine a definition of narrative for analyzing

artifacts and texts in my study, I considered what Chambliss and Calfee (1998) noted as the

foremost characteristic that separates exposition from narrative: story is a "natural forum" (p. 29). Narrative follows the conventions of conversation. Using a narrative rhetorical pattern, a writer "places characters in a setting, confronts them with a problem, moves them toward a resolution" (p. 29).

However, stories with a narrative rhetorical pattern are not routinely tidy. Lucariello (1990) noted that there are two characteristics of narratives: pentadic imbalance and the subjectivity of the protagonist. Pentadic imbalance relates to a breach, which Lucariello described as "a departure from the expectation or conventionality" (p. 132). Secondly, Lucariello gave attention to the subjectivity of the protagonist. In developing this concept, Lucariello indicated that each narrative must have a double landscape. Although one perspective may indicate the action in the story, the other is in the mind of the narrator and protagonist. Lucariello posited that the interaction of these two features, pentadic imbalance and subjectivity of the protagonist, and the existence of a breach in narrative are necessary to move the child reader into linking the action to the mind. Importantly, narratives employ "the plot as the primary linkage that binds various characters together as they move from beginning to end" (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998, p. 29).

In order to define narrative for this study, I considered Lucariello's scholarship and employed the following definition in my analysis: Narrative rhetorical writing includes a story-like format, where setting, character, and plot are integral to the writing. I selected the following example from *The Secret Garden* (Burnett, 2001) represents a sample of narrative writing:

> They found a great deal to do that morning and Mary was late in
> returning to the house and was also in such a hurry to get back to her
> work that she quite forgot Colin until the last moment (p. 207).

This excerpt is story-like, but it is not simplistic. In this opening sentence to chapter 16, Burnett presented the actions, plot, and the situations of two characters. Mary was engaged in her work and this kept her from spending time with Colin. Even without reading any other parts of the story, a reader can identify part of the plot and traits of Mary, the character described in the sentence. Although a child would not likely use the term "breach", he or she may easily note that something unexpected has occurred. Mary forgot about Colin. A child reading this narrative text might ask, "What happened next?" as a logical follow up question.

Importantly, biographies were unique in this school library. The children specified biographies separately and did not consider them as part of non-fiction or fiction. However, all biography books had a blue tag which indicated that the librarian viewed this genre as non-fiction books. In addition, each biography book had a Dewey Decimal number. Exploring the biographies, I discovered that there was a mix of narrative and exposition in the rhetorical patterns. Occasionally, an author included both rhetorical patterns within one biography.

In sum, there are many ways to analyze and identify genre. Types and labels for genre are primarily identified within and by the members of the community where the genre is used (Swales, 1990). Because I viewed my study through both an emic and etic perspective, I analyzed text (read and written) through the lens of two communities. First, I identified and analyzed text by the children's genre terms. Next, using the perspective of a literacy researcher, I analyzed texts through two rhetorical patterns of exposition and narrative.

Presenting the Findings.

Prior to the literacy portraits in chapter 5, I explain how each student is presented based upon data collection and analysis. The decision about how to present the literacy portraits was largely a part of analysis; therefore, I present a brief explanation in this chapter.

With the abundance of data collected for this study, I wanted a clear and logical method for presenting the information. To chronologically retell the year would not answer the research questions. Instead, I structured the literacy portraits upon the main research question, "What are the experiences and understandings of fourth graders during literacy events in a quality school library program." Following Lofland's (1971) suggestion, I created illustrative terms for participants at the conclusion of data analysis. Then I reviewed the analysis and selected the most salient artifacts, interviews, and observations to present in each literacy portrait. Therefore each literacy portrait is a depiction of each individual participant, not a retelling of the entire year in the school library program. Using Richardson's (1994) notion of a crystal, I presented each child in my study by holding a facet of their experiences and understandings to the light.

<div align="center">

Reciprocity

</div>

By agreeing to participate in the study, the students, teacher, and librarian offered their time, and allowed me to view and record six children's academic experiences in the library. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) indicated that some researchers, particularly feminist scholars, have expressed concerns about the ethical issue of what subjects gain from participation in research studies. Claiming that the benefits of time, attention, and contributing to a growing research base are inadequate and imperceptible compensations to participants, some scholars have advocated for reciprocity or providing something in return

"that brings more tangible help" (p.46). In her discussion of feminist ethnography, Skeggs (2001) argued that "one way in which certain ethics may be achieved is through reciprocating knowledge" (p. 434). Therefore, in addition to preparing lunches for the librarian and teacher, I also provided an opportunity for sharing knowledge with the students, teacher, and librarian by organizing and funding a field trip to a gallery at the conclusion of the study.

Many college libraries collect, and display works of art. At the college where I teach, the Friends of the Library established a gallery of original art work (one-of-a kind) that represents a variety of styles (e.g., impressionism, expressionism, surrealism) and media (e.g., oil, gouache, scratchboard, and pastels) from children's literature. At the time of the field trip, the collection included art work from Caldecott Award winning illustrators, Coretta Scott King Award winners, a New York Times Best Illustrated Book, an International Reading Association/Children's Book Council Award winner, and a Premi Internacional Catalonia D'Illustracio Award winner (Barcelona).

As a member of the selection committee for the gallery, I was confident that I had the expertise, knowledge, and interest to organize an educational tour for the students, teacher, and librarian. The day before the fieldtrip, I visited the fourth graders and read *The Shape Game* (Browne, 2003) to prepare them for their visit to the gallery. In this British postmodern autobiography, Browne focused on a childhood trip to an art gallery, which was a profound and life-changing experience. The day after hearing the story, twenty-five fourth-grade students, their teacher, and librarian viewed the collection and participated in a variety of hands-on instructional activities.

Prior to the visit, twenty-one undergraduate students, enrolled in their first reading methods course, read and discussed articles on the dual role of illustration: affective-

motivational and cognitive knowledge effects. Afterwards the students divided into three groups and researched practitioners' journals to prepare an educational program related to the gallery. One group prepared instructional activities to study the gallery's art; a second group prepared a read aloud and reader's theater response for one of the books in the collection; and the final group prepared an art project. After the fourth grade students rotated through the three focused activities, they had a lunch in the Athenaeum of the library with their college student leaders. During lunch, I presented the librarian with copies of all books represented in the collection and requested that she include them in the school library's collection. Each student received a portfolio that included pictures and background information for all of the illustrations in the gallery's collection. In the afternoon, the students toured the college's natural history museum.

Through their thank you notes, the fourth grade students indicated their appreciation for the educational field trip to a college campus. Many expressed their interest in returning to the gallery with their families. I created a slide presentation to document the students' visits and shared it with the class after the last library session.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

My study explored the following research question: How do fourth-grade students experience and understand literacy events in a quality school library program? In order to answer this question, I designed a multi-layered exploratory study.

In the early phase of the study, I solicited recommendations of quality library programs from two professional organizations. Using their four recommended sites, I compared the available resources. Satisfied that all four sites were worthy of exploration, I

prepared an interview protocol built upon recent research and professional standards (ALA, 1998; Lance et al., 2000b).

Once the interviews were completed, I began a deliberate comparison of the context, criteria for a quality school library program, and the roles of librarians. I selected one school as a suitable setting because it had the criteria I was seeking, but primarily because it also had the largest percentage of diversity in the student body.

After applying and receiving the school board's approval, I asked the administrator and librarian to nominate a teacher to participate in the study. The teacher and librarian joined me in selecting the six student participants by using two measures: teacher input through reading ability ranking and the Terra Nova Reading Scores. I validated my selection by administering the Title Recognition Test (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990).

Using the literacy event as unit of analysis, I began collecting data in the setting. Data collection included observational field notes and interviews of the six participants whenever the students were in the school library program. In addition, I transcribed bi-monthly interviews with the teacher and librarian to secure the adult's perspective. I also collected and made copies of artifacts created in the library and interviewed the students twice about their work: once immediately after production, and later, with all artifacts in a final interview. I also interviewed and took field notes on any other events promoted or initiated by the school library program, such as author visits. In addition, by creating a small replica of the library, I was able to have the students reflect on the overall library program. The library model interviews also provided opportunity for triangulation of the patterns I had noted during the analysis of observations and interviews.

Analysis was iterative, ongoing, and as noted in the analysis section, occasionally overlapped with the data collection. To analyze the observations, I employed an emic perspective, and after reading and re-reading the observation field notes, I coded the observations using a line by line analysis. As I noted patterns, I renamed and revised coded to reflect the patterns better. Eventually I created an a priori coding protocol and began employing the new codes during observations. Through this process, I was able to place coded actions on three matrices for each of the ability groups. With the assistance of a member of my dissertation seminar, I refined the codes, and re-coded the observations. Once completed, the matrices were used to create bar graphs for illustrations and comparison of the actions I had observed.

I employed interviews in three formats: post-observation interviews, interviews with the library model, and two interviews using artifacts. In analyzing the post-observation interviews, I used two strategies for analysis: re-listening while re-reading and writing memos to locate patterns and to better understand the experiences that I had already observed and coded. Second, I analyzed the interviews using the library model to validate or disconfirm my speculations. Third, I analyzed the final interview using the artifacts by comparing how the students understood and valued the work they produced, as well as using the information to discover a literacy identity for each individual participant. In addition, I analyzed each artifact using an emic and etic perspective by employing the genre notations provided by the children and rhetorical patterns of narrative and exposition.

Finally, I concluded this chapter with a brief description of the reciprocity I offered to the participants. To provide a tangible sign of my appreciation and to extend the classroom learning, I organized a trip for the students, teacher, and librarian to visit a gallery exhibit of

original illustrations from children's picture books. The students also participated in educational activities and received a portfolio from the gallery exhibit. In addition, I purchased all the books displayed in the gallery and presented them to the librarian to enhance the school's library collection.

Chapter 4 is dedicated to the first subsidiary research question: What is the nature of literacy events in a quality school library program? I present an overview of the school library program, and a description of the reading program that guided the library program. Finally, I present one assertion that answers the first subsidiary question.

Chapter 4

The Nature of Literacy Events in a School Library

This exploratory study took place in a public school in a suburban neighborhood. The school is in close proximity to a state capital in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States with a diverse population. This study examined the nature of literacy events in a quality school library program through the experiences and understandings of six fourth-grade students. During the academic year, I observed and interviewed the fourth graders each time they visited the school library, accruing 353 pages of typed transcripts, and 89 pages of material culture (e.g., handouts, artifacts).

In this chapter, I answer the initial subsidiary question (i.e., What is the nature of literacy events in a quality school library program?) by providing an overview of the library program, including dates, time, and the topics that pertained to the fourth graders' experiences. Second, I include an analysis of the material culture related to Houghton Mifflin's *A Legacy of Literacy: Traditions* (2001) because literacy events in the school library were based primarily on this reading series adopted by the school district. Third, I provide a framework of the school library program during literacy events, which included three segments: direct instruction, practice/application, and book selection. After establishing the framework, I present an assertion about the nature of literacy events in a quality school library to answer the first subsidiary question: What is the nature of literacy events in a quality school library.

By concluding the chapter with a synopsis of the kinds of actions students experience during the literacy events, as well as the students' perceptions of their actions, I provide a preview of individual literacy portraits which will be presented in chapter 5. For consistency,

I structured literacy portrait by the three remaining subsidiary questions presented in chapter 3: How do children use texts during literacy events? What artifacts do children produce as a result of literacy events? What is the role of social interaction in the children's interpretive processes during literacy events?

Overview of the School Library Program

In their state-wide study, Lance et al. (2000b) noted that time in the library (i.e., weekly library hours) was the area of least difference between the 25 highest and 25 lowest scoring schools on the PSSA reading achievement tests (17% difference).This statement suggests that what occurs *within* the library program maximizes students' reading achievement. To better understand what occurred within the school library program, I analyzed how time was spent. Understanding how much time and what occurred during that time supplied the context for analyzing the literacy events and the participants' experiences and understandings.

Time in Lewis Elementary School's Library

Although time in the library was the area of least difference between the highest and lowest scoring schools (Lance et al., 2000b), it is a useful system for presenting other aspects of the school library program. Table 10 is a display of both time and topics in the fourth graders' library experiences. In this study of one school library program, the fourth-grade class averaged 6.083 minutes per day in the school library over the course of one academic year.

Table 10

Overview of Dates, Topics, and Time Spent in Lewis Elementary School Library

#	Dates	Observations: Focus of Library Visit	Minutes
1	9/9/04	Recap on summer reading; Orientation to library protocol	45
2	9/28/04	Reading Counts Computer Reading Program (reading curriculum	75
3	9/29/04	Dewey Decimal System: Finding information books (reading curriculum)	75
4	10/18/04	Online World Book Encyclopedia (reading curriculum)	75
5	11/03/04	Book Talk: Book on American Stories (reading curriculum)	75
6	11/22/04	The World Book Almanac	75
7	12/09/04	Searching for biographical information (reading curriculum)	70
8	12/13/04	Continuation of 12/09/04 lesson (reading curriculum)	45
9	1/07/05	Using the Online Catalog: Background for future advanced searching	75
10	1/26/05	Preparation for Author Visit (Jacqueline Woodson)	45
11	2/11/05	Book Talk: Problem Solvers (reading curriculum)	75
12	3/02/05	Book Talk: Award Winning Books 2005	75
13	3/21/05	Book Talk: Poetry as a Genre (reading curriculum)	75
14	4/12/05	Baseball Player Research (reading curriculum)	75
15	5/03/05	Book Talk: Nature: Friend and Foe (reading curriculum)	65
16	5/17/05	Summer Reading Programs and Opportunities, 2005	75

The Lewis Elementary administrators and the school librarian expected all teachers to schedule their students for a minimum of 14 one-hour sessions in the school library during the academic year (Fran Coleman, personal communications, May 25, 2004). Because the school librarian initiated flexible scheduling procedures, teachers could schedule more time than the minimum expectation. For example, Mrs. Sun-Ya scheduled 16 class sessions and averaged 69 minutes in the library per lesson. Over the course of the school year, Sun-Ya's students spent 4 hours and 15 minutes more time in the library than the minimum required by the administration and librarian. Since I did not compare this to another classroom of fourth graders, I am uncertain whether this class's experiences were typical.

Topics in Lewis Elementary School's Library

Most of the lessons taught, practices provided, and books selected related primarily to the fourth grade curriculum. For example, 62% of the lessons (i.e., ten lessons) related directly to the academic curriculum. All curriculum related lessons aligned specifically with the reading themes from the Houghton Mifflin Reading Series. However, the lessons often included social studies topics, such as research on famous Pennsylvanians. A study of the state is a part of the social studies curriculum for fourth grade students. Logically, the children's practice and book selections related primarily to the fourth grade curriculum as well. Because the teacher and librarian focused on the reading basal program for most of the library work, I explored the material culture associated with the Houghton Mifflin series. In the next section, I present a description and analysis of the basal program.

The Basal Reading Program

The majority of lessons, artifacts, and books selected within the library program related to the basal reading series. The administrators in the Elk Valley Township School District (pseudonym) adopted the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program (Cooper & Pikulski, 2001) two years prior to this study. By analyzing the fourth grade component of the program, I provide background information about the academic content that grounded a large part of the school library program. I begin with an overview of the basal program, and then I highlight the specifics within one theme.

The fourth grade basal reader is divided into six themes: Journeys, American Stories, That's Amazing!, Problem Solvers, Heroes, and Nature: Friend and Foe. Within each theme, the publishers present three or four related stories. The stories are a mix of published books, partial segments of books, or a chapter from a book. Many of the stories presented in the basal reading program are from award winning books. In addition, each theme contains a genre focus (e.g., poetry), a student writing model (e.g. persuasive essay), and a content link (e.g., music link, such as cowboy songs). In order to more fully explain the basal reading series, I selected the first theme "Journeys" to illustrate the various components within the program. I also selected this theme because the children produced one of their artifacts as a response to their readings in this theme.

Reading selections in the first theme. As noted earlier, many of the stories in the basal reader are extractions from original award winning texts. In the first theme, there are four reading selections. Three of the four books represent prominent awards: *Akiak* (Blake, 1997) won the Notable Children's Trade Book in the field of Social Studies; *Grandfather's*

Journey (Say, 1993) won the Caldecott Medal, Boston Globe-Horn Book Award, and the
Horn Book Fanfare Award; *By the Shores of Silver Lake* (Wilder, 1953) won the Newbery
Honor Award.

Within this theme, three of the four selected readings are complete book versions
while the fourth selection is a chapter from the 304-paged book, *By the Shores of the Silver
Lake* (Wilder, 1953). However, each of the three complete book versions had been truncated
in length by eliminating illustrations and compacting the size and placement of text. For
example, Ballard's 48 paged book *Finding the Titanic* (1993) was compressed into 18 pages
in the basal reader. Goodman (1994) noted when publishers reduce the illustrations and alter
the text format, despite keeping the text intact, the original published version of the story
does not provide the same impact for the reader. He also argued that it does not allow the
student to be able to predict or critically read the text. For example, *Grandfather's Journey*,
Alan Say's 1994 Caldecott Award winning book, was presented with only 11 of the 32
illustrations found in the book. This book was a memoir written and illustrated by Say who
mapped each illustration to the words, much like a family album. In reviewing this award
winning book, Silvey and Burns (1993) noted

> The soft-toned watercolors have the feel of a family album. The illustrations
> sometimes resemble old-fashioned photographs depicting stiffly posed figures in
> formal dress and sometimes look like more modern informal snapshots. These are
> interspersed with panoramic landscapes of the Japanese countryside or the North
> American continent. They seem to be moments taken from a life, intensely personal
> and at the same time giving voice to and confirming an experience shared by
> countless others (p. 590).

When over half of the illustrations are eliminated, there is dissonance between the text and words. For example on page 65 in the basal reader, the first line reads, "He marveled at the towering mountains, rivers as clear as the sky." Yet the illustration is a group of men standing outside of a Barber Shop.

In addition to compacting text and illustrations in three of the four stories, the publishers also selected stories that were similar in their genre and rhetorical structures. I present the nature of the genres in the next section.

Genres and rhetorical structures in the selected stories. In order to understand the type of stories children in this fourth-grade classroom read as a part of the reading program, I created a table indicating what was included in the preview for the story, the genre, and rhetorical structures found in one chapter. The terms for the genres are terms used by the children and Mrs. Sun-Ya. As explained in chapter 3, genre represents the emic perspective; the rhetorical patterns represent an etic perspective.

Table 11

Titles, Preview, Genres, and Rhetorical Patterns in First Theme of Basal Reading Series

Title	Preview Page	Genre	Rhetorical Pattern
Akiak	Iditarod map; Background on Iditarod race	Fiction	Third person narrative with dialogue
Grandfather's Journey	Globe highlighting Tokoyo & San Francisco; Background on Japan in the 1800s	Memoir	First person narrative
Finding the Titanic	Graphic of Titanic; Graphic showing surface to ocean depth from research ship to Titanic	Biography (4 chapters); Historical Fiction (2 chapters)	First person narrative with dialogue; Third person narrative with dialogue
By the Shores of Silver Lake	Graphic of Illinois Central Railroad poster from 1880s; 1869 advertisements	Historical Fiction	Third person narrative with dialogue

As evidenced by viewing Table 11, all the selections were based upon content unfamiliar to children living in south central Pennsylvania. The settings were Alaska, Tokyo, San Francisco, Atlantic Ocean, and the Midwestern region of the United States. Three stories related to previous centuries and only one was a contemporary story. However, all the stories in this theme were primarily written in a narrative rhetorical structures and all, but one, contained dialogue. Although the predominance of narrative rhetorical structures was evident in the selected stories in theme one, there were other kinds of rhetorical structures presented outside of the stories. Children also read other types of rhetorical patterns in content links and the student writing model sections. Each will be examined individually.

Content link. Each theme has a particular content link that connected to one or more of the stories. After *Akiak* (Blake, 1997), the contemporary realistic fiction on the Iditarod, the publishers placed a four-paged spread on how to read a magazine article, with a segment from *National Geographic for Kids.* The article was entitled, "Go, Team, Go!" In the oblong text box adjacent to the article, there were three strategies listed (Cooper & Pikulski, 2001): "Preview the article to see what it is about. Look at the headings to see how the article is organized. Read the main part . . . first. Then read other special sections, such as captions and boxes" (p. 54). Unlike the four stories within the theme, this magazine article is written in an expository report-like rhetorical pattern. The article had a distinctive sequential pattern detailing the events in the lives of two children who are mushers in their family's dog sledding business. The magazine article ended with four facts about Siberian huskies, as well as a photograph of a dog sled with a superimposed cartoon-like caption coming out of the mouth of one child who directed the dog sled. In the caption were vocabulary words and their

meanings. For example, one of the phrases was explained in this fashion: "HIKE = go" (p.56).

There was disconnection in the strategies presented on reading a magazine article and what the author of the article suggested to the reader. Within the text, the author of the article indicated parenthetically "see map" and "see bubble on opposite page" within the article. However, the third skill presented to the students indicated that the reader should look at the captions and boxes *after* reading the article. The skills were not consistent with the writing style of the author of the text who requested that the reader look at the box with the map prior to completing the main part of the article.

Because I was not in the classroom when the content link was taught, I was unaware of how or if Mrs. Sun-Ya used this article with her class or if she noted that the strategy listed to use with reading expository text was contradicted within the actual text. However, in chapter 5 and 6, I present more information about how many of the children avoided or miscomprehended expository text. This confusing presentation of a strategy within the basal reading program provided a partial understanding about why the children misinterpreted or ignored expository text. Each basal theme also focused upon one writing model. In the next section I discuss the writing models and the various genres presented.

Student writing model. The writing models included a number of styles: personal narrative, writing description, story writing, persuasive essay, and research report writing. The publishers linked the student writing model to a story in the theme. For example, the research report linked with the only theme that explored purely non-fiction topics about nature. In the first theme, Journeys, the publishers presented the writing of a personal narrative which was used in several of the stories within the theme. Each writing model

began with a description. A personal narrative was described as "a true story about something that happened to the writer" (Cooper & Pikulski, 2001, p. 58) whereas the publishers noted later in the basal reader when introducing persuasive essays that "the purpose . . . is to convince someone to think or act in a particular way" (p.412).

After the brief one or two sentence description of the writing model, Cooper and Pikulski (2001) presented the writing models in the same organization format for each chapter. They began with an exemplar. For theme one, the personal narrative was entitled, "A Special Day at the Beach". Throughout the essay, there were caption boxes that indicated and explained four elements of a personal narrative: title, beginning, details, and ending. Each student writing model ended with a "Meet the Author" section added to the essay, which included a picture of the student who wrote the model, her or his state, grade, hobbies, and what the author would like to become as a adult.

Within the entire basal reader, there was only one writing model that included a third person report-like expository writing format. This was the last writing model presented in the text and found on page 654, less than 20 pages from the end of the basal reader. This model was also the only model that included sources at the end of the article. Later in the chapter, I use various artifacts to present how the children's writing reflected a lack of experience with expository text.

In summary, the basal reading program was an important foundation for the library program. By knowing the reading program, I acquired helpful background knowledge for understanding how the library program was structured. In the next section, I describe the library program as a framework based upon three segments: direct instruction, practice/application, and book selection.

The Framework for the Library Program

Fran Coleman, the school librarian at Lewis Elementary, would agree with Brophy and Good's (1986) findings about teacher behavior and student achievement. In summarizing the findings, Brophy and Good noted that student achievement was "maximized when teachers emphasize academic instruction as a major part of their own role, expect their students to master the curriculum, and allocate most of the available time to curriculum-related activities" (p. 360). In her own words, Ms. Coleman espoused a similar view as she explained how she utilized the library time:

> Remember I said this is my eighth year here, and for the first four years we did not have a flexible schedule. And children weren't learning the skills . . . I *always* had practice, but it wasn't ideal. There was a 30 minute lesson, and a 15 minute book exchange. You can barely get instruction and practice in 30 minutes and then the gap between instruction and learning really didn't work with a third grader who waited a week or two to get practice with a new skill. There was no carry over. My goal was to open up larger blocks of time. We now have kids and classes who come in here for an hour and a half at a time. Isn't that fabulous? Now, they can learn the skill, practice the skill, they may identify their sources, have their book, their Internet source, something from Sirs, or EBSCO in one period (Interview, May 25, 2004).

As previously noted, the framework of the school library was divided into three unequal segments: direct instruction by the librarian, practice/application, and book selection. Direct instruction was the most consistent and longest segment. Occasionally, practice/application and book selection combined into one segment. For example, when Ms. Coleman introduced

the award-winning books for 2005, the students were expected to practice and apply the lesson by locating an award-winning book during the book selection time segment. On some occasions, half of the students practiced and applied the lesson concepts while the other half of the students selected books. This occurred when individual use of the computer was a necessary part of the practice/application segment because there were only 12 computers for the students to use in the library.

In order to provide background for the upcoming literacy portraits, I will explain each segment of the library framework. I will begin with the direct instruction, and then describe practice/application and book selection segments.

Direct instruction. Corno and Snow (1986) noted that direct instruction "promotes on task classroom behavior and, through it, increased academic achievement" (p. 622). Lewis Elementary School's library had similar elements: direct instruction was a large portion of the framework, the Grade 5 PSSA reading achievement scores exceeded the state average (PDE, 2004), and there was little off-task behavior. In my code book, I defined "off task" action with this description: "The child may be alone or with one or more children, not focused on academics." By using anchors, examples that typify the characteristics of a code, I clarified descriptions. For off task actions, I selected the following anchor: "Jamal is with four boys. They are holding the stuffed dog which is part of the library décor. They laugh as they begin tossing the dog back and forth" (Observation, November 22, 2004). Using the anchor description and five minute observation segments, I coded off-task actions 13 times over the entire school year: Demont, 1; Elizabeth, 5; Jamal, 7.

Direct instruction was a mainstay of the school library program; all but one of the library class sessions involved direct instruction. In over 80% of the scheduled classes, the

direct instruction portion spanned half or more of the scheduled time. Specifically, the students spent 58% of the their time (10 hr 25 min /18 hrs 15 min) in the school library with the librarian providing instructional input and modeling (i.e., direct instruction). In all cases, the lesson was a group experience, never individual or small group. In 13 of the 16 lessons, the librarian used a PowerPoint presentation. The remaining lessons included other formats, such as poetry on CDs and CD-ROM. One lesson was a research session with minimal direct instruction. The lesson content reflected one of three areas: introducing a genre typically related to the reading basal theme, presenting a research skill using reference materials (print and online), or providing procedural knowledge about technology.

During observations of the direct instruction segment of the library time, I wrote field notes. Later I re-read my field notes, and coded the students' actions. Initially I used the term "gazing" to define the children's action during direct instruction, with the intention of keeping my codes closely aligned with my observations. I selected "gazing" because as I observed the actions of the children, I noted that they were passively staring at the screen or at the librarian during PowerPoint presentations. The librarian asked the children to listen during this portion of library time. Infrequently, the librarian asked students to answer questions, make comments, read, or make notations on a handout. The following interview is one example where I noticed that the children were not merely gazing during direct instruction segment.

AV: Jamal, I saw you typing in Mike Mussina in the subject and baseball as a key word, why did you do that?

Jamal: Because it might be more than one Mike Mussina.

AV: How did you know to do that?

Jamal: Well, Ms. Coleman told us about the boy who looked up Thomas Jefferson and got lots of stuff about somebody else named the same so when he added president, he got what he wanted.

AV: I noticed you started in EBSCO, located an article, then the first thing you read was the beginning paragraph.

Jamal: The abstract.

AV: And what is that exactly?

Jamal: The summary.

During this interview, Jamal affirmed my decision to code his behavior during direct instruction as "attending" not "gazing" because he demonstrated that he understood Ms. Coleman's direct instruction on how to procedurally locate the database. He also realized that he needed to enter not only the baseball player's name but also a keyword to eliminate unnecessary articles. He understood and was able to use an abstract correctly. He applied his understanding of the strategy by reading only the abstracts to determine if the articles were worthwhile for his research needs.

Having discovered that the students were more attentive than merely gazing, I inscribed this pattern into my notes. In observations and interviews, I deliberately focused upon actions during and after direct instruction to verify if the children were aware of the information in the lesson. In subsequent visits to the library, I found that the children

demonstrated awareness; therefore, gazing was not an accurate term. Awareness ranged on a continuum from tacit to focused and will be addressed in the individual literacy portraits in the next chapter. In order to provide an action for the awareness, I selected "attending" for my code book with the following description: Eyes are fixed; child appears to be listening and/or watching. This was a passive activity where the student was not in charge of manipulating any images, print, or sound.

As explained previously, other than the action code "attending", the students performed few actions during the direct instruction segment of library class. Occasionally children raised their hands to comment or answer a question. I coded this action as "responding" and wrote the following definition in the code book: "The child is verbally answering a question, making a comment, or raising a hand to answer a question or comment even if not called upon."

At the conclusion of one year of observing, I found students were "attending" during direct instruction more than any other type of action. Summarizing, I noted only 25 "responding" action codes during the direct instruction component. If averaged, each child would have responded about four times over 16 lessons. Infrequently, the librarian requested that the students perform actions other than attending and responding. I observed and coded eight five-minute segments where a participant was "reading" and three five-minute segments where a participant was "reading and writing" on a handout. My observations may not align entirely with Corno and Snow's (1986) assertion that direct instruction promotes more on task behaviors, but when the librarian used direct instruction, there was little off task behavior. The remaining 42 % of time (i.e., 7 hrs 20 min) the students spent in the school library was a combination of individual, paired, and small group interactions.

Practice and application. In an early interview (May 27, 2004), Ms. Coleman stated that the student "always had practice". Through observation, I confirmed that practice time was scheduled and occurred in every lesson at the conclusion of the librarian's modeling and input portion of direct instruction. There was only one class (out of 16 classes) when the students did not practice or apply the lesson and that was the final class in late May, 2005, when Ms. Coleman explained the summer reading opportunities. In most cases (62.5% or 10 classes), practice and application involved the use of reference materials, either online resources (e.g., Lewis Elementary webpage with a link to PA People) or print materials (e.g., World Book). In the remaining five classes, the students' practice and application segment involved selecting books that fit the lesson, such as locating an award-winning book to read after the lesson on the Newbery, Caldecott, Coretta Scott King, and Scott O'Dell Award winners for 2005.

However, despite a commitment to scheduling time for students to practice and apply the lesson, Ms. Coleman was unable to assure a successful hands-on practice/application segment for all students. As I observed the students having successful and unsuccessful literacy practice and application experience, I began to identify common contexts that occurred when the students were successful and unsuccessful in their literacy tasks. On one particular occasion, late in the school year, students were expected to research baseball players in order to prepare for a discussion on heroes in today's culture. This discussion aligned with the basal theme. After demonstrating via PowerPoint and modeling how to locate and use the databases, the librarian and teacher sent individual children to the computers to practice the newly modeled skill by locating information on a pre-selected

baseball player. There were 12 computers so only a dozen children were selected since this investigation was an independent assignment. The remaining students began book selection.

Immediately after the instruction, Ms. Coleman assigned Jamal, a High/High reader (See Table 3) to a computer to begin his research without a peer. Ms. Coleman suggested that a seamless transition from instructional input to practice was imperative for successful learning. Yet in the following example, Jamal, an excellent reader, had immediate access to the practice and application but he was not successful. Jamal spent 35 minutes attempting to locate information to answer his research question. He had a seamless transition to the computer and displayed some prior knowledge. He used the strategy he was taught during direct instruction and followed the directions on the handout, as well as the model he viewed during the presentation by the librarian. Regardless, Jamal was unable to successfully locate the information he needed. I outlined his experience in field notes:

> Jamal tells his friend he is doing his research on one of his favorite baseball players. He types in "Mike Mussina" as a subject, and then adds "baseball" as a keyword. A wealth of articles and newspapers appear on the screen and Jamal clicks on one article and skims the contents. After a moment, he clicks on another article. He reads the abstract and clicks to return to the list of articles. He repeats this process with four articles. Although no one is with him, he states aloud, "It doesn't have a biography. [long pause] Now I'm going to SIRS (i.e., database). This isn't helping" When Jamal tries to go back to SIRS, he receives a repetitive "sign-in" procedure on his screen. He does not ask for help but calls his friends and shows them, "Look what's happening." His friends watch him but do not offer any help or suggestions (April 12, 2005).

Jamal often spoke aloud when confused. On this occasion, the only persons who responded

to his comment were his friends, who seemed equally confused by the process. None of

Jamal's friends offered suggestions on what to do. Later as I noted Jamal writing information

on his research worksheet, I asked about his search process:

AV:	What are you writing?
Jamal:	His current team.
AV:	How did you figure that out?
Jamal:	First I already knew it, then I seen it on here. (He points to the screen.)
AV:	Is that the only information you have for today?
Jamal:	His position is pitcher.
AV:	And how did you know that?
Jamal:	I just knew it.

During the 40 minutes of practicing how to research with the new sophisticated databases,

Jamal began to write two pieces of information. However, he already knew this information

prior to coming to the library. Jamal validated one of the pieces of information by finding the

player's team in the database, but the other fact (player's position) was one Jamal knew and

did not verify the knowledge by locating the information at the websites. Because the point

of the research was to locate information to participate in a discussion of what makes a hero

in today's culture, Jamal's two facts did not appear to advance his understanding or

preparation for the upcoming hero discussion. Regardless, Jamal was aware that his

knowledge did not come exclusively from the database research in the library. Two days

later, I asked him more about the research:

AV: How helpful was the research time in the library?

Jamal: It was kind of helpful. I got like three or four things.

AV: Is there anything or anyone else that helped you?

Jamal: My dad.

AV: How did your dad help?

Jamal: Because he tells me a lot about baseball and other sports, and I just

                remembered what some of the stuff he told me. He's a Yankee fan so

                he knows all about Mike Mussina (Interview, May 3, 2005).

Jamal did not locate important information needed for the discussion on heroes which was

the objective of the research procedure presented by the librarian in collaboration with the

teacher's lesson. He was able to work at the computer, key in the correct information, and

pull up the articles on a player that he was interested in researching. He knew the point of the

abstract and rejected articles that were not providing biographical information about his

player. Although he had two pieces of information at the end of the practice research time,

Jamal did not have substantial information to answer the research questions that had been

posed by the class: "What is a hero in today's culture?"

        For Jamal, there were two problems. First, he had difficulties with the computer.

Second, when he could not access the computer database, he relied upon prior knowledge.

By doing so, he did not discriminate that the information he listed did not relate to his

research question. Both problems required intervention. Searching for the trajectory to

explain Jamal's inability to focus on substantial information to answer the question, I found

only a small example in the direct instruction segment where the librarian provided an

example of how to read critically when using electronic resources:

Ms. Coleman:	Why shouldn't you use this online article from 1995?
Student:	Bonds was a big homerun hitter since then.
Ms. Coleman:	What else has been in the news recently that would fit with the discussion on what makes a hero *and* wouldn't be in this 1995 article?
Jamal:	Using steroids.
Ms. Coleman:	Right. I would not use a 1995 article on Barry Bonds (Observation, April 12, 2005).

Jamal demonstrated that he had knowledge. He knew the purpose of an abstract and used it appropriately. He understood the need to locate recent information about the subject's life. However, he struggled with locating information in the data base, and had technological problems with the computer. When this occurred, he relied on his prior knowledge.

Dewitz and Dewitz (2003) found that when students can "read the words, but they can't understand", they use the default strategy by using prior knowledge to make meaning of the text. In Jamal's case, he struggled with operating the new resources, and relied instead on prior knowledge to complete his task. He was aware of what he was doing and admitted to using this as a source of knowledge. Although prior knowledge is knowledge, he did not advance his content understanding with the available resources. Although the librarian had provided the lesson, and time for some children to practice, Jamal was not successful. He used a default strategy, calling upon background knowledge, when he was unable to successfully complete the task.

Book selection. The most chaotic and idiosyncratic segment of the framework occurred during the book selection process. Of the 16 scheduled classes to the library, only

one did not include a book selection time. The objective on this day was solely application and practice since it was a continuation of an earlier lesson (December 9,2004) involving research on biographies of famous Pennsylvanians. Otherwise, students had time to select books during each scheduled library time. Additional book selection time was available to all students before school, during recess, and during lunch. Since my ethnographic study involved only the time the students were in the library as a class, I did not gather data on other individual visits.

The amount of time for book selection ranged from 10 minutes (May 3, 2005) to 35 minutes (December 9, 2004). If the book selection took place while some were practicing and applying the lesson (typically at the computer), it was difficult to ascertain how long the book selection process lasted.

In over half of the book selection events (53%), the students made their selections based upon a lesson presented by the librarian. For example, on January 26, 2005, Ms. Coleman introduced the children to Jacqueline Woodson's books and website. Ms. Woodson was scheduled to come to the school as a visiting author in April, 2005. Therefore during book selection, the students were encouraged to locate and check out a book by Woodson. Some children were unsuccessful, not because of lack of knowledge or interest, but because of limited access. There were not enough books by Woodson in the library. Regardless, the book selection process was considered the practice and application segment for that day's lesson.

During library book selection times where the librarian did not link the book selection to the lesson, students often selected books for points in the Reading Counts program which was loosely connected to reading curriculum. Mrs. Sun-Ya did not require the children to

complete Reading Counts quizzes, but she recommended that they acquire ten points per

marking period. Table 12 provides details on how students selected books. The table consists

of the books students checked out during the library class.

Table 12

Book Checked Out During Library Sessions by Selection Expectation and Rhetorical Pattern

Names	Self-selected Exposition	Self-selected Narrative	Curriculum Bound choice Exposition	Curriculum Bound choice Narrative	Curriculum Bound choice Poetry	Totals
Caitlin	0	2	0	2	1	5
Jamal	1	0	2	1	0	4
Ian	2	0	1	2	1	6
Demont	3	2	1	0	0	6
Kamia	0	1	1	3	0	5
Elizabeth	0	1	1	3	1	6
Totals	6	6	6	11	3	32

In Table 12, I displayed several components of the selection process. Because the

curriculum supported much of the library program, I first determined how book selections

related to the curriculum. Next, because I was interested in an etic perspective, I analyzed

and presented the books using their rhetorical patterns.

The curriculum mattered during book selection. When the children checked books

during the book selection segment, 62.5% of the books related to the school curriculum.

These book selections were identified as "bound choice" because the students were allowed

to make a choice, but the selection had stipulations. For example, on March 21, 2005, Ms. Coleman presented a lesson on poetry to align with both the basal theme and the upcoming Poetry Month in April. At the conclusion of her lesson, Ms. Coleman indicated that the practice and application segment would involve reading poetry to one another. In addition the children were asked to select a poetry book during book selection. As an example of one occasion, Elizabeth selected the poetry book, *Little Dog and Duncan* (George, 2002), a Claudia Lewis Poetry Award winning book. When asked her reason for selecting the book, she replied, "Cause it said, *Little Dog and . . .* [long pause] well, anyway, it's about dogs and I love dogs. I went to this poem right here. This one is "House Guest". Do you want to hear it?" (Interview, March 21, 2005). To code this book selection, I considered that Elizabeth had choice but it was bound by the genre of poetry and by the curriculum which was in the reading basal series. Therefore, her choice fit the term curriculum bound choice poetry. Students' views of their book selections will be more fully discussed within each literacy portrait.

Because I noted that many students in the sample set had difficulty when reading and writing texts with expository rhetorical patterns, I analyzed the books by rhetorical patterns. Specifically 37.5 % of the books checked out during the book selection segment were written with an expository rhetorical pattern. None of the three female students self-selected books written with an expository rhetorical pattern and only one male student, Demont, selected books with a narrative rhetorical pattern during self-selection. However both books he selected were narrative and informational. One book was about the Civil War and the other was about World War II. Children checked out books in the poetry genre only when it was

required as a part of the curriculum expectations. As for the curriculum bound choices, over half (55%) had a narrative rhetorical pattern.

During the library book selection segment, there was a large difference in the number of self-selected and curriculum bound book selections over the course of the year. Although only 37.5% of their books were self-selected, the children employed choice with all curriculum bound selections. For example, although children may have been expected to select a mystery, they could select any mystery.

When organized by ability, I found that the High/High readers checked out the least number of books (9), the Mid/Mid readers checked out the most books (12), and the Low/Low readers checked out 11 books. However, the children had permission to check out books at recess and before school. Because I decided to keep my data collection within the time the students were in the school library, I did not collect information on other times the children checked out books. During interviews, students talked about other books they checked out, some even from the public library, and some of these episodes are included in the literacy portraits that follow in chapter 5.

Although not a part of the three segments of the school library framework, there was one physical aspects of the library worth describing. After the book selection segment ended, the class lined up by the door where the librarian had placed a pie-shaped shelf with newly acquired books. Many of the students mentioned this location in the final interview with the library model. This was a notable section of the library. As Jamal noted during his interview with the library model, "These are the books she [Ms. Coleman] wants people to look at, and try to read them, because that's why they are here. Like when you get in line, you see these and you might get them out" (Interview, May 5, 2005). I observed that the students often

selected to read these books in dyads or alone as they waited to walk back to their classroom for dismissal.

In sum, the school library program was built on a framework of three segments: direct instruction, practice/application, and book selection. The teacher and librarian focused upon the basal reading program for most of the lessons and artifacts that the children complete. Because Ms. Coleman had a flexible schedule in the library, the fourth grade students spent more than four hours of extra time in the library than expected.

Having presented the background information on the school library program, I will address the nature of the literacy events within the library program. As stated in chapter 3, I drew upon Heath's (1982) definition of a literacy event but added the component of graphics, since graphics were prevalent in the literacy events in this school library. Thus the definition of a literacy event that guided my analysis was "any occasion in which a piece of writing and/or *graphic* is integral to the nature of participants' interactions and their interpretive processes . . . any action sequence, involving one or more persons, in which the production and or comprehension of print/*graphic* plays a role" (p. 93).

The Nature of Literacy Events

Because my interest was in maintaining an emic perspective during observation and applying an etic perspective to understand the children's experiences, I used both in exploring the nature of the literacy events. I will begin by describing how I analyzed the literacy events. Then I will present an assertion about the dynamic nature of the literacy events. In order to provide the emic perspective, I also present the actions and perceptions of the children to conclude the discussion on the nature of literacy events in a quality school library program.

To analyze the nature of literacy events in a quality school library program, I used aspects of the social setting (Lofland & Lofland, 1995). First, I sought any circumstance where a piece of writing and/or graphic was fundamental to the interactions. After locating the events that fit the criteria, I determined that I would consider the end of a literacy event when there was a change in one of the following defining conditions: the piece of writing/graphic or the participants. In framing the literacy event in this manner, I purposefully avoided time as function of the literacy event; instead I qualified the event solely by the constancy of the participants and the artifact (written or graphic). By doing so, I kept the literacy events aligned with Heath's definition. However, in addition to the conditions of material and participants, I also made certain that the expectation for the interaction was either comprehension or production of a written or graphic piece.

During analysis of the observation transcripts, I highlighted those situations where some aspect of print or graphic was germane to the event. In the process, I learned that each literacy event in the library ended with the beginning of another literacy event, thus creating a continuous string of literacy events. Although I focused upon one literacy event at a time, I was aware that two or more different literacy events occurred simultaneously. For example, as I observed and took field notes on a student at the computer reading online text, other students in my sample set were seated at the table reading or walking around the library reading the book spines.

The Ubiquitous Nature of Literacy Events

At first, asserting that literacy events in a school library were ubiquitous appeared obvious and, I dismissed the notion as unimportant. However, upon re-reading N.L. Gage's (1991) commentary on the importance of obviousness in social and educational research, I

readjusted my thinking and re-read my notes to more fully critique what appeared to be obvious.

Through the analysis, I also noted the social interaction of the literacy event. Occasionally literacy events were solitary, but often included peer-to-peer(s) interactions, or student-teacher interactions. If the events included more than one person, then the participants used oral language in various forms: reading aloud, asking or answering questions, making reinforcing or contradictory remarks, repeating information, or adding extraneous comments. Alone or with others, the students often used gestures during a literacy event. For example, students laughed, lifted their arms to answer a question, or walked away. I included these gestures in my field notes when describing what I observed.

Using an emic perspective, I identified the nine types of literacy events by using the children's language: discussing books, learning about databases, learning about genres, learning about references, learning about software applications, reading, researching, selecting books, and taking a quiz. Using an etic perspective, I divided the literacy events into Heath's three defining components: interaction (i.e., comprehending or producing), material (i.e., written or graphic), and social interaction (i.e., one or more participants). In analyzing my notes to complete the grid, my assertion about the ongoing nature of the literacy events was affirmed. (See Table 13.)

Table 13

Types of Literacy Events by Interaction, Material, and Participants

Event	Interaction		Material		Participants	
	Comprehend	Produce	Written	Graphic	One	More
Discussing books	X		X	X		X
Learning about a database	X		X	X		X
Learning about a genre	X		X	X		X
Learning about reference books	X	X	X	X		X
Learning about a software application	X		X	X		X
Reading a novel or magazine	X		X	X	X	X
Researching for information	X	X	X	X	X	X
Selecting books/magazines	X		X	X	X	X
Taking a quiz	X	X	X	X	X	

By using both an emic and etic perspective, I used Table 13 to display the literacy events as defined by the children with Heath's (1982) definition. Each literacy event type is defined with the interaction expectation (comprehending or producing) and the type of material used in the literacy event (written or graphic) and the literacy event participants (one or more individuals). The table highlights that comprehension was much more of an expectation than was production. This finding aligned with the early statement that the students spent most of their time in the library in the direct instruction segment, where they were involved in comprehending the text and graphics Ms. Coleman presented to them.

However, there were occasions when Ms. Coleman expected the student to both comprehend and produce a written artifact and/or graphic. For example, during the library class when the students were taught to use the *World Almanac for Kids 2005* (Seabrooke, 2005), the librarian had the children write what they comprehended by using a research worksheet. After introducing several components of the *World Almanac*, Ms. Coleman modeled how she would locate the answer to one of the questions. Then she led the children in a guided practice of two other questions. Afterwards, students worked in pairs. By using the index, locating appropriate pages, then finding the answer, both students in the dyad found and wrote the answers on the paper.

On the matrix in Table 13, I indicated that all materials used in the literacy events were written and included graphics. There were many examples of combinations of graphics and written text within the books, databases, and computer programs. For example, the websites of famous Pennsylvanian Rachel Carson included a bird's nest icon as well as print text to tell her life story. Within the physical library, there were graphics or icons as well as words that the children used during literacy events. As noted in chapter 3, Ms. Coleman

organized the books in the library with blue tape to note "true" and pink tape to note "fiction". The use of color represented particular genres that the children were expected to read and understand during literacy events. In addition, the library had many charts and other icons. I noticed many stuffed animals that dotted the shelves but I did not realize that they were also graphics the children used during literacy events. I would not have realized the role of the stuffed animals had I not shared the following conversation with Ian.

AV: Ian, how did you find the dinosaur book you checked out?

Ian: I looked in the dinosaur section.

AV: How did you know where the dinosaur section was located?

Ian: There's a stuffed dinosaur who sits on top of the shelves where the dinosaurs books are (September 28, 2004).

I did not notice the stuffed animals set above the 560 Dewey Decimal section of the shelves. Ms. Coleman had not shared this information with the children during the lesson, yet Ian used this icon in locating the book he wanted to find. Later I learned that the stuffed animals did not circulate and the children were asked to not move them from their spots on the shelves.

Besides color schemes and stuffed animals, students also used other graphics during literacy events. After successfully finding a book on Egypt for her social studies brochure, Kamia described how she knew where to locate the book she found in the online catalog.

AV: How did you know where to find the book on the shelf?

Kamia: You go to the 915s or 918s because that's what the computer said.

AV: And how do you know where that is in this library with so many

                books?

Kamia: [laughs] Oh, you know, I look up on them charts. [She points to the

                large charts on the wall with the Dewey decimal classification system].

Table 13 also demonstrates that most literacy events in the library included more than one person. With the exception of quizzes as literacy events, most students were either with other students, the librarian, or their teacher during the literacy events in the school library, making most literacy events opportunities for social interactions. However, there were notable exceptions which will be discussed in the individual literacy portraits.

The Nature of Literacy Events through Children's Actions

By observing and then coding the children's actions, I discovered another layer of understanding to the nature of literacy events. As explained in chapter 3, my codes evolved through constant comparison and through the assistance of the fidelity coding completed by a colleague from my dissertation seminar. Once I established a set of a priori codes, I applied them to three new observations at the end of the year of observation. With the data from the codes, I compared the differences in the actions of the students by reading ability. To begin, as explained in chapter 3, I placed each ability group together to create a composite picture for each of the three reading ability categories. For example, I added codes from Caitlin's observations (High/High reader in Group A) to Jamal's codes (High/High reader in Group B). Together their codes provide a picture of what a high reader's actions were during literacy events in a quality school library during one academic year. With the combined

codes for both High/High students on one matrix, I recognized that the matrices did not provide a clear illustration of the actions I observed throughout the year. The matrices also did not allow me to compare the actions of the children by reading ability or gender or race. By computing the percentage for each action, I was able to display the information on bar graphs. In Figure 3 using a bar graph, I compared the students' actions during literacy events by high, mid, and low range reading ability.

Figure 3

Comparison of Actions during Literacy Event by Reading Ability
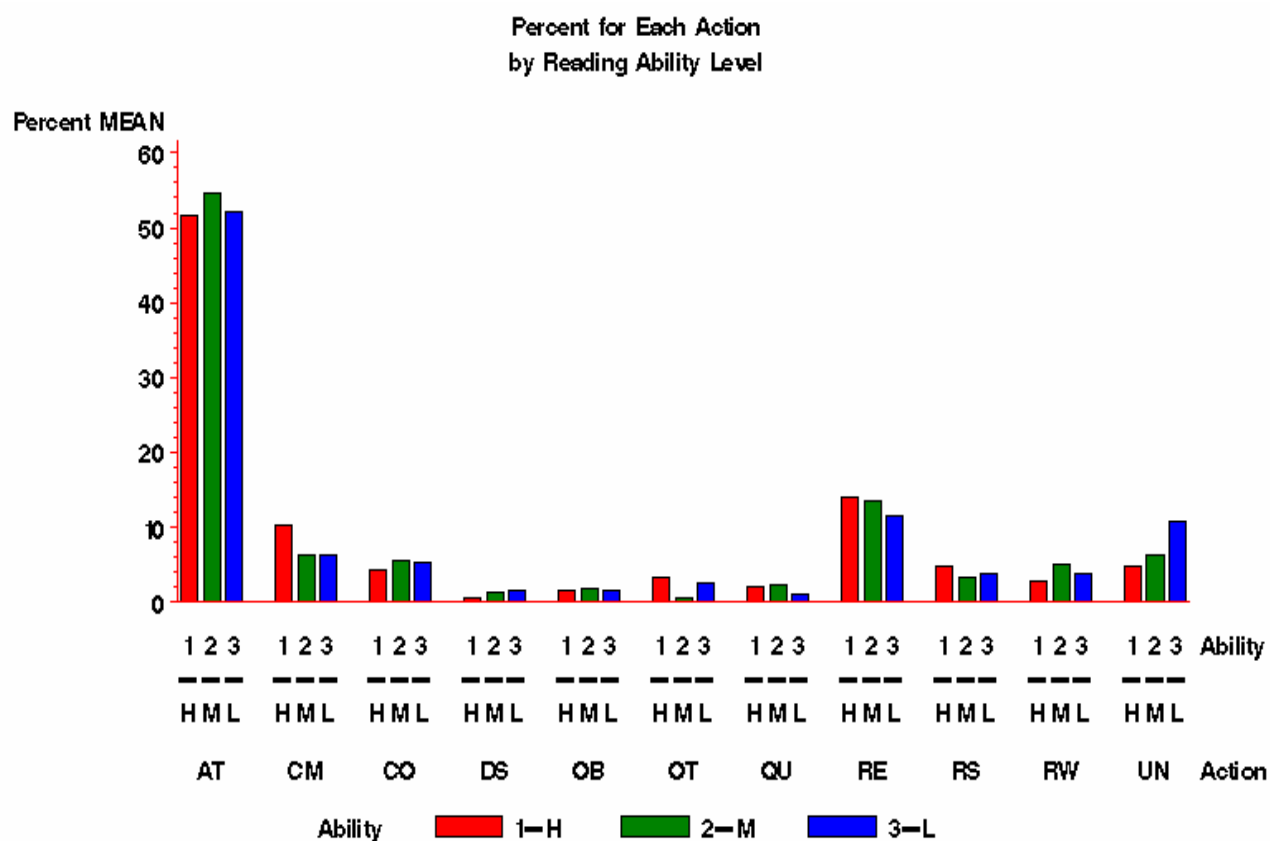
Percent for Each Action
by Reading Ability Level

Key for Actions: AT (attending), CM (computing), CO (checking out), DS (discussion) OB (obtaining), OT (off task), QU (questioning), RE (reading), RS (responding), RW (reading and writing), UN (unknown)

As explained earlier, I observed the student in two groups (each group had a high, mid, and low ability reader) and alternated groups each visit. Once I combined the actions of the high ability students (Jamal and Caitlin), I represented the actions of a high ability student over the course of one year in the school library in red on the graph. By combining the actions of the two mid level ability readers (Ian and Demont), I represented their actions in this graph as the green bar. Finally, I represented the actions of the two low readers (Kamia and Elizabeth) with the blue bar.

In Figure 3, I displayed how similar the various ability groups' actions are during literacy events. All groups 'attend' more often than any other action during literacy events. As noted earlier, attending occurred during the direct instruction segment of the school library framework. Although with much less frequency, 'reading' is the next highest action for all ability groups. Once I recognized the overwhelming amount of attending actions, I was not surprised to note that the results vary only slightly when viewed by gender as evidenced in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Comparison of Actions during Literacy Events by Gender

Key for Actions: AT (attending), CM (computing), CO (checking out), DS (discussion) OB

(obtaining), OT (off task), QU (questioning), RE (reading), RS (responding), RW (reading

and writing), UN (unknown)

In Figure 4, I noted once again that the largest action is attending for both males and females. The next highest action is reading, with females only slightly higher than the males. However, the action of computing is the third most prominent action and is almost identical for both genders. Males have slightly higher percentage of their actions involving "reading and writing" and "responding" with females spending a slightly higher percentage of their actions "computing", than the male participants. Otherwise, there appears to be little or no difference in the kinds of actions completed by males or females. There were also many similarities in the actions when displayed by race in Figure 5.

Figure 5

Comparison of Actions during Literacy Events by Race
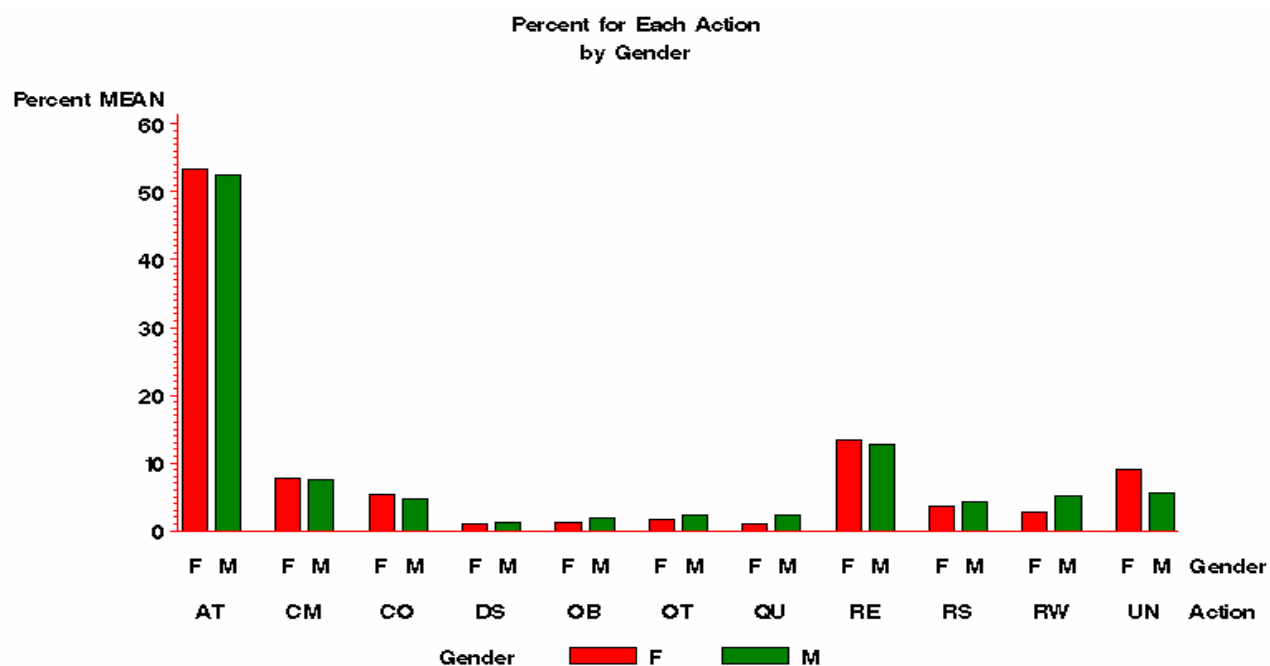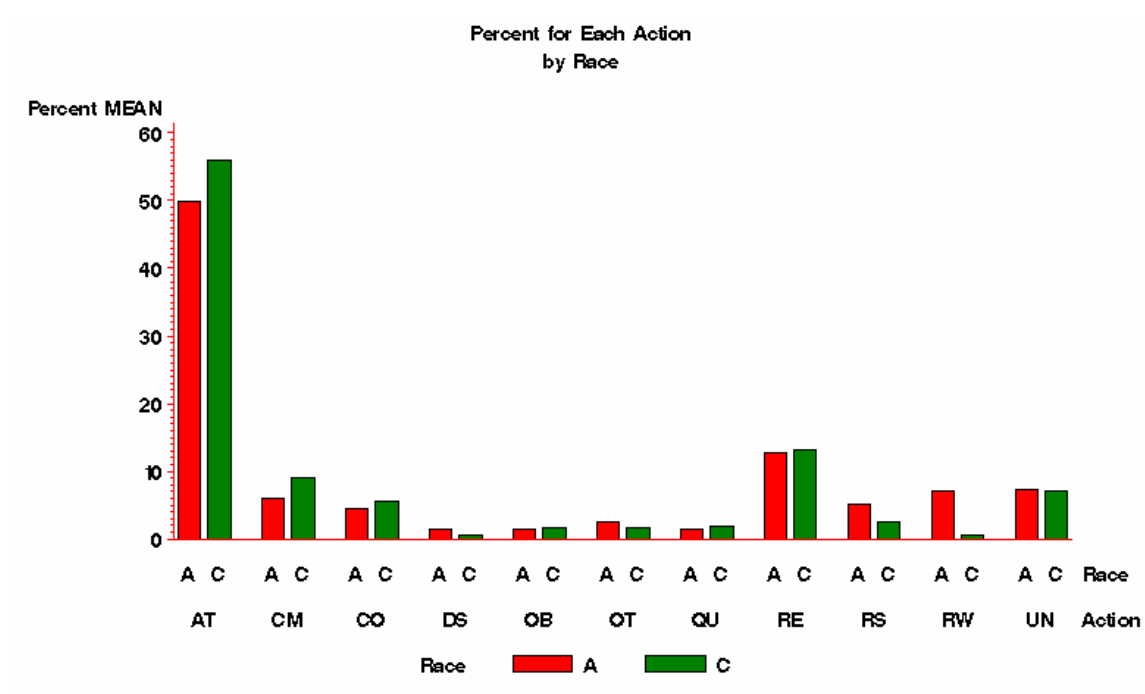

Key for Race: A = African American; C = Caucasian

Key for Actions: AT (attending), CM (computing), CO (checking out), DS (discussion) OB (obtaining), OT (off task), QU (questioning), RE (reading), RS (responding), RW (reading and writing), UN (unknown)

In Figure 5, I once again noted that "attending" was the foremost action with a slightly higher percentage of time spent attending by the Caucasian participants. "Reading" remained the next most prominent action with an almost identical bar represented for both races. However, the actions of "reading and writing", and "responding" were higher among the African American participants than the Caucasian participants. The Caucasian participants accrued more "computing" actions than their African American counterparts.

However, the differences in Figure 4 and Figure 5 may be more easily explained by the composition of Group A and B for observation. In selected the children from each pair (High, Mid, Low) to include in Group A or Group B, I placed the student who was ranked highest by Mrs. Sun-Ya within each pair together: Caitlin was ranked before Jamal; Ian was ranked before Demont, and Elizabeth was ranked before Kamia. Using this division, Group A had two girls and one boy: Caitlin, Ian, and Elizabeth. Group B had two boys and one girl: Jamal, Demont, and Kamia. All children in Group A were Caucasian and all children in Group B were African American. I observed one group and then the other on the next date. In one half of the observations, I observed all Caucasian children and in the other half all African American children. Likewise, when I observed Group A, I observed more girls; when I observed Group B, I observed more boys. Therefore the actions might differ slightly by race and gender due to the lessons presented. For example, if the children were involved in more lessons with the computer when I observed Group B, then the African American children would be coded with more computing actions than the Caucasian children.

Summarizing the information presented on the bar graphs, I found that regardless of ability, race, or gender, the children attended to direct instruction more than any other action during literacy events in a quality school library. They attended to direct instruction for about

half the time they were in the school library. In the remaining time, they participated in the following actions: computing, checking out books, discussing, obtaining [intervention or assistance], questioning, reading, responding, reading and writing. Occasionally I lost track of the children and was unable to code their actions. Very infrequently, the children were off task.

The Nature of Literacy Events through Children's Perceptions of Actions

Within each literacy portrait in the next chapter I provide individual student's perceptions of their actions. However, in this section, I present a more universal view of the participants' perception of their actions during literacy events.

As noted earlier, the students' most prominent action was attending. In the final interview with the participants, they expressed their own understandings about actions in the library over the course of one year. Only three students accurately indicated that they spent most of their time attending to the lesson. However, Caitlin, a High/High reader, indicated there were two other actions that she did more often than "attending". She indicated that "talking to her friends" was the action she performed most often in the library and "reading" was the action she believed was the second most common action she performed (i.e., searching the shelves for a pleasure book or reading the pleasure book). For Caitlin, friends and reading were important to her. The two Mid/Mid readers, Ian and Demont, also indicated other actions as more prominent during the library sessions than "attending". Ian believed he first and foremost was reading in the library more than any other action. Demont indicated that he was working at the computer more than any other action in the library. The remaining three students (Jamal, Elizabeth, and Kamia) indicated accurately that "attending" was the action they most often performed in the school library.

To discover the students' understandings about how much time they spent attending, I asked the students how they would have preferred to spend their time in the library. No students selected "attending" as their first choice. Four out of the six participants (Caitlin, Ian, Demont, and Elizabeth) noted that they would like to search for books more than any other action in the school library. The other two participants (Jamal and Kamia) stated that they would like to spend the time in the library talking to their friends, first and foremost.

By analyzing the literacy events by actions via bar graphs, and learning the students' perceptions of their action, I learned that each student also had individual understandings about the experiences during literacy events. To further highlight these differences, I present literacy portraits for the six children in the next chapter. In composing the portraits, I also address the individual and idiosyncratic experiences and understandings. The portraits are organized and presented using the following subsidiary questions presented in chapter 3: How do children use text during literacy events? What artifacts do children produce as a result of literacy events? What is the role of social interaction in the children's interpretive processes during literacy events?

Chapter 5

Literacy Portraits

In chapter 4, I noted that there was little difference in the actions of the six children during literacy events in the school library, as evidenced in Figures 3 – 5. However, as noted earlier, there were interesting differences in how individual students engaged in the actions, and more notable differences in each child's understanding of her or his experiences. I completed literacy portraits for each student to provide information on the differences and idiosyncrasies that were evident for each child.

Making sense of one year of data for six individual literacy portraits required a strategic plan, not only for organization, but also for writing about the findings. Richardson (1994) used a crystal as a metaphor for viewing and writing during qualitative research. She noted that what one sees in a crystal depends on how and where one views it. Using Richardson's notion of the crystal, I present each child in my study by holding a facet of her or his experiences and understandings to the light. Through re-reading and conversations with my advisor, Dr. Chambliss, I selected particular artifacts, texts, and experiences as salient for each child. By applying an etic perspective (i.e., reading researcher's lens), I located those incidences that best represented the emic perspective (i.e., child's lens) of literacy events.

Crystallization

Richardson (1994) explained that using "crystallization provides us with a deepened, complex" view but she warned that the view is also a "thoroughly partial understanding of the topic. Paradoxically, we know more and doubt what we know" (p. 522). In recognition

of the incompleteness of any exemplar (Swales, 1990), I indicated apparent unknowns at the conclusion of each literacy portrait.

Lofland (1971) suggested that once the participants provide meaning to the actions, the researcher may create "member-identified or folk type" (p. 31) descriptors to assist in understanding the participants. Using Lofland's suggestion, I began the interpretation of the students by creating an illustrative term which described the literacy personality of each child based upon both iterative observations and analysis. Once again, I applied an etic or researcher's lens to the emic or child's perspective to arrive at the term for each child.

In order to provide clarity, I selected a similar organizational pattern for each literacy portrait. After presenting the description of the literacy personality descriptor for a child, I explained salient exemplars from the observations and interviews. The exemplars deepen the understanding of each child, but also aligned with the subsidiary questions identified in chapter 3: What artifacts do children produce as a result of literacy events? How is text used during literacy events? What is the role of social interaction in the children's interpretive processes during literacy events? I will present the students in the order that their teacher ranked them by reading ability at the beginning of the academic year: Caitlin, Jamal, Ian, Demont, Elizabeth, and Kamia.

The Artifacts

The children produced two major artifacts during the year. I selected the most relevant exemplar to discuss in each child's portrait. However, I provide an overview of the two artifacts as background for understanding the literacy portraits.

Travel brochure. Early in the fall semester, Mrs. Sun-Ya, the children's teacher, introduced the first artifact. She linked producing a travel brochure to the first theme in the

Houghton Mifflin basal reader (Cooper & Pikulski, 2001). At the conclusion of

Grandfather's Journey (Say, 1993), the publishers of the basal program placed a suggestion

to the readers: write a travel brochure. Cooper and Pikulski provided limited directions on

how to accomplish writing a travel brochure. They suggested that the children select a place

that Grandfather visited in the story and "write a travel brochure describing that place and

why it's worth visiting. Then illustrate your brochure with your own pictures" (p. 76).

Mrs. Sun-Ya noted that she liked to begin the first writing research with the travel

brochure because it encouraged the children to research for pleasure, and enabled them to

organize the information in a non-linear fashion. She believed this artifact was "a way of

having them learn to learn. I find that kids learn the best when there's a motivation for

it. And we're doing a journey theme in reading right now" (Interview, October 26, 2004).

She indicated that later in the year, the children would be asked to write in a more organized

genre when they chronicled the life of a famous Pennsylvanian. Appendix B displays the

handout each child received prior to the travel brochure project.

Biography of a famous Pennsylvanian. In early December Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms.

Coleman, the librarian, presented the large research project to the children. Each child

selected a famous Pennsylvanian from a list of names, with the objective of finding

information about the person's life. Mrs. Sun-Ya expected the students to write one and one-

half pages of text on the person's life, including why the person was famous. In addition, the

children had to create a puppet of their person. Each student was to present the final project

to the class. In addition, the students had to include a bibliography of at least three sources,

including printed and online sources. Appendix C and D display the handout each child

received about the project.

Although there were other handouts that accompanied lessons, the travel brochure and the biography were the two major artifacts that the children completed during the academic year. (See Appendix E for an example of other handouts.) Each child completed both artifacts; however, I selected the most salient artifact to discuss in each literacy portrait. I present an overview of the portraits in Table 14.

Table 14

Overview of the Literacy Portraits

Children	Illustrative Term	Brief Synopsis of Each Literacy Portrait
1. Caitlin	Narrative Connoisseur	Caitlin demonstrated a strong interest in stories with narrative rhetoric structure. This led to difficult with reading text written in expository text
2. Jamal	Disengaging Patron	Jamal had strong social capital within this group of children but began to disengage. His interest in sports was a literary genre that did not fit with the curriculum.
3. Ian	Natural History Aficionado	Ian expressed a desire to become a marine biologist. He explored books and magazines that supported this interest. This genre fit well with the curriculum.
4. Demont	Inattentive Follower	Demont had difficulty reading and writing in order to complete the artifacts. However, he found a reading buddy who encouraged a new reading interest.
5. Elizabeth	Worker	Elizabeth had strong family support and became interested in reading a particular series of books that fit her reading level, but was below her grade level.
6. Kamia	Connector	Kamia related most of her reading and writing to a connection with her family. She also focused on explicit, rather than implicit, reading of text.

I will begin with Caitlin. In addition to the two artifacts, Caitlin had numerous shared reading and writing connections with school, home, and friends that combined to cultivate a robust literacy personality. In the following literacy portrait, I present artifacts and text use that demonstrated her comfortable approach to the school library. Because I learned that narrative reading and writing were integral to her literacy identity, I selected exemplars of text and artifacts that demonstrate my finding about Caitlin.

Literacy Portrait 1: Caitlin

One of the 24 fourth grade students in Mrs. Sun Ya's class was a nine year old Caucasian girl named Caitlin. Her freckled face was framed by braided pigtails that touched her shoulders. With her dark-rimmed glasses and serious expression, Caitlin looked studious.

Mrs. Sun Ya listed Caitlin as the most competent reader among the children in her class, both in the fall and again at the end of the school year. Caitlin also scored the highest in the Title Recognition Test (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990), which Mrs. Sun-Ya administered in the fall semester of 2004. Caitlin identified 20 of the 24 actual titles, missing the following book titles: *Hatchet* (Paulsen, 1987), *The Trouble with Tuck* (Taylor, 1981), *Island of the Blue Dolphins* (O'Dell, 1962), and *The Great Gilly Hopkins* (Paterson, 1978). She did not select any of the foils as actual titles. Caitlin's total score on the TRT was 90%; the next highest score in the class was 72%. Although in the spring of 2004 Caitlin scored in the 82nd percentile on the Terra Nova reading test, she scored in the 98th percentile when the test was administered six months later in the fall of the same year, demonstrating a wide disparity (16 percentiles) in the two scores. Only one other child in the class had a larger positive difference between the spring and fall test results.

As noted earlier, I was interested in a variety of readers; therefore, I determined that the data I collected indicated that Caitlin was a very competent reader who chose to read and write. Early in the school year, the school librarian provided information on the kind of materials Caitlin chose to read when she described Caitlin and her twin sister's reading choices as "surprising" because Caitlin did not cling to the popular novels that many other fourth graders selected. She deliberately selected eclectic, classic, and often relatively unknown books to read (Interview, September 23, 2004). The librarian noted that Caitlin's mother was very interested in her children's education.

My own interpretation of Caitlin was based upon iterative observations, interviews, artifacts, and analysis. In the following section, I present how the illustrative term for Caitlin evolved during data analysis.

The Narrative Connoisseur

Throughout the year of interviewing, I learned that Caitlin participated in a number of literacy events within the school library, with members of her family, and with her friends. For Caitlin, literacy was a connection for her life in school, at home, and outside of home and school. I classified these experiences as literacy events because they involved comprehension or production of text (Heath, 1982). Additionally, Caitlin's teacher considered her to be an expert, and the librarian indicated that she was an enthusiast. Combining the concept of expert and enthusiast, I originally selected the term "connoisseur" to describe Caitlin.

To substantiate my decision to use the term "connoisseur" to describe Caitlin, I reviewed transcripts. Like a connoisseur or expert, Caitlin often detailed previous literacy experiences and literary interests: her own and others. The most obvious example where I noticed that Caitlin appreciated and had knowledge of others' literacy habits was through the use of the library model.

In early May, I employed the library model with the children to verify patterns that I had noted throughout the year. As Caitlin and I walked to a small empty room in a hallway adjacent to the library, I explained the library model. Once she arrived in the resource room, Caitlin noticed the library model. Pushing her glasses further up her nose, she began by quietly examining every detail. Afterwards, Caitlin guessed the materials used to recreate each part and asked questions about how it was put together. Once I answered her questions about the construction of the model, we began our conversations about her understandings of the literacy events she experienced during the year.

To gain a sense of Caitlin's expert understanding of others' literacy experiences, I asked her to place the small figure of her teacher, Mrs. Sun-Ya, in a place in the library that seemed natural. When Caitlin placed her teacher in what she identified as the "non-fiction book area" near the 900s (i.e., history/geography), I asked why she placed Mrs. Sun-Ya in that location. Caitlin demonstrated her sense of other's literacy habits when she responded, "Because most of the books she reads to us are non-fiction and fiction at the same time, and so she would be here looking for a book" (Interview, May 3, 2005). Caitlin assumed her teacher would be engaged in a literacy event, not disciplining or monitoring the behaviors of the students.

By applying an etic lens to better understand the genre Caitlin described as "fiction and non-fiction at the same time", I investigated the book Mrs. Sun-Ya was in the process of reading during the time of the interview. She was reading *Snow Treasure* (McSwigen, 1986). The novel, with a narrative rhetorical structure, was historical fiction based upon documented event set in Norway during World War II. In this story, schoolchildren outfoxed the Nazi army. Under the guise of winter fun, the children smuggled Norway's gold out of the country on snow sleds. McSwigen began the book with these words, "'Beat you to the turn,' Peter Lundstrom shot his sled down the long steep slope" (p. 1). From an emic perspective, the text fit well into Caitlin's description of non-fiction and fiction at the same time. The author described an authentic, non-fiction historical event in a story-like format. Using an etic perspective, I described the book as narrative-informational (Dreher & Voelker, 2004) which "presents factual information in story format" (p. 204).

Although confident that the term connoisseur described Caitlin, I knew that there were multiple facets to Caitlin's experiences and understandings of literacy events. Exploring more intentionally, I analyzed the texts and artifacts that were a part of Caitlin's many literacy events. During these events, Caitlin demonstrated a propensity to read and write texts with a narrative rhetorical pattern. Although there were a few examples where Caitlin read and wrote exposition, she primarily selected narrative for both reading and writing. With this realization, Caitlin's illustrative term evolved from "connoisseur" to "narrative connoisseur"

In order to crystallize Caitlin's experiences and understandings as a narrative connoisseur, I selected exemplars of Caitlin's interest in reading books with a narrative rhetorical pattern. Using artifacts, I traced the trajectory of Caitlin's strong interest in reading narrative text to the decisions she made about her own writing.

How Caitlin Used Texts

Caitlin expressed an affinity for narrative text, but she often selected narrative books that provided information. As stated earlier, reading researchers, using an etic lens, have identified these texts as "narrative informational" books (Dreher & Voelker, 2004). Caitlin's interest in this type of book spanned from September through May. Early in the school year, I spoke with Caitlin about her book selection as she browsed book spines attempting to locate a biography of Laura Ingalls Wilder. Caitlin shared that she had read a biography of Wilder in third grade, and wished to re-read it (Interview, September 28, 2004). At the end of the school year, while using the model of the library, I asked Caitlin where the most knowledge was located in the library. She selected the biography section. Although biographies tend to be written in a narrative rhetorical pattern, they do provide information.

However, Caitlin also found information in narrative books that she and her classmates would identify as "fiction or not true". These were realistic contemporary or historical fiction stories. For example, she selected several contemporary realistic fiction books on various issues young girls face as they mature, like *Oh Grow Up* (Heide, 2001), *The Girls' Revenge* (Naylor, 1999), and *What Every Girl (except me) Knows* (Baskin, 2001). In reviewing the latter for the School Library Journal, Steinberg (2001) noted that the 224-page book was "an engrossing coming-of-age story peopled with characters about whom it is easy to care . . . . a fine novel that offers a perceptive and positive look at dealing with loss" (p. 138). When asked about these particular coming of age books, Caitlin noted that she and her friends "learned a lot about things we don't know about" (Interview, May 24, 2005).

Another source of information about Caitlin's reading choices came from Reading Counts, a computerized incentive reading program published by Scholastic. The software

program was available on classroom computers, but the children in Mrs. Sun-Ya's class always came to the library to take quizzes. Mrs. Sun-Ya never insisted that the children complete the Reading Counts quizzes; she believed that the software program was one way, not the only way, to encourage the students to read. For some of the children in Mrs.Sun-Ya's class accruing points in the Reading Counts program was pleasurable; they boasted to their friends about the accumulated points.

Despite the fact that her teacher did not mandate that the children complete books on the Reading Counts program, Caitlin took nine quizzes from the program over the course of the year. In reviewing her selected books for the Reading Counts program, I discovered all books had a narrative rhetorical pattern and many also contained information. In Table 15, I displayed Caitlin's information from the Reading Counts software program.

Table15

Caitlin's Scholastic's Reading Count Program

Title / Author	Rhetorical Structure / Genre	Level	Words Read
From the Mixed Up Files . . . (Konigsburg, 1967/2002)	Narrative / Fiction (Contemporary)	4	30,660
Shelter Dogs (Kehret, 1999)	Narrative / Informational	6.4	18,178
100th Thing about Caroline (Lowry, 1992)	Narrative / Fiction (Contemporary)	5.5	30,273
Kit Learns a Lesson (Tripp, 2000)	Narrative / Fiction (Historical)	4.2	9,384
Doll People (Martin, 2003)	Narrative /Fantasy	3.8	33,815
Small Steps: The Year I Got Polio (Kehret, 1996)	Narrative / Memoir	4.8	28,549
Starring Sally J. Freedman (Blume, 1986)	Narrative / Fiction (Historical)	4.5	53,941
West Along the Wagon (Lawlor, 2000)	Narrative / Fiction (Historical)	6.1	29,611
Huckabuck Family . . . (Sandburg, 1923/1999)	Narrative/ Fiction (Historical)	4.2	1,294
Totals	9 Books	4.8	235,705

To organize the information from Reading Counts, I identified rhetorical patterns for each book by using an etic lens and the definitions established in chapter 3 for narrative and expository. Using an emic lens, I noted the genres as the children would identify the books. I used Scholastic's information in the Reading Counts program for both reading levels and the number of words within each book.

Within the Reading Counts program, Caitlin read a variety of genres but all had a narrative rhetorical text pattern. The majority (67%) of the narrative texts were fiction, almost equally divided between contemporary and historical stories. But she also read two informational stories: a true story of dogs in shelters, and a memoir.

Through observation, interviews, and the Reading Counts information, I affirmed Caitlin's avid interest in reading books that had a narrative rhetorical pattern. I was confident that the term "narrative connoisseur" was a good descriptor.

To explore further, I analyzed the rhetorical patterns in Caitlin's artifacts. In the process, I discovered that Caitlin's affinity for reading narrative reflected in her writing and her reading of research. I selected one artifact, a biography, which best demonstrated this finding.

How Caitlin Produced Artifacts

As noted earlier, Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman presented a large research project to the children in December. Having completed the travel brochure in the fall, Caitlin and her classmates selected a famous Pennsylvanian for this artifact. Mrs. Sun-Ya provided a handout to the children with explicit directions on how to write the biography. In addition, during the direct instruction segment of the library lesson, Ms. Coleman walked the students

through the six steps to locate information with another handout entitled, "Follow These Steps to Locate Information on your Pennsylvania Person". (See Appendix D.) Because Mrs. Sun-Ya asked the children to select the topic for their biography artifact, I was curious to learn why Caitlin selected John Harris. Caitlin often connected family experiences to school projects so it was not surprising when she indicated that she "saw his [John Harris's] house this past summer." (Interview, December 9, 2004).

      Selecting narrative rhetoric. To demonstrate how Caitlin used her appreciation and experience with narrative text in her artifact, I compared Caitlin's writing to the resource (i.e., book) she used in her research. In her bibliography, Caitlin included an historical text, *Life by the Moving Road* (Barton, 1983). In this text, Barton described an 1858 account of an exciting incident in John Harris's life:

> *On one occasion, a band of Indians, who had been down the river . . . came to his house. Some, or most of them, were intoxicated. They asked for lum, meaning West India rum, as the modern whiskey was not then manufactured in Pennsylvania. Seeing they were already intoxicated, he feared mischief if he gave them more; and he refused. They became enraged and seized him and tied him to a mulberry tree to burn him* (p.26; italics retained from original text).

Barton presented the story as it was told by a member of the Harris family. In analyzing the text, I found that it has a narrative rhetorical pattern with a story-like format. As Chambliss and Calfee (1998) noted, "Narrative follows the conventions of conversation. Using a narrative rhetorical pattern, a writer "places characters in a setting, confronts them with a problem, moves them toward a resolution" (p. 29). In Caitlin's final draft of her biography of John Harris (Figure 6), she included the same story in a similar narrative style.

Figure 6

Section of the Final Version of Caitlin's Artifact

Did I tell you about the time when Indians tied me to a tree and prepared to burn me just because I refused to sell them alcohol? No? I didn't? Then I must!

One day Indians approached me while I was running the ferry and demanded to buy alcohol. When I refused to sell them any, they tied me to a nearby mulberry tree and prepared to burn me. Luckily my servant, Hercules, saw what they were planning to do and gathered up his friends. They came to the tree I was tied to just as the other Indians were going to start the fire. Hercules and his friends rescued me in the nick of time.

My story ended with my

Like the Barton (1983) text, Caitlin used a narrative rhetorical pattern in her biography. She embedded interesting information into the text including the use of a question, "Did I tell you about the time the Indians tied me to a tree and prepared to burn me just because I refused to sell them alcohol?" to engage her readers in a story-like format. However, unlike the Barton text, Caitlin created a fictive first person account, rather than the third person account she read in the text.

At the end of the school year when Caitlin described the biography artifact she explained, "I understood it better [than the other artifacts completed in fourth grade] because of the way I did it for the biography, cause I used my own words to get it that way. And it was different. I liked it better and I think I learned more." (Interview, May 24, 2005).

Because Caitlin gravitated to narrative texts and identified them as "important" she also mimicked the narrative style in her writing. Conversely, she avoided reading exposition, unless required by her teacher. Her writing also reflected her avoidance of reading exposition. The following example illustrated how Caitlin's avoidance of the expository sections in reading her resource created inaccuracies in her artifact.

Eschewing expository rhetoric. Choosing references mattered in the completion of the biography artifact. Caitlin selected two websites and one book during her research. In this section I selected to discuss the book, not the website, because Caitlin identified the book as a "useful resource" (Interview, February 15, 2005). In addition, the book was a reference source cataloged within the school library; Caitlin located the two websites at home on her computer.

AV:	How did you know if this book was reliable and not tricky?
Caitlin:	Some things were the same from the websites.
AV:	If information is repeated in different places, what does that mean to you?
Caitlin:	It's right. The book had the same thing as the websites.
AV:	You said, "Its right." How did you learn that repeated information is right?
Caitlin:	My teacher.
AV:	And the story about Harris and the Indians? Is that "right"?
Caitlin:	Well, I read about it more than once.

Skimming my field notes, I located a comment Mrs. Sun-Ya stated to the children while they were researching for the biography project, "You see something stated in multiple sources, that would be important, wouldn't it?" (Observation, December 13, 2004). Although Mrs. Sun-Ya did not use the term "cross checking" to describe the strategy, I applied an etic lens and assumed that was the intention for the comment. Using an emic perspective, I discovered that Caitlin interpreted "important" as "right" information and considered any repeated information accurate. This understanding was the base I used to explore the text and Caitlin's writing.

Caitlin, as noted earlier, wrote about an incident that she located in multiple resources. From her interpretation of Mrs. Sun-Ya's comment, Caitlin considered the incident to be "right". When asked, Caitlin identified *Life by the Moving Road* (Barton, 1983) as the book source for the account of a group of intoxicated Indians who tied John Harris to a tree in an attempt to burn him because he refused to provide them with more alcohol.

In the chapter entitled, "1733", Barton recounted the incident not once, but five times. As Barton presented each historian's account of the incident, he placed the narrative incident about John Harris and the Indians in italics. Because the incident was based upon anecdotes and accounts of various people (some members of the Harris family), the retellings have the rhetorical structure of a narrative story. However, each account varied slightly. The account that most resembles Caitlin's version began in a story-like manner with these four words: "It happened one day . . ." (Barton, 1983, p. 26).

Prior to the narrative story about the incident, Barton explained that the story had many versions. Early in the chapter, Barton (1983) noted emphatically, "The story is a myth beyond the facts" and then he explained that there are "several versions" of the story. In the expository text that surrounded the five narrative versions of the incident, Barton described the controversy and indicated that some historians believe that there has "never been any documentary evidence" about the event (p. 29).

I selected Chambliss and Calfee (1998) as a framework for analyzing Barton's text. Chambliss and Calfee noted that authors use explanation to "fill in a gap in understanding by using a logical progression of subdesigns" (p. 32). Barton explained how a popular story was actually a myth by using this rhetorical pattern: a linear string format to present five narrative versions of the event. He presented the versions chronologically as they were recorded: 1846, 1858, 1883, 1907, and finally 1925. Barton connected each version by explaining the embellishments added to each version. He began with the earliest version published in 1846 and attributed it to John Harris's great-grandson. This appeared to be a close match to the story Caitlin added to her biography. As previously stated, each account was someone's retelling of the event; therefore, Barton presented the stories as they were written, which was

in a narrative rhetorical pattern. As noted by Chambliss and Calfee (1998), "narratives (stories) tend to be the more natural forum; the author places characters in a setting, confronts them with a problem, and moves them toward a resolution" (p. 29).

In the incident Caitlin described, all the characteristics of narrative were in place: the story was natural because it was told in the vernacular of the person telling the story; the main character (John Harris) was established in the setting of his own home; the problem was the arrival of intoxicated Indians demanding more alcohol; and the solution was the arrival of Hercules, Harris's servant who saved Harris from being burned. The structure of the story moved from beginning to end.

Chambliss and Calfee (1998) noted that, in contrast to narrative, "exposition takes shape as the reports and essays found in the world of business, government, and academe" (p.30). Thus, the exposition in Barton's resource was presented as historians analyze and present differences in various accounts. Each account was presented with the author's notes between incidents describing the difference and hypothesizing why certain details were included or omitted. In the end, Barton (1983) did not identify which version (if any) was authentic; rather, he left the matter for the reader to interpret and consider. In her artifact, Caitlin did not include any information from the exposition section of her resource.

As stated earlier, narrative was the mainstay of Caitlin's selected readings. Caitlin commented that when she planned her biography, she "wanted to find a different way" (May 24, 2005) to write it. Although she selected a print resource (i.e., Barton, 1983) that was written in both narrative and expository rhetorical formats for her research, Caitlin used only the narrative story in her own writing. Because she indicated that she read the story of Harris and Indians in several sources, and her teacher noted that this distinguished important

information, Caitlin concluded that the story she included was reliable or "right". It appeared

that she did not read the expository text that explained that much of the incident had been

embellished over the years, nor did she include that there was controversy due to the lack of

documentation.

During her interview using the library model, Caitlin indicated that books in the

Dewey Decimal section of the library are "sometimes important" but books in the narrative

fiction area, "they have what kids like to read, not what you *have* to read like from your

teachers or something" (Interview, May 5, 2005). Although Caitlin was an avid reader and

capable reader, as indicated by the Title Recognition Test and Terra Nova Reading scores,

she did not attend to the expository explanation about the narrative story telling in Barton's

(1983) text. When using a research text that had both narrative and exposition (i.e., the kinds

of text structures that Caitlin deemed ones "you *have* to read"), Caitlin selected only the

information she located in the narrative section for her artifact. By doing so, she did not have

a completely accurate depiction of the incident involving John Harris and the Indians.

Perhaps a partial explanation of Caitlin's affinity to narrative relates to her social

interactions. Caitlin uses social interaction to direct her decisions during literacy events

within the library. In the next section, I address the role of friends and the librarian.

The Role of Social Interaction

As stated earlier, I used the library model to verify the patterns I noted when coding

and analyzing the observations and interviews. During the model interview, Caitlin affirmed

that her friends and the librarian were important to her experiences during literacy events.

She believed that she spent most of her time in the library talking or reading with her friends.

In this section, I discuss the role of interactions with friends during literacy events.

Friends. Notably, Caitlin's friends were readers; she and her friends discussed books outside of the school building. For example when I asked her why she decided to check out a particular book, Caitlin talked about literary discourse from her bus ride to school.

AV: Okay, so why did you decide to check out *Chicken Soup for the Teenage Soul* (Canfield, Hansen, & Kirberger, 1997)?

Caitlin: Because the girl I sit with on the bus, she got a book sort of like it, and I read one of the stories, and I liked it.

AV: What did she get? Do you remember the title of the book she got?

Caitlin: *Chicken Soup for the Kid's Soul* (Canfield, Hansen, Hansen, & Dunlop, 1997). (Interview, September 28, 2004)

After reading a part of a friend's book on the bus, Caitlin later recalled that information and used it to select a similar book with narrative rhetorical patterns during the book selection time frame. In my final interview with Caitlin, I used a replica of the school library and a small figure of each student in her class. In this segment of the interview, I moved Caitlin's figure to various sections of the library to see what she would say.

AV: [placing the model of Caitlin into the library replica] If I place you here in the fiction section, what would you be doing?

Caitlin: Looking at books with Sofia or Madison or Harriet. They're my friends and we kind of have the same interest in books. (May 5, 2005)

As the year progressed, Caitlin experienced and commented on her time reading with another student more than any of the other participants in the sample group. In this interview, Caitlin discussed what books she read before the visiting author, Jacqueline Woodson, came to Lewis Elementary:

Caitlin: I read *Locomotion* in third grade, but I didn't read other ones. But

When we had that book talk in the library, I got *Coming on Home.*

That really got me interested. Then I read *Sweet, Sweet, Memory* with

my friend Sofia when she checked it out.

AV: What do you mean when you say, "I read . . . with my friend"?

Caitlin: Well, she held it and I just kind of read it . . . with Sofia (April

26, 2005)

In the conversation, as in others, I noted that Caitlin mentioned not just her friend, but also the librarian. By exploring more intentionally, I was able to document that Caitlin's social interactions with Ms. Coleman impacted her literacy understandings and experiences.

The Librarian. On any observation day as I entered the library, I noticed that Ms. Coleman placed bookmarks on the tables for each student. The bookmarks were oblong pieces of paper with the titles and call numbers related to the books that Ms. Coleman introduced for that particular genre. The name of the genre was at the top of the bookmark. During the PowerPoint presentation and discussion of the books, the children referred to the book mark. Ms. Coleman encouraged them to circle, star, or check books they wanted to read. Some children marked every title, and some children made no made notations on the bookmark. However, Caitlin was intentional in placing check marks next to particular book titles as they were introduced. At the conclusion of Ms. Coleman's direct instruction, Caitlin carried the bookmark with her to locate the book(s) she wanted to check out.

When asked about the bookmarks, Caitlin noted that using the bookmark enabled her to locate a book without having to use the online catalog. Because I knew that Caitlin was

skilled at using the online catalog, I asked why this mattered. She replied, "It saves time, then I can start reading sooner." (Interview, February 15, 2006).

Late in the school year, Ms. Coleman presented a lesson on the books that matched the reading basal's theme, Nature: Friend and Foe. On this particular day, the librarian did not provide any bookmarks to the children. When asked, Ms. Coleman noted that the computers were not working and she would have to discuss the books without the bookmarks, PowerPoint, or graphics. Instead, she used the books' dust jackets and her voice to discuss the new genre.

Because the children did not have bookmarks, I was able to identify the value of the bookmarks. After the lesson on Nature: Friend and Foe, Caitlin selected one of the narrative books that Ms. Coleman introduced. It was entitled, *Snowboarding Monster Mountain* (Bunting, 2003). Caitlin located the book in the online catalog, wrote down the call number from the computer, and then found the book on the shelf. In the interview after class, I asked Caitlin about not having bookmarks, and she replied:

 I like it better when we get bookmarks, and I like to remember the titles

 because sometimes, like for that there were three or four books that I liked and

 I'm having a hard time trying to remember what the title was. [Points to her head.]

 So with the bookmark, you can just check off which ones you like. And then you

 get the call number later on. I put it [referring to the bookmark] on my bulletin board

 at home and then I can go to the public library with it too. (Interview, May 3, 2005).

Caitlin enjoyed being introduced to new books, and the bookmark gave her a way to remember the books. In an earlier interview, she indicated that having the bookmark allowed her to retrieve the book faster and thus have more time to read the book. From the

observation without the bookmark, Caitlin demonstrated that she knew how to use the computer's catalog to locate call numbers. With or without the bookmark, Caitlin located the books she wanted. Yet she expressed her pleasure at having the bookmark for use in school, and the bookmark became a tool to engage in another literacy event outside of school.

As noted earlier, I used the library model with the children at the end of the year to triangulate the experiences and understandings of the children. In a solo interview with Caitlin and the library model, I asked her to describe how she located books in the library; Caitlin did not mention the use of the bookmarks. She proceeded to use the model of the computers with her figure to demonstrate how she proceeded from the online catalog to the shelves to sitting down to read a book with her friend. This re-enactment disconfirmed what I had noticed about Caitlin's consistent use of the bookmarks and her own comment about missing the bookmarks when they were not provided. To better understand Caitlin, I asked her to talk more about the book selection process and she stated, "I like to pick my own books without people telling me what to pick out" (May 5, 2005). I reminded her that she had recently told me how much she appreciated the bookmarks and that she described how she placed them on her bulletin board at home to use at the public library. Caitlin looked quizzically at me and replied, "But the bookmark didn't tell me what to pick out; it just has suggestions." To answer my follow-up question about why she had not used the bookmarks in her demonstration, Caitlin shrugged and said she didn't see any bookmarks to use in the library model (Interview, May 5, 2005). In creating the library model, I had not anticipated the need to provide this type of text for the children's use.

For an avid reader, like Caitlin, choice was important; however, she also appreciated and used the bookmark as a helpful and portable text that could be taken out of the library

and used in her family life. Perhaps if I had provided miniature book marks with the model, she would have used it in her demonstration.

According to Lance and his colleagues (2000b) one element of a quality school library program was a certified librarian and staff. Without someone to create the book talks, compile the bookmarks, and distribute them to the children, the students would not have access to the knowledge provided on the text of a bookmark. Even for a well rounded reader, like Caitlin, it mattered to have a knowledgeable reader (Vygotsky, 1962) scaffold the book selection process. Although Caitlin spent more time reading the spines and shelves, her goal was to use the bookmark in order to gain more time to read the books in the library.

Ms. Coleman primarily followed the reading series for her lessons, particularly the lessons on introducing new books to the class. As indicated earlier in this chapter, the basal series focused on narrative stories, and infrequently presented exposition. In addition, when introducing how to write, the basal series emphasized mostly narrative writing (e.g., personal narratives). Therefore the bookmarks that Caitlin appreciated led her full circle to narrative story-like books.

As noted earlier, Richardson (1994) warned researchers that crystallization provided a "thoroughly partial understanding" (p. 522). There are unknowns about Caitlin and her experiences and understanding of literacy events. From Caitlin's discussions, I discovered that the social interactions of her family had a large impact on her actions during school library literacy events.

The Unknown

Family literacy events were relatively unknown in my study of the school library program. During interviews and observations, I discovered several examples that indicated

the importance of Caitlin's family to her literacy experiences and understandings. I present two examples to illustrate this point.

Although I discussed only two rhetorical patterns (i.e., narrative and expository) in the literacy portraits, poetry was another genre Ms. Coleman introduced to the children at one library session in April. During the lesson, Ms. Coleman asked the children if they knew the poet, Jack Prelutsky. Caitlin and one other child raised their hands. Later, in an interview, Caitlin explained how she connected with this poet.

AV:	I noticed you put your hand up when Ms. Coleman asked how many people knew Jack Prelutsky. How do you know this poet?
Caitlin:	My mom is a big fan of his, and she has most of his books on one shelf of our bookcase.
AV:	Do you read them?
Caitlin:	Yeah, when we were little, she used to read them to my sister and me before we went to bed.
AV:	Did you like them?
Caitlin:	I like "The New Kid" – my mom really likes that one. She read that to us.

The above dialogue segment provided support for the notion that Caitlin's actions and decisions during literacy events within the school library were related to her social interactions with her mother. Early in the academic year, Ms. Coleman indicated that Caitlin's mother was very involved in her children's education.

Reviewing my notes, I found an early interview where Caitlin discussed shared literacy events with her father. In this discussion, Caitlin described two books she returned to the school library the previous morning as well as a shared literacy event with her father.

AV: What did you return, Caitlin?

Caitlin: *How to Make Great Stuff for Your Room* and an Australia book.

AV: Did you do anything with that . . . *Great Stuff for Your Room* book?

Caitlin: Yeah, my dad copied like three of them and we're working on them. I got another book at the public library too.
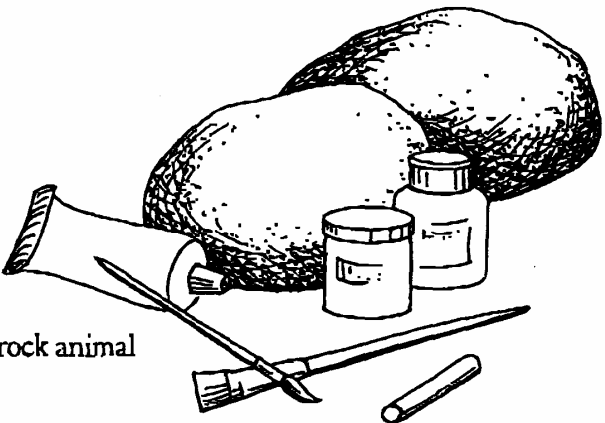
AV: How did you get to the public library?

Caitlin: My dad rents tapes 'cause he travels to Pittsburgh every week and he rents tapes and we usually go [to the library] every Sunday. (Interview, October 18. 2004)

Not only did Caitlin experience literacy events with her mother and father, she also had specific experiences that directly precipitated from school literacy events. She and her father used the text from a school library book to complete a project for her bedroom. The book *How to Make Great Stuff for Your Room* (Wallace, 1992) had an expository rhetorical pattern as noted in this sample (p. 26) on how to make bookends out of rocks.

Figure 7   *How to Make Great Stuff for Your Room example*[1]

BOOKENDS

Go on a rock hunt. Then paint a rock animal or two to hold up your books.
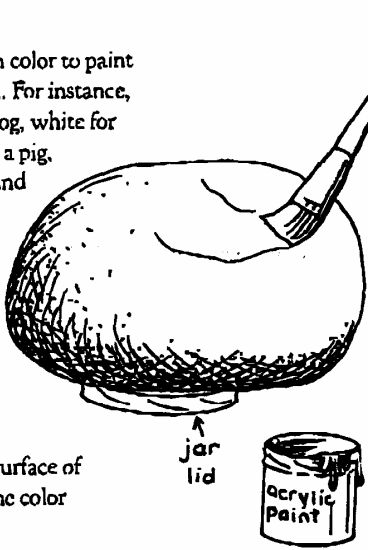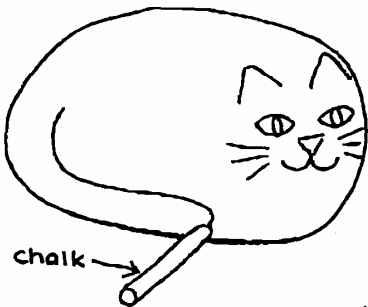
● MATERIALS
- smooth rocks ● acrylic or latex paint ● paintbrush ● water ● jar lid
- chalk ● felt piece (optional) ● pompon (optional)

● PREPARATION

● Find some smooth, rounded rocks that are 4 inches to 8 inches wide. Wash off any dirt and dry them.

● Choose one rock from your collection and study it. Decide what animal it looks like and which lump or indentation suggests an eye, ear, nose or tail.

● Cover your work surface with newspaper.

● INSTRUCTIONS

1. Choose one main color to paint your rock animal. For instance, use green for a frog, white for a rabbit, pink for a pig, orange for a cat and brown for a porcupine or a beaver.

2. Paint the entire surface of your rock with the color you've chosen.

jar lid

acrylic Paint

3. Set the painted rock in an upside-down jar lid to dry. When dry, paint a second coat if necessary.

4. After the rock has dried, use chalk to sketch on the animal's legs, ears and other features.

chalk →

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[1] See Appendix F for copyright permission from Maple Tree Press, Toronto.

Although Caitlin typically eschewed exposition for reading and writing on her own, she *selected* this particular expository text. But I had limited data about this literacy event. I knew the literacy event included the text and social interaction with her father, who traveled out of town during the work week. Without additional data concerning Caitlin's home literacy events, I was unable to fully understand the family's role in Caitlin's library literacy events.

For Caitlin, there was a porous border between school library literacy events and home literacy events. Social interaction with her family impacted Caitlin's decisions, understandings, and experiences in the school library, and social interaction at school impacted her literacy events with her family.

Conclusions on Caitlin's Literacy Portrait

In sum, Caitlin's experiences and understandings during literacy events in a quality school library program demonstrated her affinity for narrative texts. Most narrative texts she selected included information, either biographical, historical, or contemporary coming of age issues. She did not select to read exposition, unless required by her teacher. Her lack of experience and understanding of how to read expository text was apparent in one of her artifacts. By not being attentive to the historian's expository explanation about the controversial event in John Harris's life, Caitlin included inaccurate information in her biography project.

Additionally Caitlin embraced her friends' suggestions and the suggestions made by the librarian during literacy events. She used the bookmarks which were distributed during class to locate books both in the library and later at the public library.

However, there are unknowns about how Caitlin experiences and understands literacy events in her school library because she had numerous family interactions with literacy outside the scope of this study. Caitlin was a narrative connoisseur during school library literacy events, but further investigation of her home literacy events was an unknown and may have provided a more complete understanding.

Literacy Portrait 2: Jamal

As Mrs. Sun-Ya's students walked down the hallway, one student's head of soft, chocolate brown curls stood a few inches above the rest. As he entered the library on my first day of observing the children, Jamal greeted me with a warm, "Hello" and an easy smile. His slender, handsome face and gracious manner made an instant, positive impression.

When asked to rank the students by reading ability, Mrs. Sun-Ya identified Jamal in the second highest position after Caitlin. According to Mrs. Sun-Ya, Jamal worked diligently in grade three because he wanted to be a part of the gifted program for reading at Lewis Elementary. The principal invited Jamal to join the gifted program at the beginning of fourth grade.

Through a variety of quantitative measures, I learned that Jamal was a bright student. In addition to being selected to join the gifted reading and math programs at Lewis Elementary, Jamal scored higher than any other male students in Mrs. Sun-Ya's class on the Terra Nova reading test both in spring, 2004 and again in fall, 2004. He advanced from the 90th percentile in spring to the 92nd percentile in the fall semester. On the TRT (Stanovich & Cunningham, 1990) that Mrs. Sun-Ya administered in September, Jamal was the highest scoring male student, although three female students scored higher than he did. He correctly identified 15 of the 24 actual titles on the TRT and selected only 3 of the 15 foils which gave

him an over-all score of 69%. In late September, 2004, at a joint meeting where we reviewed the quantitative data on Jamal, Ms. Coleman suggested, "We should include Jamal. He's a bright little boy." (Interview, September 23, 2004) and Ms. Sun-Ya concurred.

Despite Jamal's above average reading ability and strong endorsements from his teacher, I found his case perplexing to analyze. I chronicled Jamal's experiences during literacy events in the school library program and discovered how he understood the events. From September through May, Jamal continued to complete and follow through on the expectations of his teacher and librarian. But his interest in literacy events waned starting in November and continued to slowly erode all year. After analysis, I constructed member identification (Lofland, 1971) for Jamal to crystallize his literacy experiences and understandings; I created the term "disengag*ing* patron" as a descriptor. I use the term disengag*ing* and patron purposely. In the next section, I explain the selection of the term.

The Disengaging Patron

A patron can be described as an influential person who supports or sponsors an activity or place (Agnes, 1999). Jamal, a capable reader, began his experiences in the school library as a student who fit the criteria of a patron. Of the thirteen boys in Mrs. Sun-Ya's fourth grade classroom, Jamal was the student with the most social capital. Other students, particularly boys, chose to be in his company while in the school library. An intellectual, athletic boy, Jamal was also well liked by the teacher and librarian. They identified him as a leader and were pleased that he had a positive influence on the other children's academic work. In field notes, I noted observations where Jamal was followed by three or four boys as he made book selections.

By using the participle "disengag*ing*" in the descriptive term, I am purposefully using an action to describe Jamal. I italicized the "ing" to highlight the ongoing nature of the action. Whereas engaging can be defined as both "hands on" and "minds-on" (Linnebrink & Pintrich, 2003, p. 124), disengag*ing* interrupted the connection of hands and mind. Jamal's disengag*ing* process began in November and continued, with no sign of terminating, as the year ended. Although he continued to go through the motions expected of a library patron, he seemed to be less mindful or cognitively connected to his actions.

My initial encounter with Jamal was in early September, 2004, as he worked at the computer during the book selection segment of the library session. He was actively involved in a literacy event: searching for a book. Dressed in a Philadelphia Eagles jersey, he was seated at a computer with his friend Ned seated at an adjacent computer. As I listened to their conversation, I learned that the boys were searching the online catalog for a book about Donovan McNabb, the quarterback for the Philadelphia Eagles. Seconds after Jamal keyed in McNabb's name as "Donvan Mc Nab", both boys sighed with disappointment. There was no match in the online catalog. In his lap, Jamal held a book about football. He tossed the book to his friend, Ned, and told him to look in the book for McNabb's name. "I think we spelled it wrong," he said (September 9, 2004). Ned flipped through the book and stopped when he came to a page with the green and silver logo of the Philadelphia Eagles. Skimming the roster, Ned found Donavan McNabb's name. As Ned called out the letters one by one, Jamal keyed them into the online catalog. Two other boys, Garrett and Justin, came to the computer and stood behind Jamal as he worked. Once again, there was no match in the catalog. Although strategic in their search, the boys were unsuccessful because there was no book in the library on Donavan McNabb.

During this first encounter, I was unaware that I was observing what I would later identify as four patterns related to Jamal. The first pattern was not related to literacy, but was an important part of understanding how Jamal experienced and understood the literacy events in the library. In this first observation, I noted Jamal's Philadelphia Eagles' jersey. Throughout the year, Jamal's sports-themed attire was a visual reminder of his interests. Secondly, Jamal had social power in the classroom. In this early observation, Ned followed Jamal's commands and found the name of McNabb while Jamal keyed in the information. Jamal's friends, Garret and Justin, treated him as a leader, and his popularity was visible. The third observation related directly to the literacy event: Jamal was strategic and motivated to find a book on a topic of interest. Fourth, he was thwarted because he could not locate the material he wanted.

Disengaging from the literacy events in the library was the most salient feature of my observations of Jamal's experiences. The disengagement was primarily a steady descent but there were a few peaks. I was drawn to understanding the peaks because Jamal was a capable reader. Knowing the circumstances that kept him involved and interested could potentially provide a window into Jamal's understandings of literacy events in a quality school library program. Using an emic perspective, I observed and interviewed Jamal to discover how he used and viewed texts in the school library program. To understand Jamal's use of texts, I begin by discussing the book selection segment of the library program.

How Jamal Used Texts

Typically, book selection focused upon two areas: the genre introduced by Ms. Coleman during direct instruction and the books identified with the Reading Counts Software Program. It was during the book selection segment of the library that Jamal began to

disengage from literacy events. As mentioned in the first literacy portrait, Mrs. Sun-Ya did

not enforce the completion of the Reading Counts software book quiz program. Regardless,

the children often talked about the number of points they accrued. In October, Jamal told me

he had a football book checked out of the library but he didn't think that it would count for

the Reading Counts program. When compared with the five other children in the sample,

Jamal, a highly capable reader, completed the least amount of Reading Counts quizzes.

Table 16

Jamal's Scholastic Reading Count Program

Title / Author	Rhetorical Structure / Genre	Level	Words Read
Letters from Rifka / Hesse (1993)	Narrative / Fiction (Historical)	5.1	28, 446

As demonstrated on Table 16, Jamal took only one quiz in the Reading Counts program. He

took this quiz in early November. Jamal's interest in the book selection segment of the

library session started to wane at about the same time. Observing Jamal, I noticed that when

the librarian introduced a new book genre, like Problem Solvers, the children were expected

to check out a book in that genre. On November 3, 2004, the genre topic was "American

Stories". Jamal did not place any check marks on the bookmark Ms. Coleman gave the

students during direct instruction. None of the books included information about sports or

sports figures, which were Jamal's interests. Although in his interview, Jamal told me he

wanted to locate a book from the list, he wandered the library throughout the book selection

time reading the spines and talking with friends (Observation, November 3, 2005). At the end

of the library session, Jamal selected *Children of the Midnight Sun* (Brown, 1998), a book in

which the author combined expository and narrative rhetorical patterns with information on eight Native American Alaskan children. In each chapter, Brown focused on a different tribe and customs using photographs. Although Jamal never took a quiz on this book, the idea of Reading Counts and accruing points was on his mind when he checked out *Children of the Midnight Sun* (Brown, 1998).

Jamal:	Today, I mainly looked for a Reading Counts book so I could get ten points, but I also looked for a book that interested me, and that's when I found this one.
AV:	It does look interesting, Jamal. Why is it important to get ten points?
Jamal:	I'm not sure. I wasn't here the day they talked about it, and somebody just told me that we needed at least ten points or higher (Interview, November 3, 2004).

Jamal never took a quiz on *Children of the Midnight Sun* (Brown, 1998), and he continued to demonstrate difficulty selecting books. On several occasions in the coming months, Jamal left the library without a book. When asked, he provided several explanations, such as he had not found a book he liked or "I did find a book I liked but it was a little too long and I might not finish it and then I have to bring it back" (January 26, 2005). In March, after a lesson on recent award winning books, Jamal again left the library without a book and we talked about why:

Jamal:	I was looking for an award winning book, and I was looking for a normal book I could just read. I was looking for one or two.
AV:	What's a normal book?
Jamal:	Not like in the book theme we learned about today.

AV:	So what happened?
Jamal:	All the award winning books I wanted to read were gone.
AV:	How were you looking for the books?
Jamal:	[Points to his bookmark, which has no marks on it.]
AV:	How do you remember which ones you liked?
Jamal:	[Shrugs] Um, I didn't mark any.

Jamal was not making use of the bookmark as a tool, and he was not able to locate what he termed, "normal books" on his own. When considering the connection of "hands on" and "minds on" (Linnebrink & Pintrich, 2003, p. 124), I discovered that Jamal's disengagement demonstrated a disconnection between his actions (i.e., hands on) with his thinking (i.e., minds on). He expressed an interest in finding books, yet he was not able to select a book that fit what he indicated was his interest. He continued to follow directions and take out books, but without zeal or interest.

In his discussion of social linguistics and literacy, Gee (1996) used the term Discourse to mean "ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, and believing, and often reading and writing that are accepted as instantiations of particular roles . . . . Discourses are ways of being 'people like us'. (p. viii). When an individual's own Discourse conflicts with a particular Discourse outside the self, tension occurs. During these times of conflict, teachers (and librarians) who do not cultivate an "active apprenticeship in academic social practices" (p. 147) leave students outside of the Discourse. Students will "make do with something less when the real thing is not available" (p. 147) unless they are actively apprenticed. Gee argued that the individual uses meta-knowledge and strategies to exist within the Discourse that does not represent her or his own.

For Jamal, his "way of being" (Gee, 1996, p. viii) was not often a part of the library culture or expectation. As he interfaced with this tension, he learned to substitute books that had less value, and did not represent the kind of "real thing" he was interested in reading.

After observing and interviewing Jamal, I analyzed his artifacts to further understand Jamal's experiences and understandings of literacy events. In the section that follows, I present how viewing the artifacts enabled me to discover Jamal's understandings of his experiences during literacy events in the school library.

Jamal's Production of Artifacts

The children in Mrs. Sun-Ya's fourth grade class produced two major artifacts (i.e., a travel brochure and a biography). They also completed a number of related research worksheets, as they learned new databases and print resources. Jamal completed the two major artifacts neatly and according to the expectations Mrs. Sun-Ya provided. In both artifacts, Jamal's sense of the purpose affected the way that he read his resources and wrote his artifact. By comparing Jamal's work on both artifacts, I discovered how purpose played a role in Jamal's knowledge acquisition and level of interest in the literacy event.

The travel brochure. As introduced earlier in this chapter, Mrs. Sun-Ya linked the travel brochure artifact to the first theme in the Houghton Mifflin basal reader (Cooper & Pikulski, 2001). Mrs. Sun-Ya provided information on what she expected to be included within the brochure. Because she wanted the children to have freedom to individually organize the brochure, she did not specify a writing style or specific order.

Jamal's artifact was organized in a non-linear fashion. He titled his travel brochure, "The great spots of Thailand" and included a map of the country on the cover. He marked the capitol, Bangkok, with a star and included three other cities: Phuket, Pattaya, and Karat.

Although Phuket and Pattaya are popular tourist sites, I could not locate any information on Karat, as a city or province in Thailand. Despite the title of his brochure, Jamal did not discuss the "great spots" he noted on the cover. On a page with an illustration of a city street, Jamal wrote, "The capital of Thailand is Bankok. The population of Thailand is about 61 million. Bankok is about a million" (misspellings maintained from the original artifact). These sentences were the only mention of any of the cities he marked on the map as "great spots of Thailand".

The somewhat playful, and incoherent, organizational structure of the artifact was evident in other areas as well. For example, the illustrations that Jamal drew did not match the text. In addition, he was unable to explain orally the details related to the illustrations in his brochure. In this interview, Jamal explained the second page of his brochure to me. On this page, in addition to the description of the four regions of Thailand, Jamal drew a picture of a house on stilts. There was nothing in his text that explained why some Thai people live in a house on stilts.

Jamal:	And then here I talked about the regions of Thailand and some of the houses in Thailand. They live on stilts, stilts on the houses.
AV:	Is there a reason for that, for having stilts on the houses?
Jamal:	I'm not sure. And [quickly turning the page] that's a picture of some of the rounded mountains and that's a picture of the pointier mountains.

Jamal could not explain the house on stilts nor could he provide information about the pictures of the mountain ranges: one rounded at the top of the page, and one pointed at the

bottom of the page. Likewise, the text Jamal wrote between his illustrations of the mountains referred to the language, not the mountain ranges.

When asked about this project in the final interview of the school year, Jamal provided partial insight into the dissonance between his ability to articulate his knowledge and what he wrote in the brochure. The interview also helped me to understand the decisions Jamal made about what he wrote and the illustrations he drew.

Jamal: [Opening the brochure] We had to look up facts and all the good things about that certain place in that brochure and draw pictures. Because on a brochure you want to make people want to go to that place. So you make it seem like that's a good place.

AV: Okay, let me see if I understand, there were two purposes – finding the information, than making the information appealing?

Jamal: Um hum [nodding].

AV: Who was your audience for the brochure? Who were you trying to persuade to go to Thailand?

Jamal: Nobody.

AV: Was the travel brochure going to be read by someone?

Jamal: Nope (Interview, May 24, 2005).

In writing the brochure, Jamal had one purpose: to complete the assignment by following the guidelines. He included all of the expectations in his pamphlet. He identified that his purpose was to "make people go to that place so you make it seem like that's a good place." He included pictures that he believed were "good things about that certain place." His concern was not in understanding the information or connecting the illustrations to what

he wrote. His purpose was to present the information to fit the criteria. However, it is also reasonable to consider another possibility: Jamal did not understand the expository text he used as a source for this artifact. Consequently, his work was not coherent.

Fyte, Lewis, and Mitchell (1996) identified this type of writing as "transferring information" (p. 20). In their research, Fyfe and his colleagues noted that students who transfer information believe that their purpose is to find relevant material and then place it into their booklets. These students often "leafed through the book until they found a piece of text that was relevant as well as interesting" (p. 20). Like the students in Fyte et al.'s study, Jamal occasionally used what appeared to be verbatim excerpts. For example, on page three of Jamal's pamphlet, he stated, "In the south there are sandy beaches on the narrow isthmus." No where in his pamphlet does he attempt to make a connection to explain an isthmus to his audience. He also did not attempt to make meaning of the term isthmus, or build on his possible knowledge of sandy beaches.

However, the second artifact, the biography project, began with a different purpose. Mrs. Sun-Ya asked the students to create their artifact for the purpose of sharing what they learned with their classmates. In addition to completing the biography report, the children created puppets to use while reading the report to the class. This purpose, which involved social interaction, made a difference in the way Jamal read his resources and wrote this artifact.

Biography of a famous Pennsylvanian. Jamal began his second artifact in much the same way as he began the work on the pamphlet: he located a book to use as a resource. Jamal selected Benjamin Rush for his project. During the research time in the library, Jamal sat at an oblong table, taking notes from *Know the 56 Signers of the Declaration of*

Independence (Ross, 1963). As he read the text, he came across two words that he did not know. Because Jamal often talked out loud when he was confused, he pointed to "occupation" and "physician" and said, "I don't know what these words are." Rather than stopping, he continued to read the chapter. At the end of the library session, Jamal had the following notes

Figure 8

Jamal's Notes on Benjamin Rush
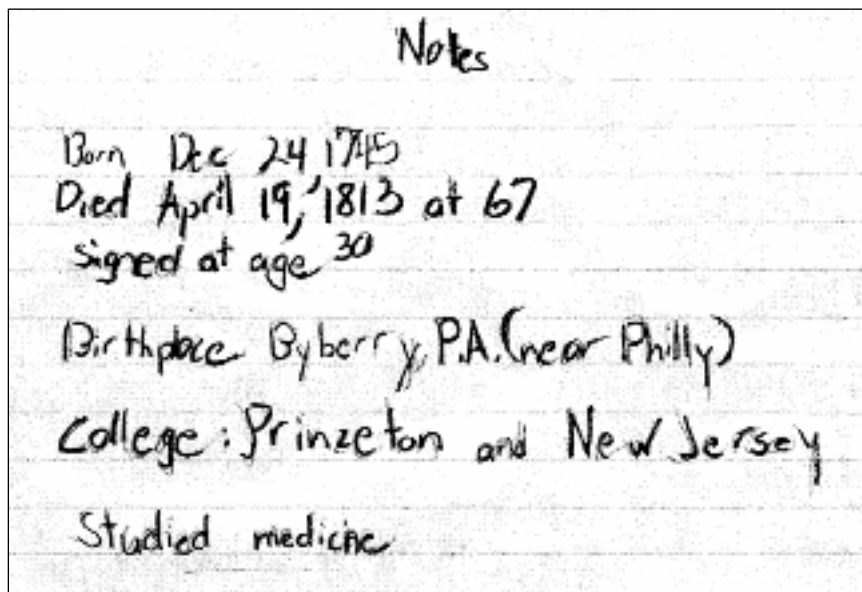
In his notes, Jamal wrote "studied medicine". While reading, he stated that he did not know what occupation and physician meant, but as he continued reading, he discovered that Rush "studied medicine" and added this phrase to his notes. After Jamal wrote his notes during the library class, I interviewed him and asked about the book he used for his notes. Jamal told me that he located both a book and an Internet site during his research.

AV: Was the website helpful?

Jamal: That was helpful – it had the latest information, and the teacher told

                me to look for the newest information because they could have found

                something different.

AV: Who's they?

Jamal: The research people. The website did tell me different details from the

                book. But I wasn't sure if it was true or not.

AV: Why is that?

Jamal: Because most times a book – you're not allowed to write anything

                different, but the Internet you can write what you want (Interview,

                February 2, 2005)

Jamal's comment demonstrated his partial understanding of the precarious nature of

Internet resources. He decided to use the book because he thought it to be the most

trustworthy resource. Jamal did not demonstrate that he had any strategies for determining

the veracity of a resource other than believing that authors of books cannot are "not allowed

to write anything different".

Using an etic perspective and comparing the writing process of the two artifacts, I

found that Jamal's purpose with the brochure was to make Thailand "seem like it's a good

place" to visit. During the research on Thailand, Jamal did not discuss his concerns about the

veracity of what he placed in the travel brochure about Thailand. Conversely, Jamal

demonstrated his thoughtfulness about accuracy when he considered what resource was more

trustworthy while researching for the biography report. While discussing the travel brochure,

Jamal was unable to explain what was included in his travel brochure and he did not think

that anyone was going to read his work. However, in his final draft of the biography, Jamal

was able to explain what he wrote. He demonstrated awareness that someone was going to

read his report and he possessed a desire to make sense to his audience.

Figure 9

Sample Section of Jamal's Final Draft of Benjamin Rush's Biography
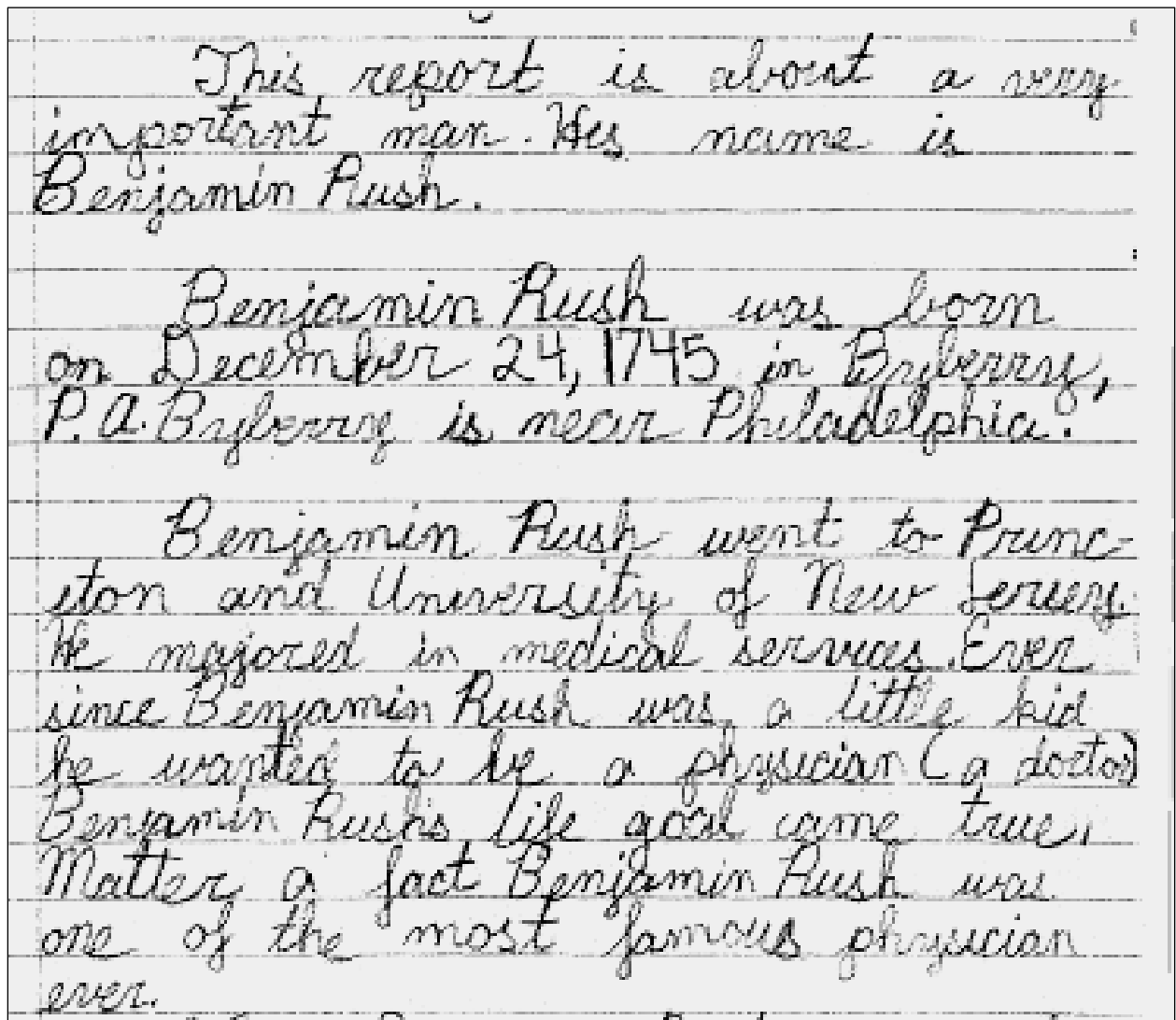
Jamal parenthetically included the definition of "physician" into his paper. "Physician" was one of the words he did not understand while he was initially reading his resource. I was interested to understand why Jamal included the word "physician" with a parenthetical explanation into his biography.

AV: When I read your biography of Benjamin Rush, I noticed you put the word "doctor" in parenthesis after physician. Why did you do that?

Jamal: Yeah, usually people just say "doctor" – kids and stuff – they don't really know what a physician is, so I just put that there so they would know the word.

AV: And by "they" who do you mean?

Jamal: My class (February 8, 2005)

By using parenthesis, Jamal was purposefully including his classmates into his dialogue about Benjamin Rush. He identified that this project was one that would be orally read in front of his classmates. His willingness to explain a new term in the biography differed from his travel brochure where he was unable to explain why people lived in houses on stilts. In addition, Jamal was explicit in his selection of Rush as the subject of his biography: "I wanted to know more about somebody that I didn't know" (Interview, December 12, 2004). It appeared that having a purpose to read about Benjamin Rush and purpose to write (i.e., an expected audience) had a positive impact on the way Jamal worked to both comprehend and write the artifact.

In May I placed all of the artifacts from the year, including the research worksheets, in front of Jamal and asked him to talk about his best work. He immediately began talking about his biography project about the famous Pennsylvanian, Benjamin Rush. When I asked

him why he thought this was his best work, Jamal's first response was, "I thought I put it into my words." The ability to make meaning in his own words was an important sign of success for Jamal. He viewed this project as the "hardest project of the year" (Interview, May 24, 2005).

There was a contrast in both Jamal's knowledge and his writing decision in the two artifacts. One difference seemed to be that Jamal had a set purpose that was socially interactive with the biography artifact. He knew that he would be expected to read his biography to his peers. The brochure had no audience so Jamal followed the directions without attempting to gain knowledge or write to demonstrate his understanding.

Using an emic perspective, I discovered that purpose and social interaction affected Jamal's experiences during literacy events. Using an etic perspective, I compared two artifacts to better understand how purpose and social interaction kept Jamal engaged in literacy events. Knowing that social interaction as a purpose affected Jamal's production of his biography artifact, I began inscribing in my notes with the intention to identify more about the role of social interaction.

The Role of Social Interaction

Throughout the year, Jamal continued to become progressively more disengaged. Beginning in November, while Ms. Coleman discussed genres, he was less likely to mark items on the bookmarks that accompanied the lessons. He was less likely to select a book that was introduced for a particular genre. In addition, he spent longer and longer time scanning the book spines. He often selected a book at the last minute and often appeared to literally grab an arbitrary book as he passed by a bookshelf. As I observed, I was most interested in the role of social interaction and the book selection process.

During one of my last observations, I observed Jamal heading to the circulations desk to check out a picture book about the body. Earlier during the book selection segment, Jamal had wandered the library, picking numerous books off the shelves, looking through them briefly, and replacing them. He was alone during the process. All but four of the children were lined up at the door ready to return to the classroom. As Mrs. Sun-Ya began walking the line of children out of the library, she turned and told Jamal and the three other children that they had less than five minutes to return to class. Seconds later, Jamal grabbed a picture book off the shelf. It was not in the genre that had been introduced by Ms. Coleman and it was not a Reading Counts book. Knowing Mrs. Sun-Ya wanted the children to return to class, I walked along side Jamal and asked him about his selection.

AV: What book are you getting today?

Jamal: I just got out this book [pointing to *Your Insides* (Cole, 1998)].

AV: Oh, why did you pick this one, Jamal?

Jamal: I don't even know why I got it. (Interview, May 17, 2005).

Although Jamal seemed to randomly select the book to comply with the expectations, he used the book to engage his classmates. Once Jamal got in line at the circulation desk, he nudged the students waiting in line and opened the book to a page with a transparent overlay. The other children gasped, "Ewwww!" while Jamal smiled, snapped the book shut, and handed it to the library aide to check out. As he walked back to his classroom, Jamal was surrounded by three children looking over his shoulders as he paged through the book. The serendipitous social interaction that occurred with his peers while he paged through the book seemed to make this book a worthwhile choice from Jamal's perspective.

During the final interview with the library model, I wanted to verify what I had observed about Jamal's waning interest, the need for social interaction, and his love of sports. Therefore, I gave Jamal the small figure of himself and asked where he spent most of his time in the library. Jamal quickly placed the miniature figure of himself into the "sports aisle" (May 5, 2005). The sports aisle that Jamal chose was the 700s of the Dewey Decimal system. But soon after he said this, Jamal reminded me that he also spent time in fiction books, particularly looking for series books because "me and Ned like series books" (Interview, May 5, 2005). Almost indignantly and without being asked, Jamal stated that he would rearrange the books if he could. He indicated that he would keep everything that had to do with each sport together. For example, Jamal said that the biographies about football players, football related series stories, chapter books on football, and information about football should be kept in one space in the library. He explained that his friends thought that this would help them find what they want. Without Jamal's friends present at the interview, I had no way to verify that all of his friends agreed. However, the statement indicated that Jamal felt he knew his friends well and could, in fact, speak for them. Additionally, by citing the other boys in the class as experts, Jamal reinforced that he valued his friends' voices.

Unknowns

As I have suggested before, all crystallizations reflect a partial and incomplete view. I knew that Jamal continued to patronize the library; he did not refuse to do his work or disrupt the class in any way. But he did stop marking his bookmark, reading books in Reading Counts, and selecting books during book selection. In addition, there were two additional artifacts that Jamal had an opportunity to produce but did not. First, Jamal did not enter the essay contest to share lunch with the visiting author, Jacqueline Woodson. Second,

all students in the gifted program were invited to prepare and deliver a book advertisement over the intercom during morning announcements. Jamal did not participate in either optional activity. When asked why, he shrugged his shoulders and said, "I just didn't think I wanted to do them." (May 5, 2005).

Although I was aware that Jamal was a capable reader and a sports enthusiast, I did not know for certain what interested or motivated him to read and write. I was even less aware of his family's influence on his literacy habits because Jamal rarely mentioned his family. To more fully understand Jamal's disengaging attitude toward the school library program, I would benefit from knowing more about his attitude toward school in other areas as well. Since my study was focused upon the school library program, I did not have this additional information.

Conclusions on Jamal's Literacy Portrait

Jamal was a bright, popular student, who was not fully engaged in the school library program. I used the term patron to describe him because he followed through on the expectations of the teacher and librarian. Jamal was most connected to his work when he had a purpose that included social interaction. However, I defined Jamal further with the participle, "disengag*ing*" because he slowly disconnected from some of the school library program as the year progressed. He became less interested in participating in book selection that involved the genres presented from the basal reader. He chose not to complete the Reading Counts quizzes. As final evidence that Jamal was slowly becoming lost during literacy events in the library, I recalled the final interview with the library model, Jamal placed the figure of himself in between two shelves. When I asked, "What are you doing?" He responded with great honesty: "I don't know" (Interview, May 5, 2005).

I suggest three possible explanations for Jamal's disengagement. First, as Gee (1996) indicated, teachers must apprentice children. Jamal may not have been receiving scaffolding during his time in the library. This may have been due to the fact that he was not a discipline problem, and he continued to do what he was expected to do. Therefore his relatively quiet, disengaging actions went unnoticed by his teacher and librarian. Secondly, as described in chapter 4, the basal reading program did not introduce writing expository artifacts until the end of the year. At the time Jamal was expected to write and read expository formats, he had not been introduced to this rhetorical writing pattern in the basal program. Since the basal program drove the library program, the lack of exposure and instruction on comprehending and producing exposition could be another explanation of Jamal's struggles. He had no models and no practice with exposition to guide his reading or his writing. Third, Jamal's reading habits and literacy events outside of the school library may also have affected his understandings and experiences within the library program. Jamal appeared to be disconnecting from other kinds of literacy events. For example, he decided to not participate in book talks that connected the library program, gifted program, and the school community. However, much of Jamal's other literacy events remain unknown, making the crystallization of Jamal as a "disengag*ing* patron" a partial view of his literacy personality.

Literacy Portrait 3: Ian

With his scrubbed face, carefully groomed hair, and pressed shirt tucked neatly into his belted pants, Ian looked like he walked out of a 1950s classroom. Because his attire was atypical, Ian intrigued me. Viewing his data, I grew more interested.

Although in the gifted program, Ian scored in the 73rd percentile on the Terra Nova Reading Test in spring, 2004 but moved to the 81st percentile in the fall Terra Nova Reading

Test. His teacher ranked him eighth in the class for reading ability, yet in conversation

mentioned that "Ian's reading ability is very low" (Interview, September 23, 2004). When I

plotted the student on the mixed matrix of teacher's ranking and the Terra Nova results, Ian

was the top student in the Mid/Mid section of the matrix. (See Table 3.) On the TRT

(Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990), Ian selected only 4 of the 24 authentic titles from the list:

A Light in the Attic (Silverstein, 1981), *Hatchet* (1986); *The Polar Express* (VanAllsburg,

1985); and *James and the Giant Peach* (Dahl, 1961). However he did not select any of the 15

foils and received a 15/15 on that part of the scoring. Ian's final score on the TRT was 19/39

or 49% where the mean for the class was 22/39 or 56%.

Selecting Ian for the study added another dimension to the sample set of participants.

First, the data I viewed on Ian was incongruent with his gifted status. Secondly, due to a

speech articulation difficulty, Ian attended bi-weekly sessions with the speech pathologist.

Third, Ian had a special interest in reading and learning about natural history. My

interpretation of Ian was based upon iterative observations, interviews, artifacts, and analysis.

In the following section, I present my illustrative term for Ian.

The Natural History Aficionado

My first encounter with Ian was prophetic; he was seated alone on the floor in front of

the magazine racks reading the most recent copy of *National Geographic Kids Magazine.* It

was the first official library class of the year, but Ian told me he had already checked out two

books that he called "non-fiction" from the library during recess earlier in the week. At this

first class session, Ian checked out a book on dinosaurs that he located by identifying the

dinosaur stuffed animal near the shelf. Although he was satisfied with the book he selected

on dinosaurs, Ian indicated that his preference would be to take out the latest *National*

Geographic Kids Magazine. However he had to wait a month when the next edition arrived because the most recent edition of any magazine was not eligible to be checked out of the library. When asked, Ian noted that *National Geographic Kids Magazine* "has some cool stuff in it . . . I like that it tells you interesting facts about some stuff" (Interview, September 9, 2004).

As I analyzed the data through re-reading, I became more aware of Ian's interest in natural history. In creating a descriptive term for Ian, I located the etymology of the word "aficionado" from the Spanish's word "aficionar"*,* which means to inspire affection (Merriam-Webster, 2006). Therefore, an aficionado is an individual who appreciates a particular hobby or interest. Ian demonstrated an overt attraction to natural history topics. Ian's passion for natural history became more obvious as the year progressed. His interest made him a devotee of all National Geographic publications and other science trade books. At the first observation, Ian stated that he intended to become a marine biologist. Throughout the year, he repeated this goal on several other occasions.

How Ian Used Text

Ian's highly developed interest in science played a role in his library literacy events, primarily in the materials he selected to read. Almost exactly one month from the date that he was told that he could not take out the most recent *National Geographic Kids Magazine*, Ian returned to the library at recess time and checked out the September issue. Two weeks later, on October 18th, 2004, he returned the September issue. I observed Ian during book selection time and saw that he returned again to the slot for the *National Geographic Kids Magazine*. He proceeded to take the front facing copy to the circulation desk to check out the October issue. Mrs. Craybill, the library aide, asked Ian where he found the magazine. When she

learned that this edition was the front facing (i.e., most recent) edition, she informed Ian that he could not check it out. He returned to the slot, lifted the shelf and discovered that no other back issues were available. Once again, he was unable to check out the *National Geographic Kids Magazine*. The cost for the magazine was less than a hard back book ($18 annually), but only one copy of every magazine was available for the children's use. Ian was frustrated by this situation and in my final interview with him, he remarked, "There should be more than one copies of all magazines. That's why I think that we should have a cloning machine in the library" (May 24, 2005).

Although primarily interested in reading about science, Ian expressed an appreciation for book selections that related to the genres Ms. Coleman introduced during direct instruction. Most often Ms. Coleman and Mrs. Sun-Ya requested that the children check out and read at least one book that fit the newly introduced book genre (e.g., American Stories). In the final interview, Ian noted that "sometimes I like checking out the books you have to" (May 24, 2005). Whenever possible, Ian attempted to locate a book that fit the genre but also in some way related to natural history. He was not always successful. For example, Ian expressed his dismay when another student took a book that both related to the genre and matched his interest. He said, "I really wanted the book about Pompeii. When I was in first or second grade, my teacher told me about it. I know what is on the inside of volcanoes" (May 3, 2005).

However, Ian expressed the most interest when the book genre Ms. Coleman introduced also related to his interests and particularly the National Geographic publications. For example, on one occasion, Ms. Coleman discussed the genre of problem solver books, the new basal reading theme for Mrs. Sun-Ya's class. Along with typical mysteries like Cam

Jansen and Encyclopedia Brown, Ms. Coleman introduced a book called *Ghost Horse* (Skurznski, 2002) This book was the sixth in a series of books entitled, Mysteries in Our National Parks and published by National Geographic. When Ms. Coleman introduced this book, Ian's eyes followed where she placed the book on the bookshelf. Once the direct instruction ended, Ian found the book almost immediately and carried it to the circulation desk while reading the front cover. When I approached him, he quickly showed the book he held in his hands. Then he pointed to the National Geographic symbol on the book. He saw the symbol as Ms. Coleman introduced the book, and he knew "right away" that he wanted it (Interview, February 2, 2005).

Ian was articulate about his interest in natural history. On the day he found the National Geographic book, he was explicit in stating that he "liked National Geographic" and he was "happy" that this book was in the genre the class was reading in their reading basal (Interview, February 2, 2005). At the next library book selection time, he checked out another book published by National Geographic for Kids entitled, *When Bugs Were Big, Plants Were Strange, and Tetrapods Stalked the Earth* (Bonner, 2004).

Ian's actions reflect Hidi's (2001) notion that "well developed individual interest in an area may help individuals cope with relevant but boring texts" (p. 194). Although Ian did not indicate that the mystery stories were boring, he selected them because of his long standing interest in natural history, in particular National Geographic materials. Even when selecting a book in an uncharacteristic genre for him, Ian followed through on selecting something that related in some way to what he cherished. Ms. Coleman introduced the genre of poetry to the fourth graders during April, National Poetry Month. Once again, Ian managed to include his interest in animals.

AV: If Ms. Coleman hadn't introduced poetry to the class, do you think you

              would have checked out a poetry book today?

Ian: Well, if I saw this one, I would . . . I like cats. I've never checked out a

              poetry book before, I don't know what they're like.

AV: What did you think about the lesson on poetry?

Ian   It was okay. The only thing I would rather do is, I think I would rather

              pick a favorite animal and do a project on it . . . I like dolphins"

              (Interview, March 21, 2005).

With Ian's robust interest in natural history and a propensity to select information type books of a variety of structures, I was curious to discover how he produced artifacts, particularly those that related to his interest.

Ian's Production of Artifacts

Ian attributed his knowledge to reading books and the Internet resources. For Ian knowledge mattered because it is "anything you know. It's everything you know." (May 24, 2005). He viewed himself as knowledgeable about a number of natural history topics. In addition he viewed himself as knowledgeable about some individuals. For example, after he completed his biography report on the inventor, Robert Fulton, Ian demonstrated his self-efficacy when he stated emphatically, "I know a lot about Robert Fulton" (Interview, February 15, 2005).

Ian preferred authentic projects that related to something that was meaningful to him and of interest to him. He liked writing the biography report better than any other project he did in fourth grade because he said, "I like history a lot." (Interview, February 15, 2005). Later in the year as he reflected back on the biography project, he said, "I picked someone

(i.e., Robert Futon) who was like a scientist and inventor. I like that stuff. I want to be a marine biologist when I grow up, and that's a kind of scientist" (May 24, 2005).

But without the scaffolding he received, Ian may not have been able to state resolutely that he knew a lot about Robert Fulton. On December 9, 2004, at the start of the project, Ian wandered up and down the aisle which housed the 900s (Geography/History) area of the non-fiction books. He was in the 900s because Ms. Coleman had indicated during direct instruction that there were compilations of individual biographies in the 900s, as well as in the biographical section. As Ian searched for the Fs in the 900s, he looked puzzled. Within a view moments, Ms. Coleman joined him in the aisle and suggested that he might have more success in the biography section of the school library. Together they ventured to the next aisle. Ms. Coleman reminded him that biographies are arranged in alphabetical order in the biography (92s) area by the subject's name, not the author's name. She congratulated him on looking for Fs earlier but indicated that he had been in the wrong locations to find a biography. Within two minutes of working with Ms. Coleman, Ian had a book on Robert Fulton in his hand. When asked what helped him the most during the writing of Fulton's biography, Ian identified Ms. Coleman as giving him the most important assistance, "She gave me good advice on what to do to find a resource" (February 15, 2005).

Ian was familiar with expository formats in books and magazine. But as he sat at the library table with the book he found with Ms. Coleman, Ian paid no attention to those conventions. He began reading the book from the first page. As he read silently, he wrote notes in his own words. I talked with him during the note taking process.

AV:	What are you up to, Ian?
Ian:	Taking notes and reading.
AV:	What are you taking notes on?
Ian:	Important things like when he was born, what's he famous for, who is he married to, when he died.

As Ian read the title of the first chapter, "Steamboat Builder," he wrote in his own words, "made steamboats". Then, continued to read. This statement did reflect something that fit into Ian's description of what is important. However, five minutes later, Ian erased "made steamboats" and added the following notes to his paper. (See Figure 10.)

Figure 10

Ian's Notes on Robert Fulton
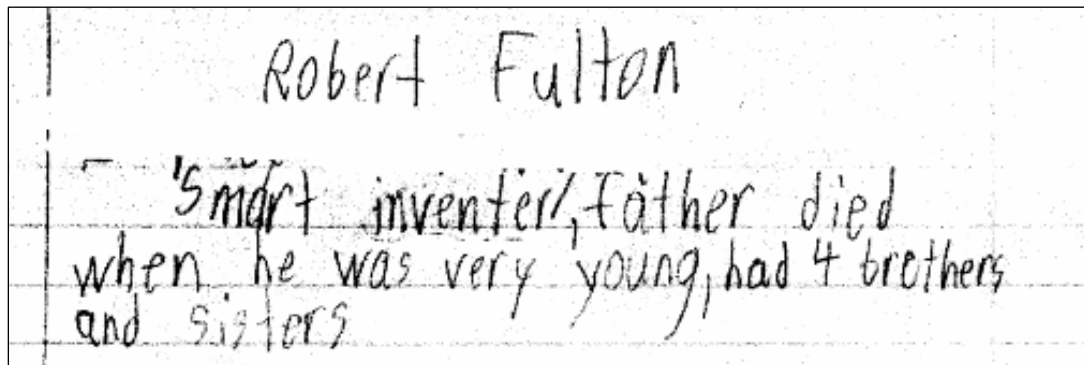
In his own words, Ian had determined that Fulton was a "smart inventor" and then he added details about Fulton's childhood. The information about Fulton's childhood did not match the list Ian orally described as "important" items (i.e., "when he was born, what's he famous for, who is he married to, when he died"). Regardless, he placed these other biographical facts found on page one of his resource into his notes.

Observing his work, I wondered if Ian would read the entire book front to back or actively seek to locate the items he had already determined were "important" to add to his biography. Ian had a sense of what he wanted to find. He had named the items. I assumed that he had the ability to use text conventions, such as an index because he read often from informational materials in books that were written in an expository format. However, Ian did not look for the index or other text convention that might have helped him to locate the information he said he needed for his biography. Instead, he continued taking notes directly from page one. As he took notes, I asked him about the process to understand what he was experiencing during this literacy event:

> AV: You mentioned some important things you want to know about Robert Fulton. Is there anything in the book that will help you as a reader to find the information you said you wanted to locate?
>
> Ian: The continents would help.

Ian said, "Continents" but he pointed to the table of contents. He then turned the book to the back, and looked up with a surprised expression. He stated, "This book doesn't have an index. This isn't a very good book. I think I'll use the computer now." In the final biography project, Ian included very little from the notes in Figure 10. He did not mention that Fulton's father died when Fulton was a youngster, nor did he include any mention of Fulton's siblings. When asked, Ian noted that there was other more important information about Fulton that he wanted to place in the biography. He decided the facts he initially collected were not important (Interview, May 24, 2005).

Ian made a choice about the power of text; he deciphered what resource would be most applicable for a particular project. He demonstrated that he was critically aware of how

to use resources but only when prompted by my question. My question to him during the interview (i.e., "Is there anything in the book that will help you as a reader to find the information you said you wanted to locate?") was not a strong scaffold, but it did remind Ian of text conventions that he knew how to use. When asked why a book without an index would not be a "very good book" as he described it, Ian noted that he would have to read the entire book to find out the few pieces of information he would need for the biography project. The Internet would provide the facts that he needed without having to read through an entire book about Fulton's life (Interview, May 24, 2005).

Although Ian had many experiences where he elected to read books about natural history in informational books, he needed scaffolding, particularly for applying his knowledge. For example, he could not find the correct location of the book about Robert Fulton that he needed. Additionally, he did not look for an index or skim the table of contents until I asked him a pertinent question about book features. Despite his experiences and interest, Ian benefited from scaffolding and overt discussion about text conventions during literacy events. Although some students received this type of intervention from their peers, Ian rarely spent time with other children.

In observing Caitlin and Jamal, I had discovered that learning was not isolated to texts and writing in the school library program. It was also a social construct. Although Ian was active and interested in locating and experiencing books and magazines about natural history, he did not seek time with other students. In the next section, I discuss how social interaction occurred during Ian's literacy events.

The Role of Social Interaction

Through observations, I discovered that Ian spent most of his book selection time in the library alone and worked with another student only when assigned. To validate my observations, I used the library model at the end of the year. I asked Ian to place the small figure that represented him along with any friends' figures in a spot in the library that they would normally enjoy. Ian placed his figure in the magazine area and did not reach for any other figures of other students. When asked how often he spent time with friends in the library, Ian stated, "I don't remember about my friends" (May 24, 2005). The model interview affirmed that Ian had little social interaction with other students during literacy events.

When Ian did spend time with another student in the library during literacy events, he was typically assigned a partner for computer searching. Working with a peer provided scaffolding for Ian, particularly with procedural knowledge about searching. When working with a peer, Ian often focused only on his own research needs. One example that illustrates this pattern occurred early in the year as the students researched for their travel brochure. Ian and Sofia were assigned to be partners working at a computer together. They both were interested in researching about Mexico. Ian controlled the mouse. As Ian began to double click the mouse a second time, Sofia reminded him to double click once or she cautioned "lots of windows will open up and the whole thing will freeze" (Observation, October 18, 2004). When Mexico came up on the screen, Sofia again aided Ian by suggesting that he scroll down to the topic categories. As they scrolled through the list, Sofia commented on each one:

Sofia: Climate I have climate, do you have it?

Ian: Yes.

Sofia: Okay, do you have the flag? I need it.

Ian: Um hum, I got the flag [scrolling beyond the flag information]

Sofia: [Grimacing at Ian] I'm looking for facts. I need the flag.

As Ian scrolled determinedly beyond the flag information, he doubled clicked on the language of Mexico. At the same time, Sofia doubled clicked the mouse in an attempt to stop at the flag information. Sofia's earlier prediction came true: the screen froze because they double clicked more than once. Ian immediately raised his hand to ask Ms. Coleman for help. After Ms. Coleman rebooted the computer, Ian took control of the mouse and returned to the location about language. He proceeded to print out the page on language. As Ian walked to the printer, Sofia remained at the computer and returned to the section on the flag.

For the most part, Ian was a loner in the school library. There was no other child in the class that had the same level of interest in natural history as Ian. When he did work with other children, he often was singularly focused on his own research need. Although he was not avoided in the classroom, he was often alone.

Unknowns

Ian's love of natural history was an area that provided much information about his literacy events in the library, his use of text, and the kinds of artifacts he produced. However, there were areas that were unexplored. One area that remained a virtual unknown was how Ian's gifted status affected his social interaction and literacy events.

As a part of the gifted program at Lewis Elementary, the children were invited to read a book that they selected, and write a book review. Working with the gifted teacher, the

children produced a bulletin board with the reviews to entice other students to read the books. In addition, the children read their book reviews on the intercom.

During one of our lunch interviews, Ms. Coleman shared about Ian's upcoming intercom book review. Ian had selected to review *When Bugs Were Big, Plants Were Strange, and Tetra pods Stalked the Earth* (Bonner, 2004). His review was four sentences in length. Ms. Coleman shared that Ian spent several weeks working with the speech pathologist practicing reading his book review aloud. Ian shared that he was worried about how he would sound when speaking to his peers on the intercom.

Ian was not alone in his concern about his articulation. During one of my final lunch meetings with Mrs. Sun-Ya, Ian's mother came to the classroom to bring in his musical instrument for an end of the year recital. Upon meeting me, Ian's mother immediately asked if Ian's speech was understandable. I assured her that I could understand her son. I indicated that occasionally I did have difficulty making out a word or two on the tape recorder during transcription, but I assured her that I had difficult with the other participants as well. Receiving this answer, Ian's mother quickly apologized for her anxiety and explained that Ian was her only child.

When considering the level of anxiety his mother demonstrated and Ian's reading and re-reading the four sentence review, I considered the level of Ian's discomfort when speaking with his peers. It is possible that his speech difficulty kept him from fully integrating in the class socially. This is an area that I did not pursue in my research, yet it would enlighten my ability to know how Ian understands his experiences during literacy events.

Conclusions on Ian's Literacy Portrait

Ian, a gifted student in reading, had a strong interest in natural history. His interest directed his book selections and how he spent his time in the school library. Having a robust interest in reading informational books, did not assure that Ian could negotiate text for the purpose of communicating what he learned. He required scaffolding to complete his work.

When Ian received intervention, such as Ms. Coleman helping him locate a book, or my question that prompted his thinking, he was able to make meaning of text, take notes, and write a coherent artifact. For example, his biography on Robert Fulton was structured in a time line fashion from cradle to grave. In his final draft, he included the original items he told me were important (i.e., "when he was born, what's he famous for, who is he married to, when he died") and much more. He listed five resources in his bibliography: the biography he was reading in the library, three websites, and the CD-Rom World Book. Both Ian and his teacher were pleased with the artifact.

Because he did not elect to work with peers, his social interaction during literacy events resulted in parallel experiences rather than cooperative learning. The reason for Ian's lack of social interaction was an unknown in this study. It was possible that his speech difficulty made him self-conscious about working with others. However, without additional data, it was impossible to discover more about this part of Ian's literacy events in the school library program.

Literacy Portrait 4: Demont

One student in Mrs. Sun-Ya's fourth-grade class was a small, underweight African American boy named Demont. During the selection of participants process, Mrs. Sun-Ya stated, "You'll like Demont; he's an average student and very nice." (September 23, 2004).

On the mixed matrix (See Table 3), his scores were in the Mid/Mid range. He scored in the 64th percentile on the Terra Nova in the spring but dropped to the 60th percentile in the fall of fourth-grade. He scored a 46% on the TRT (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990), which placed him below the mean score of 56%. Demont correctly identified five authentic titles: *A Light in the Attic* (Silverstein, 1981); *In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson* (Lord, 1986); *James and the Giant Peach* (Dahl, 1961)*; *The Indian in the Cupboard* (Banks, 1982); and *The Polar Express* (Van Allsburg, 1985). He selected only 2 out of the 15 foils as actual titles. I selected Demont to be a representative sample of the Mid/Mid readers in the classroom along with Ian. Both boys had similar TRT scores but varied in their Terra Nova results. Unlike Ian, Demont was also not in any special programs. Throughout the year, I observed Demont and found his experiences demonstrated a surface understanding of literacy events in the school library program. At times, he followed through on the actions expected but during interviews, he was unable to express his understanding of his own actions.

The Inattentive Follower

The first pattern I discerned about Demont during literacy events was his lack of awareness about his own understanding of the experiences. For example, in searching for a book for his upcoming project of travel brochures based upon a reading theme, Demont located a book on Canada in the 918s section of the school library. When asked why he had located a book on Canada, Demont responded, "Uh, I just wanted to find a book." To be certain he understood my question, I followed up with another question: "Did you select a book on Canada for a reason?" Again Demont demonstrated no awareness of the reason for locating the book on Canada and simply replied, "No." By inscribing this pattern into my

field notes, I sought disconfirming observations. Instead of disconfirming observations, I discovered more patterns of tacit awareness.

When determining a descriptor for Demont, I used an emic perspective and borrowed the term "inattentive" from Demont's description of himself. At the end of the year, Demont told me that he did not pay attention during class projects. There are many examples that indicate a lack of attentiveness or focus. In the next section, I present two examples that provide insight into Demont's experiences and understandings of the literacy events in the school library program.

How Demont Used Texts

On November 11th, 2004, Ms. Coleman presented a direct instruction lesson on locating books that fit into the upcoming genre in the basal series, American Stories. Ms. Coleman distributed bookmarks to the students with the titles and call numbers of each book she introduced. During the lesson, Ms. Coleman presented a Civil War book in diary format that was part of the Dear America series. As she often did when she described new books, Ms. Coleman placed the book open-faced on top of library shelves around the long tables. In doing so, she enabled the students to locate and select easily the books from the top of the shelves. The children did not have to use the online catalog or search for the book inside the book shelves. At the end of the lesson, Demont immediately headed to the computer. Clutching his bookmark, which had pencil-drawn stars next to several books, he keyed into the online catalog and typed the title of the Civil War book, *My America: My Brother's Keeper: Virginia's Civil War Diary* (Osborne, 2002). Once he located the book in the online catalog, he carefully copied the call number onto his bookmark. Demont did not demonstrate awareness that the call number was already written on the bookmark right next to the title of

the book. When he finished the search process on the computer, I asked him if he knew how to locate the book. Although the book he wanted was open-faced on top of the shelf where Ms. Coleman had placed it for easy access just five minutes ago, Demont was unaware. He answered my question with one word: "No." (Interview, November 11, 2004). In an act of serendipity, Demont skimmed the spines of the books under the shelf holding his book. When he looked up, he saw the cover, and grabbed the book with two hands, then walked to the circulation desk to check out. Foster and Ford (2003) likened serendipity to browsing. Similar to Demont's experience, Foster and Ford found that serendipity was often related, not to the finding of information, but to the "existence and/or location" of the item (p. 332). Serendipity, and not deliberate searching, was further verified when Demont told his friend Alex, "It was just there. I looked up and there it was." (Observation, November 11, 2004).

From the above observations, I discovered that Demont was able to use the library tools and explain many of the library materials. In the previous example, he located the call number in the computer. Earlier in the year, he shared his understanding of the signs in the library. He indicated that the charts on row faces "have numbers and the slash goes between and you have to find the number on the chart that matches the one you copied from the computer" (Interview, September 29, 2004). Having knowledge about how the library operates, however, did not help Demont with comprehending the text he located.

In researching George Westinghouse for his biography project, Demont located the *World Book Encyclopedia* (World Book, 2000) on the reference shelf. In the three paragraph entry in the text, Demont found a limited amount of information written in an expository rhetorical pattern. Demont read the three paragraphs on George Westinghouse and took notes. The text was dense with concepts. For example, the second paragraph in the *World*
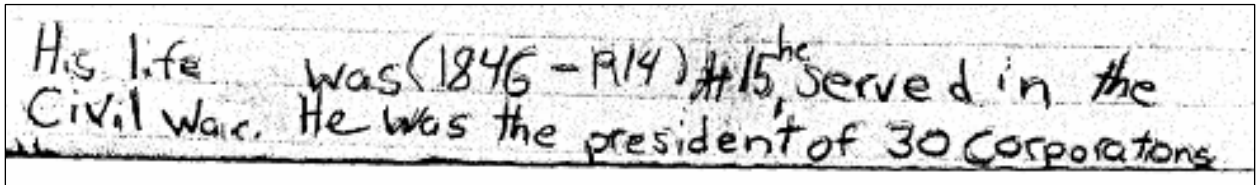
Book Encyclopedia included numerous life events about Westinghouse in four brief sentences:

>Westinghouse was born in Central Bridge, New York. As a boy, he worked in his father's machine shop. At 15, he invented a rotary engine. Westinghouse served in the Union Army and Navy during the American Civil War (p. 242).

Demont's notes, however, did not reflect the same information. After reading the paragraph, Demont wrote, "He served in the war." He returned to *The World Book Encyclopedia* (World Book, 2000) and read silently. When he stopped reading, Demont added the words, "At 15" to the beginning of his second sentence and changes "the war" to "the Civil War."

Figure 11

Demont's Notes on George Westinghouse

Unlike Demont's notes, the text stated that Westinghouse invented a rotary engine at 15, not that he joined the Civil War at 15. Despite locating a reliable source and working diligently, Demont did not have accurate information. By using the *World Book Encyclopedia* (World Book, 2000), and not a more considerate trade book, Demont was trying to comprehend text from a concise and dense writing format. Demont had difficulty parsing what was important when so much information was presented in a brief grouping of sentences.

As I observed his actions while reading and using text, I was interested to discover how Demont completed his artifacts. In the next section, I describe one artifact that is

representative of the kind of artifact Demont completed as a result of literacy events in the school library.

Demont's Production of Artifacts

When I asked Demont about his artifacts, he was reluctant to discuss them with me. However, he mentioned additional artifacts that I had not observed, such as a chocolate project and a Black history project. When I spoke with Mrs. Sun-Ya for verification, she indicated that she had no recollection of these projects. But she reminded me that Demont referred often to third grade, and perhaps he was confusing other projects from the year before.

However, one artifact from fourth-grade did elicit conversation from Demont. At the end of the year interview, Demont and I reviewed his travel brochure on Canada. On the front was an incomplete drawing of the map of Canada. Inside there was a photocopied map of Canada and across from the map, Demont wrote the word, "Canada" and under it, he wrote, "Whitehorse". There were no other words or explanation included on the page. When I asked Demont about this page, he indicated that Whitehorse was the capital of Canada. He then opened the travel brochure to share a map he had pasted on the inside.

When I asked how he decided Whitehorse was the capital of Canada, he pointed to the circles next to Whitehorse and Yellowknife, that he considered symbols for the capital.

AV: What do you have here?

Demont: The map of Canada. I don't know if Whitehorse is the capital of
           Canada or Yellowknife or the ones with circles or stars.

AV: How can you find the correct answer?

Demont: It is on the key thing that I didn't copy.

AV: Why didn't you copy the key?

Demont: I just didn't think about it.

Unfortunately, the key was vital to the accuracy of his work. He understood that the key mattered, but he didn't include it in the map. Demont had knowledge of some of the operations of a map (i.e., keys refer to circles indicating something important). Had he copied the key, which he understood as valuable, he may have discovered that neither Yellowknife nor Whitehorse were the capital of Canada. Regardless, by writing the word "Whitehorse" under "Canada" on his brochure, he did not specify that he had found the capital. This vague presentation may represent his uncertainty. Had he believed that Whitehorse was the capital, he may have been more specific with his text writing on the brochure. Perhaps, had he been aware of the purpose of captions or learned how to write captions, he would have realized that his two words, "Whitehorse" under "Canada" would not suffice in expository writing.

At the end of the year interview, when asked about the artifacts he had completed in fourth grade as a part of the school library program, Demont indicated that he had not done his "best work" on any of the projects.

AV: So, you didn't think you did your best work on the projects. What was the problem?

Demont: [long pause] I think I didn't just pay much attention.

AV: You're so honest; I appreciate that.

As we completed our interview, Demont realized that students from other classes were walking past the table where we sat outside of his classroom. As they approached, he leaned his elbow over the work so that no one could see the brochure.

Demont's lack of awareness or what he termed not paying "attention" or "not thinking about it" affected his ability to successfully complete tasks. However, his awareness and attentiveness peaked when the topic involved his new friend Alex and the powerful topic of war. As his friendship with Alex developed around the topic of war, Demont did develop awareness but only as a follower to the interests and movements of Alex.

The Role of Social Interaction

Demont and his friend Alex, new to Lewis Elementary this year, became close friends early in the year. The two boys spent book selection time together in the library. They were inseparable whenever they had a choice of partners. Their love of war books was evident in the ensuing months. In January, a fire drill occurred during book selection time. Both Alex and Demont stood next to me outside while we waited to return to the building. Demont turned to me and asked if I would consider interviewing Alex while I interviewed him. I told him that I thought we could do that one day.

As they returned to the library, Demont and Alex walked quickly and purposefully, passing other children. When they arrived in the door of the library, they made a dash to a particular shelf in the library. The boys scanned the shelves, and quickly located *The Journal of Scott Pendelton Collins: A World War II Soldier, Normandy France 1944* (Myers, 1999). Grinning, Demont located one copy. Then he skimmed the spines, and located a second copy which he confidently placed into Alex's outstretched hands. Because Demont requested that I interview Alex with him, I proceeded to talk with both boys.

AV:	Why were you two running over here just now?
Demont:	There are only two copies of the book, and we both wanted it.
AV:	Why are you interested in this book?
Alex:	We play war video games, and I've played one about World War II and we chose something we're both interested in.
Demont:	And our teacher is reading a book about World War II in class too. (Interview, January 26, 2005).

As opposed to other literacy events in the school library, Demont was able to articulate exactly why and what he was doing during this incident. He recognized the purpose and was able to locate the book quickly. In future observations, I inscribed a notation to discover if Demont's relationship with Alex played a role in focusing his experiences and understanding of those experiences during literacy events.

On the last day of library class, Demont was excited to show me the book he was checking out of the library. It was the Qu'ran.

AV:	What did you select to read?
Demont:	The Hol . . . Qu'ran.
AV:	What interested you about this book?
Demont:	Well, Alex had it, and when I opened it up I saw like this writing and stuff.
AV:	And what did you think?
Demont:	I thought it might be ancient stuff.
AV:	Oh, ancient stuff! What does that mean?

Demont: Well, actually, I think it's from long before what we think is ancient

stuff, but I think it means the same as this stuff right here. [Points to

the English writing adjacent to the Arabic]

AV: Did you say Alex checked it out once before?

Demont: Yeah, that's how I saw it and wanted it (May 17, 2005).

Demont admitted that he could be inattentive, but I discovered that he was also a follower. He was interested in the topics Alex and he discussed. Both boys were pleased that their favorite topic was also showing up in the classroom as a read aloud. It is possible that Demont was also impacted by his family. On one occasion, he noted, "A lot of my dad's uncles are in the war." (Interview April 12, 2005).

Unknowns

At the end of the year, I asked Mrs. Sun-Ya to provide concluding remarks on each of the six children in the study. She articulated three concerns about Demont's reading and writing during the school library program: an inability to record information in his own words, a lack of planning to complete his work on time, and difficulty assessing his own work. She also identified Demont's strong friendship with Alex as a positive relationship. Alex was a student who liked to read, and Mrs. Sun-Ya noted that he encouraged Demont to read. However, when asked to rank the six students by reading ability at the end of the year, Mrs. Sun-Ya moved Demont from fourth to sixth in the list of students in the sample. Mrs. Sun-Ya believed that both Elizabeth and Kamia were now better readers than Demont.

There could be numerous reasons why Demont's artifacts from the school library literacy events were incomplete and inaccurate. Because my study took place during literacy events

within the school library program, I had a limited and partial view of his literacy habits and abilities. I knew that Mrs. Sun-Ya had concerns as early as mid-year when she told me that "Demont struggles academically." (Interview, February 3, 2005). This was a contrast to her comment in early fall when she noted he was an "average student" (September 23, 2004). On more than one occasion throughout the school year, Demont's mother e-mailed Mrs. Sun-Ya during the school day and requested that she remind Demont to bring home his work or materials for a project. Demont mentioned that his mother helped him on several projects, particularly by researching the Internet for information.

To better discover how Demont understood the literacy events within the school library program, I would benefit from observing his literacy habits throughout the school day, particularly in other content areas. For example, I am unaware if he actually read the books he took out of the library as a result of his experiences with Alex. With the observations and interviews I analyzed, I have an incomplete view of Demont as a reader and writer.

Conclusions on Demont's Literacy Portrait

Early in the school year, Demont was very quiet and often answered my questions with one or two word answers. He was uncomfortable talking with me if other students were around him. At times, he seemed distressed when he thought other students were looking at his artifact as we talked in the hallway. He was very aware of the behaviors of his classmates. For example, in the final interview with the library model, Demont noted that his teacher needed to be in the library to help control the children's behavior. Using the small figure of his teacher, he placed Mrs.Sun-Ya into the library model and noted, "Say Trey was acting up, and she'd tell Trey to stop." No other child in the sample group discussed the need for

disciplining any one. Because I did not see any occasions when any children in the class were exhibiting behavior problems, I found his remark surprising.

Demont was the only student who Mrs. Sun-Ya noted was not doing as well as he had been earlier in the year. At the year's end, she identified him as the lowest reader in the sample set of participants and moved him from fourth to sixth position. She noted that his artifacts were incomplete or appeared to be copied directly from the Internet. Demont recognized that his work was not well done and took responsibility by stating that he "didn't just pay much attention" (May 24, 2005). However, I lacked additional observations within the classroom to agree with his diagnosis of the literacy problems.

Having a strong friendship with another child did enhance Demont's interest, at least in the area of selecting books. There was no assurance that Demont read the books he checked out of the library. However, his relationship with Alex, his friend, did spark an interest and attentiveness for checking out books on the topic of war.

Lastly, along with his peers, Demont did not have exposure to learning how to read and write exposition within the school library program. Yet there was an expectation that all artifacts would be written in an expository format. In addition, a large amount of the resources for the artifacts were expository texts. Perhaps Mrs. Sun-Ya introduced expository writing within the classroom, but I had limited knowledge of her classroom practices. Without a more complete view, I have a partial understanding of Demont's understandings of his experiences in the school library program.

Literacy Portrait 5: Elizabeth

Elizabeth, a bright-eyed nine-year old girl, began fourth grade with a challenge. After Elizabeth's successful third grade experience, her parents approved and supported the decision to remove Elizabeth from the Learning Support classroom. At the end of third grade, Elizabeth scored in the 51st percentile on the Terra Nova Test in spring of 2004. In fall of the same year, she advanced to the 62nd percentile on the Terra Nova Test as a fourth grader. In September, when Mrs. Sun-Ya ranked the children by her perception of their reading ability, she placed Elizabeth 16th out of the 24 students in the classroom. Both Mrs. Sun-Ya and the special education teacher monitored Elizabeth's progress and provided monthly feedback to Elizabeth's parents throughout the school year.

Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman expressed strong support to include Elizabeth in the set of participants to represent a low-low ability reader from Table 3. To verify, I viewed Elizabeth's scores on the TRT (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990). Elizabeth checked six of the 39 titles on the survey. In doing so, she correctly selected three book titles. All of Elizabeth's chosen books were also movie titles: *Harriet the Spy* (Fitzhugh, 2001), *Heidi* (Spyri, 1880), and *The Polar Express* (Van Allsburg, 1995). In addition, Elizabeth selected three out of the 15 foils offered on the checklist. When compared to the class mean score of 55%, Elizabeth's 39% was the lowest in the class.

In determining a descriptive term for Elizabeth, I viewed my field notes and interviews from the first days and compared them to the field notes and interviews from the final days. Elizabeth, more than any of the other six students, demonstrated the most change in her reading attitude and actions during literacy events. At the conclusion of the study, Mrs. Sun-Ya noted that she now considered Elizabeth a better reader than Demont and Kamia and

placed her fourth out of the six participants. After considering Elizabeth's diligent and successful efforts, I selected the term "Worker" to describe Elizabeth. In the next section, I provide more information on the decision.

The Worker

As indicated earlier, there was a noticeable change in Elizabeth from September, 2004 to May, 2005. Through interviews with Mrs. Sun-Ya, I learned that Elizabeth received support from her family. Through my research, I discovered that Elizabeth received support and scaffolding from her teacher, the librarian, and her peers. However, throughout the year, I also found that Elizabeth's own diligent work efforts made a difference in the way she experienced and understood literacy events in the school library.

In early field notes, I captured images of Elizabeth wandering in the library, scampering through the aisle, and once hiding from the teacher and librarian (September 28, 2004). As the year progressed, Elizabeth developed an ardent interest in reading books from a series that featured a fictitious first-grader, Junie B. Jones, as the main character. In January, 2005, Elizabeth talked about how she just "knew" where the Junie B. Jones books were located. She indicated that Ms. Coleman showed her where to find these chapter books. Late in the year, using a model of the library, Elizabeth provided a tour and noted first and foremost where the chapter books were situated and she used, "Junie B. Jones and Lemony Snickets" (Interview, May 5, 2005) as examples. During the final interview with the library model, I asked where she goes when allowed to select a book to read. First, Elizabeth noted that the children usually have to select a "non-fiction" from the lesson of the day. Then she said she goes to the fictions, "I'm finishing the Junie B. Jones books" (Interview, May 5, 2005).

Elizabeth's terminology fit well with the emic perspective of the children in the study. As stated earlier, the children tended to bifurcate the library into fiction and non-fiction books. They were taught that all book tabbed with blue were true, and non-fiction in their format; all books with pink tabs were fiction books. I also noted in chapter 3 that the children had their own genre terms. "Series chapter books" was one genre term that the children used to describe books like the Junie B. Jones books. In her conversation, Elizabeth demonstrated that she was aware of both communities: the genres her teacher and librarian used and the genres her classmates preferred.

Additionally over the course of the academic year, I noted small, but interesting, changes in Elizabeth's speech. Early in the school year, Elizabeth often referred to her teacher or the librarian as "she". Once during the first month of the school year, I asked Elizabeth who "she" was. Elizabeth replied, "The library teacher" (September 28, 2004). Despite having Ms. Coleman as her librarian throughout her third grade year at Lewis Elementary, Elizabeth used pronouns when talking about Ms. Coleman. In addition, early in the year, Elizabeth referred to her own work in the library using the plural form "we" not "I". When asked what she had done in the library that day, Elizabeth responded with answers like, "We went online" or, "We have a tool that we use." As the year progressed, Elizabeth used more personal pronouns and was able to talk about her teacher and librarian by name. In the process, Elizabeth became less isolated in the library as she gained confidence. By May, Elizabeth said, "I like to look for books, and I like reading books for pleasure" (May 24, 2005).

To further clarify Elizabeth's understandings about her experiences during literacy events in the school library program, I present exemplars of text use. Literacy in the library

involved both books and computers as resources. In the following section, I present two occasions that highlight how learning the procedures of using the computer affected Elizabeth's experiences during literacy events.

How Elizabeth Used Text

Although the students often used print text (e.g., books, references, magazines) in the school library, they also used online text during many literacy events. In presenting the exemplar, I describe how Elizabeth needed assistance initially with the procedural skills of the electronic resource before she was able to make meaning of the text.

In September, Elizabeth demonstrated limited awareness of what she was expected to do when using a computer during literacy events. Despite being prepared to take a Reading Counts quiz on a recently completed book, Elizabeth avoided going to the computer. In field notes (September 28, 3004), I observed her actions:

> 2:20 p.m. Elizabeth is wandering the library and scampers to a back row that is
> farthest from the teacher and librarian. She runs behind two girls. Using a serious tone
> of voice, Mrs. Sun-Ya asks, "Who has not taken their quiz?" Although Elizabeth has
> not taken her quiz, she does not raise her hand. Mrs. Sun-Ya asks her directly,
> "Elizabeth?" Elizabeth responds, "No, I haven't; but, can I check this out first?"
> Elizabeth shows her teacher the book in her hand entitled, *Girls Don't Have Cooties*
> (Krulik, 2002). Mrs. Sun-Ya nods.

When Elizabeth finally arrived at the computer, she told me that she was prepared for the Reading Counts quiz. She knew and articulated that the titles of the quizzes were organized in alphabetical order; she was aware that she was to ignore "the" at the beginning of a title.

But as she attempted to begin her quiz on *The Huckabuck Family: And How They Raised Popcorn in Nebraska and Quit and Came Back* (Sandburg, 1999), she struggled.

Elizabeth's lack of competence with computer operations complicated the literacy event as evidenced by the following observation. Elizabeth sat alone at the computer; she typed her name once, and then again. The screen read, "Please select your name." Although Elizabeth's name was on the screen as an option to select, she ignored or did not read this suggestion and typed her name in a third time. As she typed in the password, I asked her what she was typing and she responded, "My zip code." The password she correctly entered was not her zip code, but her student identification number used for the library check out and lunch. (Field notes, Observation September 28, 2004).

The children had a brief amount of time to take the Reading Counts quiz, and Elizabeth spent a great deal of her time scrolling, not taking the quiz. In order to scroll, Elizabeth placed the cursor on the mid point of the side bar, and tapped the mouse with her index finger. This action made the screen scroll erratically. After she scrolled past the location of the quiz once, she started again ending with the same unsuccessful results. This occurred several times. Elizabeth did not raise her hand or ask anyone for help. When Mrs. Sun-Ya walked by, she paused and watched Elizabeth's progress. Mrs. Sun-Ya took Elizabeth's hand and placed it under her own on the mouse. Together, they moved the cursor to the lower arrow on the side bar. Mrs. Sun-Ya moved the scroll bar by touching Elizabeth's index finger gently to the mouse's wheel and gliding it forward. Mrs. Sun-Ya removed her hand, and then watched Elizabeth practice using the mouse's wheel. Elizabeth began using the new method and her scrolling was immediately less random. The titles on the screen moved less rapidly on the screen. After her teacher left, Elizabeth did not scroll

beyond the location of the quiz and once there, she clicked on the appropriate quiz. Elizabeth used the pointer of the cursor to keep her place while reading, demonstrating that she had a strategy to use while reading online. At the conclusion of the quiz, her score was 10/10.

In an interview several days later, Mrs. Sun-Ya noted her surprise about Elizabeth's inability to use the mouse. She indicated that the children in grades one through three have ample opportunities to use computers. Mrs. Sun-Ya had not anticipated that Elizabeth would struggle with the operational part of using the mouse successfully. Fortunately, Elizabeth learned quickly and was able to demonstrate her knowledge of the book.

As the year progressed, Elizabeth became a confident and comfortable user of the computer as a tool for her literacy research. When I noticed the change in Elizabeth, I asked Mrs. Sun-Ya if she had observed the same phenomena. Because Mrs. Sun-Ya had continual contact with Elizabeth's family, she indicated that Elizabeth, her mother, and father began spending time working on the computer at home. The practice at home gave Elizabeth confidence when working at school. In this next exemplar, just six weeks from the first observation, Elizabeth helped Martin at the computer and demonstrated her expertise.

During most technology-related literacy events, Ms. Coleman assigned two students to a computer. Dyads provided both social contact and peer assistance as the children puzzled out the procedures associated with the technology and reading the online text for research purposes. In the following exemplar, Elizabeth and Martin, another child in the classroom, worked side by side as they located information for their research. Martin, not Elizabeth, controlled the mouse. Talking together, they located the site and took turns reading aloud the information on the screen. Martin decided that he wanted to print a particular part of the reference page. Although she now stood off to the side of the computer, Elizabeth pointed to

the screen and orally directed Martin's actions. Martin struggled to follow through and finally, Elizabeth offered more than oral guidance:

Elizabeth: Here I'll do it.

Martin: No, I got it.

The two children spent five more minutes in an attempt to highlight exactly what Martin wanted to print for his research. During this time, both took turns with the mouse and tried to capture a particular section of the text. As they worked, they discussed various options for the process. Elizabeth finally successfully highlighted the paragraph. As Martin pushed the print button, Elizabeth cheered. Skipping to the printer, Elizabeth announced, "You got it. Let's go!" (Observation, October 13, 2004).

Afterwards, in an interview, I wanted to understand the procedure and success of the literacy event that was strongly associated with procedural knowledge of the computer's highlighting feature, and I asked Elizabeth how she knew to highlight text for printing. She replied, "I have done it before . . . at home, with my mom" (Interview, October 18, 2004)

Literacy events were often embedded within other events. It was through observing and interviewing Elizabeth that I first discovered that comprehension and production of text during a literacy event was often located inside other essential skill sets. I liken these literacy experience and understandings to a matryoshka, the Russian nesting doll (Ertl & Hibberd 2003). For example, when attempting to take the Reading Counts quiz, Elizabeth encountered other literacy events. First, she had to key in her name and correct password. Once completed, she then had to use the mouse properly to locate the appropriate quiz. Although these may appear to be operational skills, they also involved literacy. Third,

Elizabeth had to understand the organization of the site. She had to apply her knowledge that the quizzes were organized alphabetically by the title, not the author's last name. But these three events alone were not enough. Next, she had to be able to skillfully operate the mouse to locate what she was seeking at the site. Finally, Elizabeth arrived at the center core of the literacy event: reading the quiz. I discovered that a child's confidence with the operational aspects of the resource often led to increased confidence and pleasure with the literacy event. The students did not decode, comprehend, and make decisions about the text without successfully operating (understanding) the shell that encased the text, such as the resources books, computer, and data bases.

One way of discovering more about Elizabeth's literacy events was to view her artifacts. In the next section, I discuss one particular artifact, Elizabeth's biography of Mary Cassatt. The example further supported the notion that operational use of materials had large implications on the completion of the artifact.

Elizabeth's Production of Artifacts

When asked about the artifact she thought was her best work, Elizabeth selected her biography of Mary Cassatt. To discover Elizabeth's understandings about the literacy event that led to this artifact, I began by asking her why she selected Mary Cassatt for the project. She responded, "My teacher said, 'Do you want a challenge?' and I picked a challenge because there were others, like Milton Hershey that I already know a lot about. So I picked a challenge" (Interview, March 3, 2005).

When Elizabeth took notes for her biography of Mary Cassatt, she concentrated on the pictures. She flipped through the book, stopped at pictures, and then wrote notes on her paper. When asked about the books she used for her research, Elizabeth admitted, "It was just

one book. But if was full of pictures. It was the pictures that mostly helped. I could tell why she liked to draw by the pictures" (Interview, March 3, 2005).

Figure 12

Elizabeth's notes on Mary Cassatt
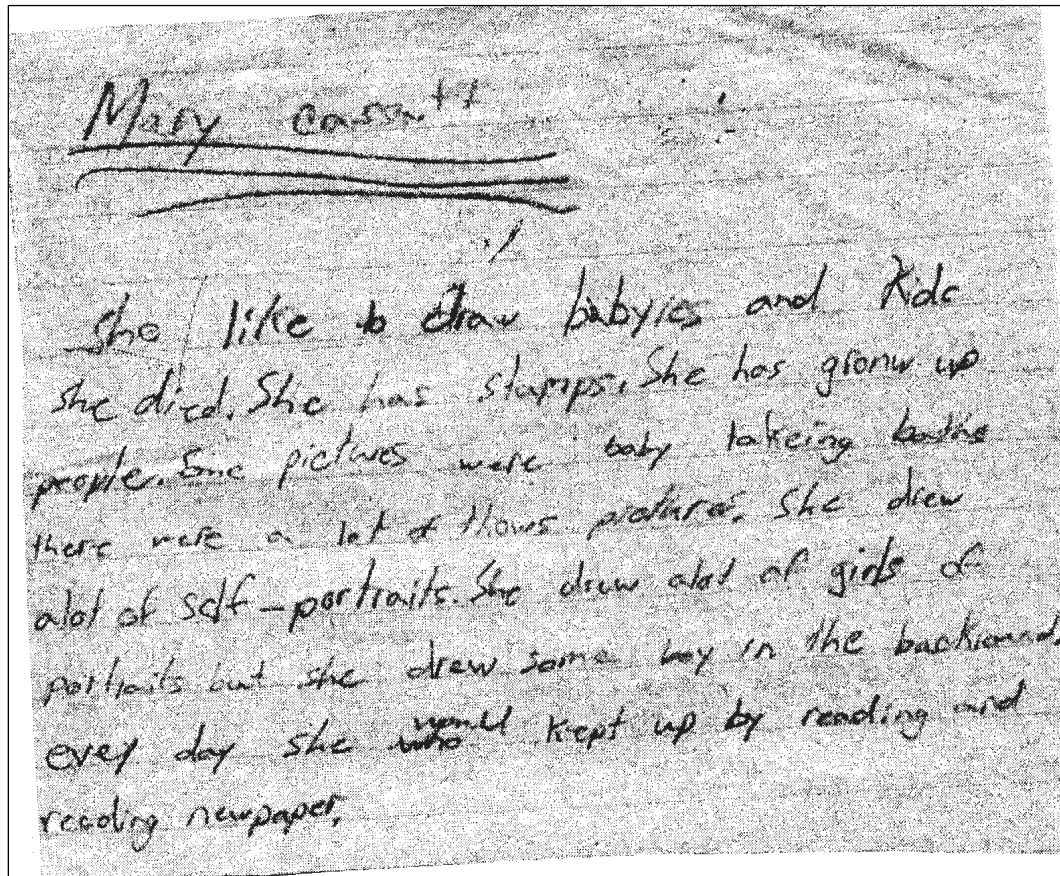
Elizabeth wrote her notes in her own words. Despite a number of mechanical errors, Elizabeth used a report-like or expository rhetorical pattern. For example, when Elizabeth wrote, "She like to draw babyies and kids", she wrote in third person, present tense. The use of present tense "exemplifies a common feature" (Dreher & Voelker, 2004, p. 263) in exposition. Further, Elizabeth described Cassatt's subjects for the paintings. Describing, as noted in chapter 3, is another aspect often found in exposition (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998).

Since Elizabeth was taking notes as she paged the text, it is more likely she was organizing her notes as she came upon interesting information. Because the text itself was descriptive in its rhetorical pattern, Elizabeth's notes may be unintentionally similar.

Elizabeth did not use any narrative rhetorical structures, nor did she take notes in the form of bullets or phrases. Instead, she wrote in sentences. In at least one part of her notes, Elizabeth rephrased a caption from the book, *Mary Cassatt: Portrait of an American Impressionist* (Streissguth, 1999). Under a photograph of Mary Cassatt reading the newspaper, the author explained, "Mary Cassatt always kept up-to-date by reading newspapers and books and by holding intellectual conversations with friends and visitors" (p. 94). Elizabeth truncated the caption in her own notes and wrote, "She would kept up by reading and reading newspaper."

Elizabeth, despite using primarily pictures and captions for her research and avoiding the other text, found information about her subject, Mary Cassatt. Weeks later, when the biography was completed, I asked Elizabeth if anyone helped her as she learned about Mary Cassatt. Elizabeth credited her friend, Sofia. In the next section, I present one exemplar of how social interaction affected Elizabeth's interpretive processes during literacy events.

The Role of Social Interaction

Elizabeth identified the biography project as her best work for the year. It was also the project where she spent time talking with another classmate about her topic during the research. While Elizabeth was researching Mary Cassatt, Sofia, one of the best readers in the class, was researching Andrew Wythe. The two girls sat across from one another at an oblong table. As they paged through the books, they shared paintings with one another. Their talk consisted of comparing and contrasting the two artists' subjects. Months later in an

interview, Elizabeth retold how she and Sofia sat at a table and looked at the paintings in the two books.

> AV: Was it helpful to talk to someone else who had an artist like you?
>
> Elizabeth: Yeah, I could compare – like Andrew he liked to draw pictures of barns and outsides, but Mary, she like to draw babies.
>
> AV: If you didn't have this project, whose art work would you be drawn to?
>
> Elizabeth: I think it would be Mary because I like to draw people; I can't draw barns.

Elizabeth demonstrated a strong interest in the subject of her biography. This interest was validated at the end of the year during an interview with the library model. Elizabeth marked one of her favorite places in the library model by placing her small paper figure in the 700 section of the non-fiction books. When asked, she commented that the 700s were where she would go to locate "drawing books" (Interview, May 3, 2005).

Her interest in drawing influenced the way she talked about the two famous painters. Elizabeth comfortably called each one by their first names: Mary and Andrew. Her comfortable discussion was in contrast to the final draft of her biography. Elizabeth took notes that indicated her knowledge of the kinds of scenes Cassatt painted. Elizabeth's final draft included only one somewhat dispassionate statement about Cassatt's subjects:

Figure 13

Section of Elizabeth's Final Draft of Mary Cassatt's Biography

When Mary was in her forties, she preferred painting mother and child. This is what she is best known for.
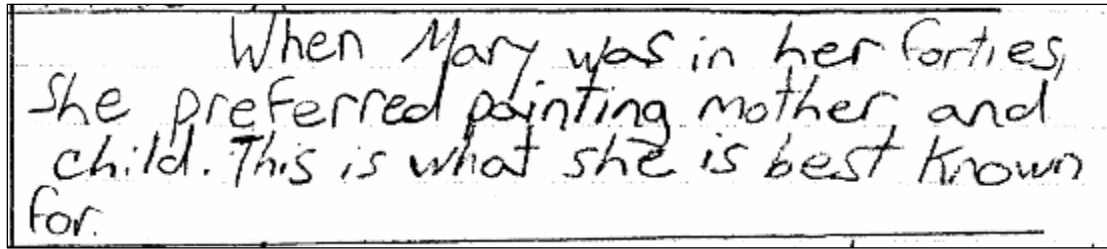
To understand why Elizabeth omitted material that she appeared to enjoy, had shared with a peer, and wrote about in her own words, I showed Elizabeth a copy of her notes from the day in the library. Elizabeth looked blankly at her own notes, then she admitted that she "kind of forgot" about her notes and used mostly a website she and her mother located via the Google search engine. Although Elizabeth admitted that most of her research for the biography project came from researching at home, she believed that the peer interaction and note taking did make a difference. "I remember a lot of it," she stated as she pointed to her head, "I have it in my head" (Interview, March 3, 2005).

Unknown

Although this literacy portrait addressed particular experiences and understandings from Elizabeth's literacy events, there were unknowns. Elizabeth's parents were invested in her education; they realized that she required support and scaffolding to maintain success in fourth grade. They worked with her at home on computer skills and researching information. Elizabeth gained confidence. Although Elizabeth introduced me to her father when he surprised her and joined the class for lunch one day, I was not able to know fully the relationship and effect of her home literacy on the events I observed in the school library.

Conclusion on Elizabeth's Literacy Portrait

Elizabeth required learning support in grade three. But she appeared to gain confidence and interest in literacy events during fourth grade. She began the year unable to use the computer effectively. On my final day at the school, Elizabeth requested that I sit with her at the computer. She negotiated the computer smoothly and opened her file from the Reading Counts program. Reading the display, I learned that Elizabeth passed 12 Junie B. Jones (Parks,1993, 1994, 1995, 1996a, 1996b, 1997a, 1997b, 1999, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2002) book quizzes during fourth grade. Although all the Junie B. Jones books were listed at the second grade reading level, Elizabeth attempted a quiz on *Shiloh* (Naylor, 2000), a book listed at 5.9 grade level. She did not pass the quiz, nor did she attempt to take it again.

Elizabeth credited the librarian, Ms. Coleman, with showing her the Junie B. Jones books. Because the books were series chapter books, a genre highly prized by the fourth graders, Elizabeth seemed pleased to be able to read the books. She was adamant that she was going to read the entire series. Although the books were two years below the fourth grade level, Elizabeth's confidence grew along with positive peer interactions. Through the encouraging social interactions, Elizabeth also gained knowledge. As described in Kamia's literacy portrait, Elizabeth developed a reputation as a Junie B. Jones expert.

However, the impact of her family's role in her literacy experiences remains an unknown. The family may have bolstered Elizabeth's opportunities for practice. But it was possible that some of Elizabeth's independent learning was negated by home interventions. Regardless, Elizabeth was working diligently at school. She was engaging in conversations with her peers, she was discovering her interests. She found books and topics that she enjoyed.

Literacy Portrait 6: Kamia

Early in the year, after I selected Elizabeth as a participant, I searched for another student in the Low/Low section of Table 3. Mrs. Sun-Ya suggested Kamia, who she noted was "about the same level as Elizabeth" and a good choice (Interview, September 23, 2004).

In the spring semester, while in grade three, Kamia scored in the 60th percentile on the Terra Nova Reading Test; in fall of the same year, she dropped to the 52nd percentile. Mrs. Sun-Ya placed Kamia 20th out of 24 students when asked to arrange the class by her perception of their ability in reading. On the TRT (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990), Kamia scored the same as Ian, a Mid/Mid reader on Table 3. However, in contrast to Ian, who parsimoniously only checked four book titles, Kamia generously distributed 20 checks to the list. Consequently, she correctly identified 11 of the 24 correct titles, and selected 8 of the 15 foils as actual titles. Her final score was 19/39 or 49%, below the 55% class mean.

By chance, I had more opportunities to observe Kamia more closely than any other participant in my study. Ms. Coleman recommended that I set up my computer at the edge of the long tables where I would not be a distraction to the children. In this location, I was positioned beside Kamia during the direct instruction portion of the library session. In this privileged position, I was able to hear many of Kamia's whispered comments made to herself and to her friends at the table. These sub-vocalized comments often indicated comprehension. Possibly many of the children in Mrs. Sun-Ya's class made similar connections, but I was only able to hear and learn from Kamia. Therefore, when I considered an illustrative term for her, I used the term "connector" because Kamia consistently created links to her own thinking during literacy events. In the following section, I provided exemplars that support the selection of this term for Kamia.

The Connector

Throughout the year, Kamia demonstrated her ability to make connections during literacy events. I selected three examples to demonstrate the connections. In September, as Ms. Coleman reviewed the charts in the library that identified the Dewey Decimal categories, Kamia whispered, "I knew that" (September 29, 2004). After Ms. Coleman presented the plot of a new book where a baby was mysteriously placed on the family's front porch, Kamia whispered, "I would take care of it." (May 3, 2005). Kamia also used body language that indicated she was connecting and comprehending the literacy event. For example, when Ms. Coleman rhetorically asked the children if they ever read under their covers, Kamia vigorously nodded her head (November 3, 2004).

In addition to these text-to-self (Keene & Zimmerman, 1997) responses, Kamia also engaged in critical thinking. One example occurred when Ms. Coleman introduced the database of Biography Reference Bank to the children during direct instruction. Each student selected a Pennsylvania native to research in order to present a biographical report to the class. In this library session, Ms. Coleman discussed a particular database within the Biography Reference Bank, entitled Arts Reference.

Ms. Coleman: If you have someone who is in music or art, you should use the Arts Reference part of this database. (She clicks on the site.)

Kamia: (Whispering to herself) Is Martha Graham there? (Observation, December 9, 2004).

As Kamia listened to the librarian, she connected the Arts Reference database to the subject of her biography project, Martha Graham. Kamia knew Graham was a dancer, but in this

whispered comment she questioned if a dancer would be a part of music and art. Although her question indicated she was thinking, Kamia did not ask the librarian for an answer.

Besides demonstrating her use of inner voice or collegial speech (Vygotsky, 1962), Kamia also had a strong connection to her family. On numerous occasions, Kamia referred to her family when she made book selections. For example, one afternoon, Kamia was seated in the rocker reading *Our Aunt Gracie* (Woodson, 2002), and she shared that she was excited about the book "because I love all my aunts" (Interview, January 26, 2005):

Kamia: Yeah, I have a favorite aunt who spoils me.

AV: So when Ms. Coleman introduced this book, you were thinking?

Kamia: Aunt Cynthia! [Kamia launched into a long story about her aunt.]

There were numerous examples that indicated that Kamia selected books that related to her family. Four particular examples validate this pattern. During a book talk on award winning books, Kamia chose Toni Morrison's book, *Remembering* (2004), a memoir about school desegregation. When asked why she selected the book, Kamia said, "My mom told me about segregation before." On another occasion, after seeing the movie *Ray* over the weekend with her family, Kamia located a biography about Ray Charles. Although Kamia commented that "the movie was sad" (Interview, January 6, 2005), she expressed delight in being able to share the book with her family that evening. After a book talk on the genre of journeys, Kamia checked out *My New York* (Jakobsen, 2003) because her grandmother lived there. Finally, when asked one day if she would have preferred to accomplish something else in the library, she indicated that her four year old brother needed a book to read, and she would have preferred to spend her library time locating a book for him.

Throughout the school year, Kamia often marked her bookmark during direct instruction and willingly checked out books that were a part of the curriculum. Because most of the curriculum expectations included some choice, Kamia, as indicated above, attempted to connect her choice to her family experiences. No other child in the sample expressed such a deliberate link to family.

Kamia's Use of Text

Although Kamia had similar experiences to her peers, she was more likely than the other students to interpret literally what she read. If she was seeking a factual answer, she typically did not experience difficulty. For example, during a lesson on the use of the almanac, Kamia and her partner, Julian, attempted to locate the answer to the question, "What is the U.S. Mint?" Kamia rolled her finger down the index, then she and her partner turned to the appropriate page. They copied the correct answer directly from the book to the paper.

Kamia tended to interpret inference questions as explicit and literal. By doing so, she experienced difficulty. For example, Kamia and her partner attempted to answer the question, "What Roman numeral stands for the number 500?" Together they used the index, found the page number, and located the Roman Numeral Chart. As they looked at the table, Julian stated, "D. The answer is D." Almost immediately, Kamia was confused and repeated, "But what does the number *stand for*?" Julian repeated, "D". Kamia ran her index finger over the chart on the page and finally stated with conviction, "It doesn't say." (November 11, 2004). When her partner insisted that he had the correct answer, Kamia wrote D on her paper but shook her head back and forth.

Because Kamia engaged often in thinking aloud, I was able to identify other similar incidents where she struggled with text comprehension because of her literal interpretations In the spring, the students researched information about baseball players to prepare for a discussion about American Heroes as a part of their basal reader theme on heroes. (See Appendix E) Kamia selected Nolan Ryan for her investigation. While reading a book, *Who is Baseball's Greatest Pitcher*? (Kisseloff, 2003) Kamia located Nolan Ryan's name in the table of contents and turned to page 151, where the biography of Nolan Ryan was located. In my field notes, I recorded this example of her explicit interpretation:

> Kamia subvocalizes as she reads the line, "*After all, the guys lost 292 games during his career, which is third all time*" (Kisseloff, 2003, p. 151). She says aloud but to no one in particular, "He lost 292 games during his career. Wow!" She continues reading text and subvocalizing. After reading "*He owed his success to the Ryan Express*," Kamia stands up and exclaims to her friends at the table, "He owns a train!" (Observation, April 12, 2005).

After reading this excerpt, Kamia wrote "has a train" under the column "Three things about this baseball player" on her handout. To understand Kamia through an emic perspective, I recalled that earlier in the year, Kamia shared that she was good at picturing things in her head. Once she expressed that reading a book required a special kind of thinking, "You have to read it with your head – visualize it!" (February 3, 2005). I discovered that when she read "Ryan's Express", she pictured a train, from the award winning book and recently released movie, *Polar Express.*

Kamia's response to the baseball research reflected Jetton and Alexander's (2001) argument that readers with less knowledge and little interest demonstrated shallow

understanding with minimal strategy use. To analyze this literacy event, I considered Kintsch's construction-integration model of comprehension (1998) where multiple meanings were "constructed, but the one that was irrelevant to the context would be rapidly suppressed" (p. 95). Kamia's association of Ryan's Express to a train was reasonable, perhaps even predictable given her age. But surprisingly, Kamia did not change her notes even after reading on in the text. The author continued and further described Ryan Express as a "100.9 mph fastball" (Kisseloff, 2003, p. 151). Kamia's misunderstanding of the text may have resulted from a lack of familiarity with the language of baseball (i.e., 100.9 mph fastball). However her misunderstanding also resulted from her inaccurate association of the term *express* to mean a train. Kintsch noted that personal experience may "complement the text information" (p. 103) causing both (i.e., text and personal experience) to influence comprehension. In this episode, personal experience complemented the text but negatively affected comprehension. By using only a visualizing strategy combined with her own prior knowledge, Kamia arrived at an inaccurate comprehension of the text.

Kamia's Production of Artifacts

To understand Kamia's experiences during literacy events, I analyzed her artifacts. Kamia had no difficult identifying her best work and expressing her self-efficacy about the work. She quickly noted that her biography project on Martha Graham was the answer. However, she did not select it because of her literacy work, instead when asked why this was her best work, she commented, "I was proud of my puppet. I put a lot of work into my puppet." For this project, the students wrote a biography of a famous Pennsylvanian and then presented their biography to the class by reading aloud with a puppet doing the reporting.

As stated earlier, Kamia connected much of her thinking to her family, but nothing in her biography report demonstrated those types of links. Instead the biography, written in a narrative rhetorical pattern, began with Graham's birth (e.g., "Martha Graham was born in 1894 . . . . They lived in a small town in Pittsburg called Alleghany, PA") and continued to her death ("Martha was 96 years old at death: A revolutionary in dance."). She indicated that she first wrote two pages by hand, then typed the biography. But many lines in her biography were structured as if they had been copied from a text. For example, Kamia included complex sentences like, "Martha went from being a student, to a teacher, to one of the company's best-known performers." When asked how she decided what to place in the biography, Kamia noted that she wanted to put interesting information into her biography.

AV: So when you were looking for something interesting about Martha
        Graham, how did you decide what to select from your research?

Kamia: Interesting to everybody!

AV: Does it have to interest you first?

Kamia: Oh yeah, then I tell *everybody*. (Interview, May 24, 2005).

Although Kamia talked very little about the text of her biography, she gave a thorough description of her puppet. Kamia explained how she began with a brown-haired doll with a long embroidered dress. Kamia, with her mother's help, unscrewed small bolts in the center of the doll so that the doll could flop and twist with ease, much like Martha Graham's modern dance pictures in the book Kamia used in her research, *Martha Graham: A dancer's life* (Freedman, 1998). Kamia demonstrated how she used the doll during the reading of her report. Kamia found meaningfulness in creating a physical model to use with her literacy

project. She also demonstrated her comprehension of Martha Graham's work by mimicking modern dance movements with the doll.

The Role of Social Interaction

Kamia, with her cheerful disposition, had many friends in the classroom. But, as stated earlier, she related most often to her family. Through observation, I was aware that Kamia worked easily with other children. However, I was uncertain how others affected her interpretive processes during literacy events.

At the end of the year during the interview using the library model, Kamia provided some information about the role of social interaction. After she carefully reviewed every section in the library, Kamia indicated that the biography section was the most important part of the library. Kamia may have selected biographies because her class spent time writing a biography. However, when considering Kamia's continual dialogue about family, her selection of biographies as the most important part of the library also represented the value she placed upon life experiences.

After the tour, Kamia noted that one of her favorite things in the library was talking to her friends. She indicated five areas that she and her friends used as places to talk. To learn more about the conversations, I asked Kamia whom she talked to and about what. Kamia indicated that she talked with many people, her friends and other classmates. However, when asked what she talked about with her friends, Kamia indicated that she knew certain children in the class would be better to ask about particular questions. She used Elizabeth as an example.

AV   Show me an example with the figures of your classmates.

Kamia: (Picks up her own figure and Elizabeth's figure) I know that if I

               wanted to find . . . say, Junie B. Jones books. And I don't know where

               they are.Then I would ask Elizabeth, because she checks out these

               books every day. She knows.

AV: And if you had another question about something else.

Kamia: I go to the friend who I think would know the answer. Not the same

               friend for every question (Interview, May 5, 2006).

Kamia's classmates, like her family, became sources of information that she learned to read.

She recognized individual children and their expertise.

Unknown

        As with the other five participants in my study, Kamia's literacy portrait was a

limited view of her literacy experiences. Despite hearing her think aloud many times, I

remained uncertain about how Kamia made meaning of text.

        Knowing the strategies Kamia has been taught to use during comprehension would be

useful in understanding how she experiences literacy events in a school library. She appeared

to rely solely on her own knowledge, even when the text presented explicit explanations. For

example, she did not change her mind about Nolan Ryan's train even after reading on about

his fast ball.

        There were occasions during the year that Kamia abandoned topics or resources if she

was confused. Once after having difficulty finding research on a website, she noted

incorrectly that the computer was not working, and she needed to move to another computer

for research. In addition, she did not continue to research Nolan Ryan for her baseball hero

discussion. When I asked her why she changed from Nolan Ryan to Moses Alioa, she said, "I went on the website like everyone else did, but I couldn't find him [Nolan Ryan]. I thought he was dead, so I got a new person" (May 24, 2005). However Kamia did have information on Ryan and earlier in the year, she told me that he was not dead in this interview:

Kamia: I think he's still alive.

AV: Why is that?

Kamia: Well, it says a year by the letter 'B' – I think that's his birthday but then I don't see if he died. So I think he's alive still (April 12, 2005).

In one of the final interviews, Mrs. Sun-Ya indicated that Kamia had become more invested in socializing than academics as the year progressed. However, this alone did not seem to be an adequate explanation of her literacy experiences. It would be interesting to see how Kamia did on her standardized reading test in the spring. Her eight percentage point drop from spring, 2004 to fall, 2004 was discouraging news. This may have represented Kamia's inability to make meaning of more difficult, less explicit text that often accompanies upper elementary curriculum.

Conclusion on Kamia's Literacy Portrait

Kamia, cheerful by nature, was open and willing to share her thinking. She had a large extended family, and many of her cousins attended Lewis Elementary with her. Kamia often connected literacy events in the library to her family's experiences. She had a strong and lively set of background experiences.

Unfortunately, when Kamia attempted to analyze what she was reading, she often assumed that her own background knowledge provided the answer. Relying on her own,

often literal, interpretations led to difficulty in making sense of the text she was reading. Further, when the text or a resource became difficult, she abandoned it.

In order to interpret Kamia's experiences and understandings in a school library, I would benefit from analyzing the strategies she uses when reading content text in her classroom setting. Without more information on her skills and abilities, I am unable to understand completely how Kamia experienced and understood literacy events in the school library.

Summary of Literacy Portraits

In many ways, the literacy portraits celebrated the children's literacy in the school library. Caitlin, with her love of story, had ample opportunities to engage in reading and writing narrative stories. She had friends and adults who supported and encouraged her. When the topic was meaningful to Jamal, he wrote well, and had a strong sense of efficacy about his work. Ian found abundant sources that related to his personal interest. Through scaffolding, he was able to locate sources for projects. In addition, Ian was able to map his personal interests onto the topics presented in class. He also had an opportunity to read his book review to the entire school. Demont found a book buddy who inspired him to read a particular genre. He enjoyed talking to his friend about stories they both enjoyed. Elizabeth, one of the weakest readers in the class, was able to converse easily with one of the best readers in the class. Because they were using art work and captions, the girls found a place where both could be equals. Through her diligence, Elizabeth developed confidence by reading books at her independent level. Finally, Kamia constantly made literary connections to her life. Her home culture supported her during school literacy events.

However, the children's use and understanding of text, artifacts, and social interaction in the school library was more complex. My study looked at a small number of children; yet I found both similarity and disparity in how children experienced and understood the literacy events. In this summary, I present a brief explanation of both similarities and differences within the literacy portraits. In my discussion of the findings in chapter six, I reflect upon each subsidiary question individually.

I found there were three overall similarities in the literacy events. First, all children were required to accomplish the same tasks and received the same instruction, regardless of reading ability. However, choice played a small role in some tasks. For example, everyone completed a travel brochure, but each child could select her or his research topic. Secondly, all artifacts were exclusively written in exposition, yet little time or instruction was given to teaching how to read or write expository text. Third, the children invested in the tasks due to interest, situational or personal. For example, during the biography project, some children, like Kamia, invested in the production of the puppet, not the knowledge of the person. Yet others, like Caitlin, became invested in choosing a unique writing format for the artifact.

There were also disparities. To explain, I briefly present three findings. First, a child's ability to negotiate the various language systems present in the library (e.g., decoding the text, operating the online catalog, manipulating the Dewey Decimal system) was, at times, related to reading ability. However, on other occasions, poor negotiation of the language systems related more closely to a lack of experience with the language systems, not ability. For example, Elizabeth eventually learned how to use the mouse with modeling and guiding practice. Her status as a Low/Low reader did not make her unable to operate the mouse; her lack of practice and experience did. Secondly, the child's sense of meaningfulness, interest,

and purpose collectively impacted how well he or she experienced and understood the tasks. Third, the child's ability to critically understand and assess sources impacted the quality of her or his artifact.

In summary, the results from chapter 4 and 5 indicated that many literacy events are nested within a number of other powerful and necessary skills, processes, and social interaction. In addition, literacy events often extended beyond the perimeter of the library, making it difficult to parse literacy from many of the other issues presented in a school library. To fully understand the children's experiences and understandings from one year in a quality school library, I discuss the findings from each of the four subsidiary questions in chapter six. After thoroughly exploring the findings from the four questions, I discovered a surprising paradox which will be presented and explained in the final chapter.

Chapter 6

Discussion and Implications

There are seven sections in this final chapter: a brief summary of the study, discussion of the finding related to the four subsidiary questions, an explanation of the paradox related to the study, implication for instruction, direction for future research, limitations, and a conclusion.

Brief Summary of the Study

This one year study explored how six fourth grade students experienced and understood literacy events in a quality school library program (ALA, 1998; Lance et al., 2000a, 2000b). To locate a quality setting, I employed experts' suggestions, reviewed resources (PDE, 2004), interviewed librarians, and visited four sites. Of these four sites, I chose the quality setting which had the highest percentage of racial diversity within the student population. Using data on reading ability (i.e., Terra Nova results), teacher ranking, and the Title Recognition Test (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1990), I selected six fourth graders, who represented diversity in reading ability, reading experience, race, and gender.

Although there were many aspects worthy of exploration in the school library (Dressman, 1997), I selected children and their literacy experiences. To center the study, I specified the literacy event as a unit of analysis. After determining the unit of analysis, I designed four research questions built on Heath's (1982) definition of literacy events: (1) What is the nature of the literacy events? (2) How do children use texts during literacy events? (3) What artifacts do children produce as a result of the literacy events? (4) What is the role of social interaction in the interpretative processes?

Collecting and analyzing data were reciprocal processes, with one informing the other. During the academic year, I collected data via observations and interviews. There were three distinct types of interviews: post literacy event, with artifacts, and with the library model at the end of the year. I employed an emic perspective with the intention of viewing the literacy events through the experiences and understanding of the participants. Using an etic lens, I applied my understandings of literacy research with the intention of analyzing each child's perspective (Hunt, 1991). To crystallize the findings from the analysis, I created literacy portraits of each of the participants that aligned with the subsidiary questions.

Through this one year exploration, I learned about literacy directly from children on the front lines of this complicated environ. At the conclusion of the study, there were numerous aspects that merited discussion. As a reading researcher, I was interested in the concept of literacy that dominated the literacy events. In this chapter, I discuss literacy within the literacy events by revisiting the four subsidiary questions that guided this study. My purpose in this discussion is to add to the current understanding literacy and the expanding role of the school library. But my primary intention remains, as stated in chapter one, to present children's experiences and understandings through a "childist" lens (Hunt, 1991) to educators and researchers who have concerns about literacy and the future role of the school library.

Discussion of the Subsidiary Questions

In this year long ethnographic study, I discovered that the school library was a fitting setting to examine literacy. Children's literacy was celebrated in this school library, but literacy events were more complex than they appeared on the surface. As a literacy

researcher, I was drawn to how the children experienced and understood literacy in this quality school library. I used literacy events as units of analysis to assist my investigation.

In this chapter, I discuss each of the four subsidiary questions while considering the essence of literacy that filtered throughout the year. I employ my overarching research question, "How do fourth graders experience and understanding literacy events in a quality school library?" to discuss each subsidiary question. I contend that the nature of literacy events impacted how the children comprehended texts, how they produced artifacts, and the role of social interaction interpretive processes. As I explain the issues, I integrate narrative rhetoric into the argument to complement the ethnographic style of the portraits in chapter five.

Discussing Question One: The Nature of Literacy Events

The first question focused upon the nature of literacy events in a quality school library. Understanding the nature of the literacy events was paramount to understanding all other questions posed in this study. As stated in chapter four, literacy events, as defined in this study, were ubiquitous. The school library program was divided into three segments: direct instruction, practice and application, and book selection. Direct instruction encompassed 58% of the library time (10 hrs 25 min / 18 hrs 15 min). During direct instruction, children attended to the librarian as she modeled and provided instructional input.

The action of "attending" was not only a large part of the children's experiences, it also provided insight into the nature of literacy. In the discussion of question one, I argue that the children's understandings of knowledge and their literacy practices developed from the inordinate amount of time they spent "attending" over the course of one year. I begin by

making the experience of "attending" transparent; next I present how this habitual activity (Lofland, 1971) influenced the children's understanding of knowledge.

   The experience of "attending" as literacy practice. It is easy to recreate the images of these fourth grade children "attending" in the school library because I spent hours observing this action. Every day that I observed, the library session began in the southwestern corner of the room. Six square tables were pushed together to create the effect of three oblong table. Four hard-backed oak chairs were tucked beneath each square table. Typically the librarian set out oblong bookmarks on the table tops, much like place cards at a banquet. At the first library session, the teacher and librarian assigned seats to the children with the intention of creating an equal mix of boys and girls at each table. After day one, the children entered the library in a quiet single file line, and took the same pre-determined seats.

   Similarly, the computer and LCD projector were permanently stationed in front of the tables. Because the screen for projection was mounted in the corner of the room, half of the children could see the screen if they looked straight ahead. The remaining children, who faced away from the screen, had to turn their heads in order to see. To my surprise, no child ever picked up her or his chair and repositioned it to see the screen more easily. Instead, in a seemingly awkward position, the children twisted their necks, and often rested their chins sideways on the open palms of their hands while their elbows rested on the table.

   As described in chapter three, the term "attending" evolved from the initial term "gazing". After observations where I noted that the children demonstrated that they used information from the direct instruction, I renamed "gazing" to "attending". However, at the conclusion of this study as I look back on my observations, I find remnants of the original term still obvious. Whether I used the term attending or gazing, the children's eyes were

fixed, and they *appeared* to be listening and/or watching. Attending, like gazing, was a passive activity where the student was not in charge of manipulating any images, print, or sound. Students were not constructing understanding. I wondered how the consistent and overwhelming experience of "attending" impacted the children's understandings of literacy.

Within this study, I viewed children's literacy from a socio-cultural perspective, based upon Halliday's (1980) approach to learning language. As noted in chapter 1, Halliday constructed an understanding of learning language through social functions. Therefore, literacy for children is not merely learning language and language systems, but learning *about* language and language systems, and learning *through* language and language systems. Thus literacy, by its definition, involves using knowledge and the pursuit of knowledge: a dynamic construct (Guthrie et al., 1998). In order to understand better the action of "attending" and its impact on literacy, I had to understand how the children viewed knowledge. In order to gather a sense of their corporate understanding, I used the final interview with the library model as an opportune moment to separate literacy from the experiences during literacy events. In the next section, I describe how the passive experience of "attending" affected the children's understandings of knowledge.

The impact of "attending" on knowledge. In early May, I sat on the floor of an empty classroom with the six children from my study. I passed out post-its and pencils as they surveyed the school library replica. I asked the children to join together to answer a question, "What is knowledge?" As a group, they began a discussion to answer my question. During this time, I moved outside of their circle, and began reading my notes, as a way to remove myself from their intimate conversation. After no more than ten minutes, the cacophony of

six voices settled to a soft murmur and muffled giggles. Jamal, with his natural leadership style, announced that they were ready to talk to me about their thinking.

Although my question (i.e., What is knowledge?) did not presume that they had to locate knowledge, the children answered the question by indicating that knowledge was located in three sources. They had attached three post-its to various items in the library model. The children attached a post-it with a dark, large number 1 to the computer and the LCD projector. With overlapping voices, the children identified the computer that projected the PowerPoint presentation as the number one source of knowledge in the library. Next, they selected reference books, but verbally specified the World Book, as the second most important source of knowledge. Third, the children identified biographies as a location for knowledge. With their joint endorsement, the children allowed me, an outsider, to see inside their heads metaphorically and view how they were beginning to construct an understanding of knowledge and their roles as literacy learners.

Through this conversation with the library model, I found that children's understanding of knowledge mirrored what they experienced during instruction. "Attending" to the librarian's direct instruction via PowerPoint presentations was how the children spent the majority of their time in the library. The children also specified the World Book as the second most important source of knowledge. This reference tool was part of a direct instruction lesson and a tool most children used several times during the school year in the production of their artifacts. Lastly, the children identified the biography section as having knowledge. The librarian provided direct instruction on finding biographies, both in print and using the Internet. Each child selected a biography to use as a source of information in the largest research project of the year.

Because I was surprised that the children only selected inanimate objects as sources of knowledge, I prompted them by asking if there were any sources of knowledge besides technology or books. Several children covered their mouths with their hands to disguise how surprised they were that they had missed the human factor. Almost immediately, a student asked permission to change the original distribution of knowledge sources. I no sooner agreed when Jamal reconvened the others with a quick swoop of his arm and the words, "Come on, Y'all. Let's fix this." The children repositioned the sources of knowledge by placing all the adults in the school library as the first source of knowledge. They placed the post-it with the number one over three laminated figures: the teacher, librarian, and the library aide. All agreed that their teacher, the librarian, and the library aide had equal knowledge.

When the students placed the three adults together, I was reminded of how the library discourse community viewed collaboration. (ALA, 1998; Lance et al. 2000b). Foremost, the members in the library discourse community viewed collaboration as a key ingredient for a successful library program. Initially, I thought that the children's decision to place the adults together as a group indicated that they had a similar view of collaboration.

Reviewing the notion of collaboration, I found that the ALA noted that collaboration, at its most basic level, was "working with others" (ALA, 1998, p.50). But within the library discourse community, a librarian was expected to do more than merely work with others. Rather, the ALA called upon the librarian to be a "catalyst for collaboration" and focus upon the needs of students (p. 51). I affirmed that Ms. Coleman had a similar view of collaboration through my analysis of the pile sorts and interview. But collaboration demands more than having a vision; it "is a symbiotic process that requires active, genuine effort and

commitment by all members of the instructional team" (p.51). I was less certain that this was a description of how collaboration occurred in the school library I observed. Because my focus was the children's experiences and their understandings, I did not intend to assess the collaborative relationships of the adults in the setting. But when the children placed these individuals together, it was imperative that I follow through on the children's thinking to learn if they viewed the teacher, librarian, and library aide as a collaborative team.

Through dialogue with the children, I explored more about the children's decision to gather the three adults into one grouping. Despite placing the teacher, librarian, and aide together, the children viewed each adult as an individual member responsible for specific parts of their learning. The children believed each adult in the library setting had equal, but diversified and separate, knowledge. For example, Caitlin specified that their teacher knew the reading series, and most of their library lessons came from the reading series. Elizabeth reminded me that the librarian had all knowledge associated with the library skills, and the information presented in the PowerPoint presentations. To further explain, Kamia asserted, "Ms. Coleman owns the library" (Interview, May 3, 2005) and all heads nodded in agreement. After this, the children briefly debated if Ms. Coleman had more knowledge than the others because she bought the books. Before this conversation could develop into an argument, Demont voiced the importance of Ms.Craybill, the library aide. Demont's strong support of Ms.Craybill was not surprising. Although all the children appreciated and enjoyed Ms. Craybill, Demont was the only child who mentioned her often in his interviews. Despite having less formal education than the other adults, Ms.Craybill was a person upon whom the children relied for specific knowledge. The library aide knew what books were available, and when a book would be back in circulation. She reserved books for the children. The children

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often spent one-on-one time with the library aide if they wanted to locate a book on the shelves. She also checked their books in and out at the circulation desk. All of this meant knowledge to the children.

In a domino effect, after the human factor was added, the children rearranged the other post-its to reflect their new idea. The computer/ LCD projector became second, and the World Books tied for third place with the biographies. In so doing, the children continued to link knowledge to what they experienced through attending during instruction and modeling.

In the children's understanding, knowledge had dual components. First, knowledge could be contained within a source (i.e., electronic, print, human adult authority). Second, knowledge could be delivered or transmitted (i.e., projected/published) by someone in authority (e.g., librarian/publisher). Through "attending", the children learned their role in literacy: learn language by locating a source that contained the necessary knowledge. I observed only a small number of experiences during the school year that related to learning *about* language or *through* language (Halliday, 1980).

The children's experiences did not included being apprenticed in strategies or the roles of text user and text participant (Luke & Freebody, 1997) for the various genres they utilized in research. There was also no instruction or modeling on how to read for meaning, understand vocabulary, or question the text by acknowledging the power of language. Due to the overabundance of information available today, good readers must be text analysts as well as text users and text participants (Luke & Freebody, 1997). In order to find, retrieve, analyze, and use information (ALA, 2003), good readers need to choose and use strategies flexibly (Guthrie et al., 1996; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). However, these fourth graders did not learn strategies to help them achieve these goals.

In the next two sections, I address the second and third questions which deal respectively with how children comprehend text and produce artifacts. I build upon the nature of literacy events presented in the first subsidiary question. Because making meaning through reading and writing requires and enhances knowledge (Guthrie et al., 1998) the children's perception of knowledge had a powerful impact on the way they comprehended and produced text.

Discussing Question Two: Children's Use of Text

The second subsidiary question in this study focused my investigation on how children used texts during literacy events. As presented in chapter four, the reading curriculum was the foundation for the content of the library sessions. The librarian introduced text genres that represented the various themes from the basal reader. She also introduced specific research sources (print and technological) that related to projects initiated from the basal reading program.

It was not difficult to identify what kinds of text the children used. Discovering *how* the children used text was not as evident. In order to discuss question two, I reviewed specifics on the children's experiences during literacy events with texts. As noted in chapter 5, each child used text distinctively. Yet there were two similarities that fit for all the children. After I present the similarities in how the children used text, I discuss how their understanding of knowledge that developed from "attending" impacted how the children used texts.

How the children used texts. The complexity associated with using text in the library cannot be over estimated. In order to use texts, the children mediated a number of language systems. As stated in chapter 5, it was through early observations of Elizabeth that I first

discovered how use of text during a literacy event was located inside other language systems. In Elizabeth's literacy portrait, I liken this construct to a matryoshka, the Russian nesting doll (Ertl & Hibberd, 2003). I later learned that literacy events were not neatly nested, but overflowed. However, I return to the nesting doll metaphor because it fits well for viewing the wide scope of how the children used texts.

First, like the largest outer layer of the nesting doll, the children mediated the physical library as a language system (e.g., knowing the Dewey Decimal System, how fiction books are classified, where magazines are located). Within the physical library, they learned the language systems of both print and technological sources. Within individual print resources, they mediated language systems that related to that specific text (e.g., using indexes, tables of contents, specific language related to the topic). To use the technological sources, the children mediated the language system of the computer (e.g., keying in, moving the mouse, clicking on appropriate icons). Within the computer language system, there were other language systems: data bases (i.e., selecting, then working within the database's organization), software applications (i.e., making choices, knowing the organization), and Internet websites (e.g., manipulating a homepage to locate information).

Importantly, all sources also had a language system related to the rhetorical structures and epistemological assumption of the author and the publisher. For example, in the text Caitlin used for her biography of John Harris, the author wrote as a historian. His understanding of how to present the information on the story of the Indians mirrored the way the historians' discourse community presents narrative stories that are not substantiated by specific research. Because the story was an oral telling of family story, Barton (1983) presented various versions with explanations in between using expository rhetoric. However,

another source used for the biography project had a different rhetorical and epistemological assumption. When Demont read information on George Westinghouse in the *World Book*, he found a great deal of content succinctly compressed into two paragraphs. There was no presentation of family stories that were not substantiated by research.

Both of these sources present the text based upon rhetorical expectation and epistemological assumption. Barton (1983) unfolded a confusing issue over several pages; *The World Book* presented documented facts tersely in two paragraphs. The children used both sources and required background of the sources' rhetorical and epistemological assumptions in order to comprehend what they read.

All of these language systems complicated the literacy experiences for the students. Consequently, the children experienced difficulty with text when they did not have adequate knowledge and understanding of how to use and participate with any part of the various language systems. Direct instruction, modeling, and guided practice focused upon the obvious: the outer layers of the language systems (e.g., how to find a source in the physical library, how to use a specific database). I observed little or no direct instruction, modeling, or guided practice on the inner language systems (e.g., rhetorical writing formats, including the structure, conventions, vocabulary, and background related to the text). When students struggled to know how to use these more hidden language systems, they often were unable to make meaning of the text, despite understanding the outer layers of the language system. Because they were not apprenticed in how to use many of the inner language systems, they were often unaware of any misunderstandings that related from their inexperience.

How "attending" impacted how text was used. In order to demonstrate that "attending" had an impact on knowledge and, accordingly, on how the children used text, I

re-examined the literacy portraits. Although I could have selected many examples, I return to one instance to demonstrate how the children's understandings of knowledge that developed during "attending" impacted how they used text.

With the arrival of spring weather, the children were excited to spend time out of doors. The courtyard in the middle of the school was often filled with various groups of children enjoying their lunch amid the blossoming trees and frog pond. Mrs. Sun-Ya was pleased that the next to last reading theme related to an outdoor spring sport. The publishers of the Houghton Mifflin series used baseball players as a venue for introducing the theme entitled, "Heroes".

On April 12, 2005, the children entered the library in their typical single file quiet manner to prepare for an important discussion on the thoughtful topic of heroes in today's culture. To align with the basal reader's focus on baseball players within this chapter, Mrs. Sun-Ya and Ms. Coleman planned to have the children complete a research project on baseball players to prepare for the discussion. (See Appendix E for the research handout).

In previous library sessions, the children learned about using the biography section of the library (Observation, December 9, 2004), and the World Book (Observation, October 18, 2004). Ms. Coleman reminded the children that both sources may be helpful choices for completing the handout. But on this day, the instruction and the children's "attending" focused on learning to use two new databases. In the predictable format of past sessions, Ms. Coleman introduced the new databases via a PowerPoint presentation. The children's actions for this session included 25 - 30 minutes of "attending" to the librarian and/or the PowerPoint. (See codes for 4/12 on Appendix G, H, and I.).

Immediately after the modeling and direct instruction ended, Kamia searched for a book on her research subject, Nolan Ryan. It was encouraging to see her confidence. Evidently, Kamia had experience and understanding of the online catalog language system. She easily negotiated the OPAC software program and keyed in the information necessary to locate a book on Nolan Ryan. Because she understood the importance of the call number in this language system, she jotted down the number. As early as September, Kamia told me that she knew how to use the call number and shelf charts to find books in the Dewey Decimal system. Therefore, within a few minutes, she found the book entitled, *Who is baseball's greatest pitcher?* (Kisseloff, 2003). Kamia "attended" to the library sessions; she was able to negotiate the library shelves and the online catalog. Because the children had also used composite biographies during the Pennsylvania people project, Kamia also knew how to locate the topic she wanted in the table of contents.

Kamia demonstrated that she understood the importance of finding a source. After all, Kamia and her peers, in the interview with the library model, noted that knowledge was in the sources (i.e., people, computers, books). The children believed that once they found the source, knowledge would be there, ready-made and waiting for them. They had not been taught any strategies to use to make meaning of the text. No one modeled how to read exposition, or how to analyze what the author wrote.

Kamia believed that she had found a good source; consequently she would find knowledge about Nolan Ryan's hero attributes. I revisit a scene from her literacy portrait in chapter 5 when she read "*He owed his success to the Ryan Express*" (Observation, April 12, 2005). Immediately after she read this line aloud, Kamia stood up. As she pushed the book across the table toward her friends, Kamia exclaimed, "He owns a train!" (Observation, April

12, 2005). After sharing this exciting news with her friends, Kamia wrote "has a train" under the column "Three things about this baseball player" on her handout.

In this example, there are several indicators that Kamia's understanding of knowledge developed during numerous "attending" sessions. All sessions related to locating the outer language systems, such as the Dewey Decimal system, the catalog, the databases, and the software programs. There were a number of charts in the library that explained these language systems. Any handouts that were distributed to the children focused upon the outer language systems related to finding the source or negotiating the source. Because Kamia received no instruction on other vital language systems, such as the use of metaphor in sports language, she did not liken Ryan's fast pitching to the motion of a train. Instead, she took the literal information and used it. The children were not taught strategies, such as questioning the author (McKeown et al., 1997) or reading on, to assist their comprehension. There were no charts or handouts on how to think about or analyze the text, only to access the source. In addition, none of Kamia's friends discouraged her from using the information. They did not question if the bit of information Kamia shared was worthwhile for the discussion on what makes a hero. Similar to Kucan and Beck's (1996) findings, the idea of questioning a source was not a part of their literacy practice. During direct instruction the children were not encouraged to question. Refuting, or even doubting, information was foreign and unfamiliar to the children. Although they were most often taught how to find and use the source, they were not taught how to participate or analyze the text (Luke & Freebody, 1997).

To summarize, the children developed a view of knowledge as ready-made information stored in sources as a result of "attending" during literacy events. This epistemological assumption about knowledge impacted the way the children comprehended

text. They did not question or analyze what they read. In the next section, I discuss how the students used the knowledge from their comprehension of the text in the artifacts they produced. Consequently, "attending" also had an impact on the production of artifacts.

Discussing Question Three: The Artifacts Children Produce

Heath's (1982) definition of a literacy event incorporated "production" as well as "comprehension" of print (p. 93). Therefore, I developed a subsidiary question to investigate the type of writing produced in a quality school library program.

From my literature review, I knew that a quality school library program (Lance et al., 2000b) integrated its print and technological resources with the curriculum. In answering the second subsidiary question, I found that the texts the children used were also integrated with the curriculum. Similarly, and somewhat predictably, the children produced artifacts related directly to the basal reading program because the teacher and librarian developed research projects from the themed units. As explained in chapter 4, after the completion of the first reading theme on Journeys, the children created a travel brochure of a country. After a unit of study on American Stories, the children researched and wrote a biography on a famous Pennsylvanian. During a unit on heroes, as described in the second subsidiary question, the children researched information on baseball players in order to participate in a discussion about heroes.

Once I had an understanding of the types of artifacts, I considered how the children produced the artifacts. In discussing the findings, I present two issues. In the first section, I describe how the children disregarded certain literacy experiences within literacy events as they produced their artifacts. In the second section, I discuss how the children's comprehension impacted the production of artifacts.

How the children disregarded literacy experiences. When considering the production of artifacts, I knew only the beginning and ending of the process. My observations in the school library allowed me to gain understanding about the early research and note taking process. Interviews provided opportunities to discuss the children's completed work. As I considered the artifacts, I realized that I had a limited view of the projects because I was not present to observe artifact production.

One evening as I compared the note taking artifacts to the final project artifacts, I noticed that most children transferred very little of their research from the library to their production of artifacts. In the literacy portraits, I presented several of the children's note taking artifacts. (See Figures 8, 10, 11, and 12 in chapter 5.) Other than in Jamal's biography (See Figure 9), none of the other children's notes appears in the final artifact. I considered the possibility that the children may have continued to research on their own after the library session. Perhaps later they determined that their original information was not as useful and eliminated it from the final artifact. I knew that Ms. Coleman considered the practice segment of the library session vital to the success of the library program. But I less certain about how she regarded the relationship of the children's literacy experiences in the library to the final artifact production. Nor was I certain why there was such a disparity between the children's notes and their final artifacts.

In our initial meeting, Ms. Coleman maintained that she "always had practice" (Interview, May 25, 2004). My observations validated her comment. However, when I interviewed the children, I found in most cases the children isolated the practices from the library session. Often they did not reflect, reread, or even keep their work after they left the library. In several cases, had I not made copies of their notes, there would be no evidence of

work they completed during the practice segment in the library. More surprising was how the children disregarded certain literacy experiences in the production of their artifacts.

In Elizabeth's literacy portrait as described in chapter 5, I related the clearest example of this issue. Elizabeth compiled notes on Mary Cassatt in her own words, and engaged in a spirited conversation with Sofia. I heard their animated voices as they compared and contrasted the art of Andrew Wythe and Mary Cassatt. Yet evidence of these rich literacy experiences was absent from Elizabeth's biographical report on Mary Cassatt.

When I showed Elizabeth her notes from the library practice session, she stared at the paper as if she were seeing it for the first time. She admitted that she "forgot" about the work she completed in the library. From her bibliography and interview I learned that once home with her supportive family, Elizabeth did not rely on any of the websites or information on the language systems she learned in library sessions. In addition, she disregarded the literacy experience from the library where she took notes and talked about her topic. Instead, she, with her mother's help, depended on information from the Google search engine and their home computer. In the end, her artifact appeared to be copied from the source. (See Figure 13.) When asked about how she decided what to include in her biography report, Elizabeth said, "It told me where she lived, where she was born, and, um, if she had a husband." I questioned Elizabeth to understand what "it" was and how "it told" her information. She replied, "You type it and then it just gave us lots of paragraphs and we took some things out" (Interview, March 3, 2005). Similarly, while completing the travel brochure artifact, Elizabeth indicated that her "dad had a book at home. It was a big humongous book. We just wrote and we looked some facts up" (Interview, October 26, 2004). Knowledge was in the

source and Elizabeth believed her role in this literacy experience was to take "some things" or "some facts" out to place in her artifact.

When I reviewed the instruction and handout from the library session, I found that neither related to strategies that would assist the children in reading the source (Block, 1993; Guthrie et al., 1996; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995), nor to issues related to the rhetorical structure of the text (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998), or ways to question the information presented (Luke & Freebody, 1997). The children were not apprenticed during the direct instruction segment in how to use critically thinking to determine if a source were worthwhile as well as helpful. They were not provided with instruction on how to incorporate the notes they gathered in their report. During direct instruction, they learned that finding information mattered. Consequently, at home, alone or with their parents, they used whatever resources were available to find information.

I conclude this section by reviewing what I learned from Elizabeth. Even though Elizabeth spent substantial time working through the text on Mary Cassatt, and composed notes in her own words in order to understand Cassatt's life, she disregarded these important literacy experiences. I argue that she "forgot" her notes because she was not apprenticed in learning *about* language (Halliday, 1980) Thus, she did not know how to integrate the reflective notes she compiled into her artifact. Elizabeth also disregarded the lively and literate conversation she shared with Sofia. Learning *through* language (Halliday, 1980) was not modeled or supported as another way of making meaning. Therefore without apprenticeship, Elizabeth did not incorporate what she learned from her notes or her oral conversation into her biographical report. By disregarding these literacy experiences, Elizabeth relied upon information copied from a source to produce her artifact.

How comprehension of text impacted artifacts. In the production of the artifacts in this quality school library, reading was of utmost importance. Because the children researched topics prior to writing the artifact, their ability to make meaning from the sources impacted the production of the artifact. Caitlin's literacy portrait presents the most poignant example for this part of the discussion.

Long after writing Caitlin's literacy portrait and my year of data collection ended, I remained fascinated by her biography artifact. Despite scoring in the 98th percentile in the Terra Nova reading test earlier in the year and being a prolific reader, Caitlin appeared not to comprehend Barton's (1983) explanation of the story of John Harris and the Indians. As I described earlier, Barton presented several versions of the story and in between each presentation, he explained who provided the retelling and why it is most likely a fabricated, or at minimum exaggerated, tale. Here was a conundrum: why was a bright, capable, and invested reader unable to comprehend this text?

I no longer had access to Caitlin to question her on this issue; therefore, I considered possible explanations. I began with the obvious. Given Caitlin's pleasure and interest in listening, reading, and writing stories, it was reasonable that, even if she had been aware of the fallacies in the John Harris story, she loved the story. The incident described by Harris's family members had survived generations of renditions, most likely because it *was* a good story, whether it was true or not. Caitlin, with her interest in writing, knew the elements of a good story. She recognized that retelling this story would add interest to her biography. Was it possible that Caitlin purposefully used this episode simply to tell a good story and ignored Barton's cautions about the tale?

Next, I considered an alternate explanation. Caitlin was a talented writer, able to catch the reader's attention. She expressed a desire to become a writer in the future. Writing the biography of John Harris in first person was a thoughtful decision. Caitlin made a connection with her audience in the opening lines of her biography with the words, "Well, hello there, I was just straightening my shelves to run a trading post here on the edge of the Susquehanna River" (Caitlin's artifact, 2005). Later in the biography, she selected intimate family-like language to lead into the story about John Harris and the Indian with the words, "Did I tell you about the time . . ." (Caitlin's Biography Artifact, 2005). Caitlin was aware of the power of words and how to attract a reader's attention to a good story. Was it possible that she selected story-telling language to reinforce what she read in the Barton text? Did she recognize that she could only tell this story in a folklore manner? Did she purposefully avoid expository rhetoric because she knew the story lacked veracity?

As I attempted to gain perspective, I returned to the day when the artifact was introduced to the children. Having concluded a unit on American Stories, the children were going to write a biography. Because the fourth grade curriculum also focused on state history, Mrs. Sun-Ya decided that the children would write about famous Pennsylvanians. (See Appendix C.) When the children arrived on the morning of December 9, 2004, they each had a piece of paper indicating the Pennsylvania person they were researching. On the tables, Ms. Coleman had placed a hand-out for each child entitled, Steps to Locate Information on your Pennsylvania Person". (See Appendix D.)

Ms. Coleman began the lesson by exclaiming, "I need your attention! Do we have a lot to do in this class today? Yes, we do! Let's talk about the steps" (Observation, December 9, 2004). Ms. Coleman reviewed each step for researching the biography subjects by

modeling her own research using Jimmy Stewart as her Pennsylvania person. At the conclusion of the modeling and instructional input segment, Ms. Coleman asked Mrs. Sun-Ya if the children required multiple sources. Mrs. Sun-Ya indicated that as long as the children found one resource on this day, she would be pleased.

Observing Caitlin on that day I noticed that she, as in previous days, followed directions. She used the hand-out and moved through the steps. When I stopped by her computer, Caitlin was researching John Harris on the Pennsylvania People website that Ms. Coleman had constructed for the fourth graders. Although Caitlin had located some information, she told me that she was going to go to the public library over the weekend to find more on John Harris. Caitlin was disappointed that much of the information related to the city of Harrisburg, not to John Harris. To write a biography on John Harris, she noted that this information was not helpful. Despite the limited information, Caitlin requested permission to print from the site. As she waited at the printer, she told me that she had Internet Explorer at home, and she intended to use that in addition to going to the public library.

By recapping Caitlin's actions during the library session, I noted that when the library session ended, Caitlin remained unschooled in how to read historical texts. She had received instruction on how to move through five steps to locate sources. There was no instruction on making meaning of the sources. Consequently once Caitlin located the Barton text and the chapter on John Harris, she remained unable to analyze the veracity of the powerful words in the explanation.

In the discussion of subsidiary question two earlier in this chapter, I determined that the children developed a view of knowledge as ready-made information stored in sources as a

result of "attending" during literacy events. This epistemological assumption about knowledge impacted the way the children comprehended text. They did not question or analyze what they read. In this section, I built on this concept to demonstrate that the students used the knowledge from their comprehension of the text in the artifacts they produced. Consequently, "attending" also had an impact on the production of artifacts. The instruction and modeling during "attending" did not reflect any of the issues that related to comprehending the text. The steps, the practice, the purpose of the library session remained associated with the outer language systems, not with comprehending the text. All of the children were using sources (print or technological) that involved exposition and historical writing. Yet they received no instruction or apprenticeship in how to comprehend the rhetoric or the genre.

Caitlin's biography exemplifies the kinds of writing the children completed during this one year in a quality school library. But it also suggests the kinds of literacy experiences that were valued. Accessing, not comprehending, mattered. In the process, Caitlin produced an artifact with inaccurate information. Neither the librarian nor teacher knew what occurred. Caitlin was a good writer and a prized reader. Her error went unnoticed. I presume that Caitlin received a high grade for her work. Neither the librarian nor the teacher detected her inaccurate reading of a source.

When literacy is limited to learning language systems, such as the overt actions of "finding a source", the more intricate parts of literacy are ignored. The children are left on their own to learn *about* language and *through* language. Despite being the most capable reader in the class, Caitlin was unable to accomplish this kind of literacy experience on her own.

Discussing Question Four: The Role of Social Interaction

To understand the role of social interaction in the children's interpretive processes during literacy events, I first investigated how social interaction looked in this quality school library. After describing the role of social interaction in the library, I focus upon its impact in the interpretive process.

Understanding social interaction in a quality school library. Social interaction played a role in almost all literacy events as evidence in Table 13. It was, however, the most idiosyncratic aspect of the school library. The level of social interaction ranged from Ian, who was mostly isolated during literacy events to Jamal, who had much social capital and interaction with others.

The library time was a break from the traditional class time, a change of pace. By its nature, the library supported social interaction. In addition, the children believed that the library was a place where they could talk to their friends (Group Interview, May 3, 2005). The physical space of the library itself had importance to the children, not simply for access to information, or support for their learning. They enjoyed being with their friends as they wandered together through the aisles, shared books at the tables, or worked at the computers.

The librarian and library aide worked to make the library welcoming to the children through monthly research contests, displays of new books, and computer games. Although I was not at the school all day, the six participants from my study conversed with me about their trips to the library at recess time and before school. In addition, both Ms. Coleman and Ms. Craybill were gracious and kind to the children. I cannot recall any incident where either adult treated a child unfairly. Their positive attitude and the open environment helped to ensure social interaction.

During the year I observed this library, I also prepared biweekly lunches for the teacher and librarian. Ms. Coleman and I always had lunch in the back corner of the library. Because the library was always open, students were in the library as we were having our meal and conversation. On several occasions, as I set up the luncheon, students from Mrs. Sun-Ya's class chose to come to the library in lieu of recess. Although many times the students were not participants in my study, they recognized me and expressed surprise at seeing me in the library outside of their scheduled library time. Inevitably, the children offered information on why they were in the library: to select or return a book, play a computer game, or to participate in the monthly research challenge. I cannot recollect any time a child from Mrs. Sun-Ya's class arrived in the library alone. I surmised that many times the children came to library to accompany a friend, not necessarily for their own purposes.

As Lensmire (1994) indicated, children keep track of each other. This was made clear in the final interview with the library model. I asked each child to set up the model library with the miniature figures as it would appear on a typical day. Each child accomplished the task easily and quickly. The children were able to defend why they placed individual children in particular areas of the library as well. I was surprised when the six children individually displayed almost identical set-ups with the models. In the corporate interview, after the children jointly set up the figures in the library model, they offered commentaries. I present a few of their remarks to represent the children's awareness of each other:

> Kamia : (Placing her laminated figure by the reference books along
> with three other friends) "That's where we talk."

> Jamal: (Pointing to the figures of Alex and Demont next to the *Dear America* biographical war journals) They usually look here. Right, Demont? (Demont nods, then smiles at Jamal.)
>
> Elizabeth: Sofia is usually there with the chapter books and (after a dramatic pause) . . . you know it, Madison! (Laughter from the others.)
>
> Demont: Martin is by the big stuffed dog. He likes that big dog and the Harry Potter books and the Unfortunate Events. He's read them all! (Nods from the others.)
>
> Caitlin: Harriet likes to stand by the check out desk because she likes to watch Ms. Craybill do stuff, and Esther likes to watch people go by the window. Elizabeth's doing a Reading Counts quiz at the computer. (Elizabeth gives Caitlin a wide smile.)
>
> Ian: I'm on the floor next to the magazines.

Although some of the comments are unrelated to literacy, most provide insights into various literacy practices. As noted in their literacy portraits, Kamia desired connections with others, Demont gravitated to the war biographies with his friend Alex, and Elizabeth enjoyed taking Reading Counts quizzes. Ian identified only what he was doing and his preference for National Geographic magazines. His comment reinforced his isolation and awareness of himself, not others. Although I did not observe Martin as a participant in my study, I believe the children when they identified Martin as a fan of Harry Potter and Lemony Snickets.

When I shared this information with Ms. Coleman, she was amused. By law, she cannot provide information on what books a child checks out. Once a child returns a book,

the computer software program erases all evidence of that transaction. She found great irony in the fact that the children demonstrated astute abilities at keeping track of each others' book choices simply by observing one another.

Understanding social interaction in the interpretive processes. Social interaction was an ordinary occurrence in the school library, but not during direct instruction. "Attending" was a solitary experience, despite the whole class presentations. As noted earlier, attending occurred 58% of the time spent in the library. However, once the direct instruction segment ended, social interaction was the norm. Children typically worked in dyads at the computer, selected books with other friends, and talked as they waited to check out their materials.

To understand how social interaction affected the interpretive processes, I returned to the transcribed observations. As Dyson (2003) noted, social participation, more than any other area, motivates children in the production of artifacts. For example, almost all of the children named the biography artifact as their best work. This was the only artifact that was written to perform in front of the class. In addition, the students created puppets to use when they presented their artifact.

Although I found descriptions of social interaction scattered throughout the transcripts, there were few that demonstrated social interaction's role in the interpretive processes. When I did locate evidence that social interaction had a role in the interpretive processes, the observations were related to the production of artifacts. In the first example, I discuss how social interaction impacted Jamal's interpretive processes while writing his biography on Benjamin Rush.

As described in his literacy portrait, Jamal began researching information by locating a book that contained multiple stories about the 56 signers of the Declaration of

Independence. As he read the text, he was confused by two words: "occupation" and "physician". Using a strategy of reading on, Jamal learned that Rush was a doctor and had studied medicine. Because Jamal knew that he was going to share his artifact in front of his classmates, he could have used "doctor" in his biography so that the children would understand. Instead, Jamal wrote, "Ever since he was a little kid, Benjamin Rush wanted to be a physician (a doctor)" in his report.

When asked about the decision to place doctor in parentheses after the word "physician", Jamal indicated that most of the children in his class knew the term "doctor". Therefore when he decided to use the new vocabulary word he just learned, he also decided to "put it [doctor] there so they would know the word" (February 8, 2005). In his interpretive process of writing the artifact, Jamal considered the social interaction of his audience when he would read the report out loud to the class. The children respected Jamal. He was in the gifted reading and math programs. Teachers and the librarian liked him and considered him to be a smart and diligent student. Because he had to read his artifact to his classmates, Jamal considered the social interaction as he interpreted and made choices about his writing.

However, even if a social interaction aided in the interpretive process, not every child made the same decisions as Jamal. In other situations, social interaction impacted the interpretive process, but did not come full circle and appear in the actual artifacts. Earlier I discussed Elizabeth's work on her biography artifact about Mary Cassatt. I return to this example in this section because it draws a direct contrast to how Jamal used social interaction in the interpretive process.

During the practice segment of the library session, the children usually had freedom to move about the library. On the day the children researched for their biographies, Elizabeth,

like Jamal, initially chose to work alone as she gathered notes from her source. Afterwards, Elizabeth gathered her book and notes, and moved to sit across from Sofia who was researching Andrew Wythe. Elizabeth later indicated that she wanted to talk with Sofia because no one else in the class had an artist. Elizabeth valued the social interaction with someone who was doing similar research. Facing one another, the girls placed their books in between them on the table so that they could see and refer to both books. At times, Elizabeth flipped comfortably through Sofia's book and vice versa. Their interactions were casual, but the conversation was fixed upon the artists. Later Elizabeth also noted that Sofia helped her think about how to present the puppetry portion of the project.

The children had no awareness, much less practice, in keeping notes about literacy conversations. As noted in the first subsidiary question, the children viewed knowledge as ready-made and waiting for them in a source (electronic, print, or human adult authority). They did not consider themselves, as children, to be sources of knowledge. The children experienced making meaning of what was found in sources naturally, but not through instruction. For example, no one told Elizabeth to sit with Sofia and talk about the artists. But the girls gravitated to each other in a natural bond of conversation about a common topic. Because this type of literacy knowledge was not modeled or encouraged, Elizabeth did not take notes on her conversation with Sofia even though she engaged in the interpretive process through this social interaction.

Had Elizabeth taken notes, it is likely that she would not have included them in the interpretive process of writing her artifact. She had not included the notes she took from her book source. As we reviewed her artifact together, I asked Elizabeth to name the sources in the order that helped her to gain knowledge for her biography. I wrote each one on a post-it

as she named them. Then I asked if she would organize the sources from the one which provided the most knowledge to the least. After a few moments, Elizabeth arranged the post-its in the following order: Internet website, book, Mom, Mrs. Sun-Ya, Ms. Coleman, and Sofia. She paused and then added one last post-it with her own name on it to the very bottom of the list. I asked Elizabeth why she added herself to the list. Elizabeth was quick to defend her decision by stating, "I remembered a lot of it. I had it in my head" (Interview, March 3, 20005).

Social interaction had a role in the children's experiences, but it did not play a role in their interpretive process. The children were quiet and passive during "attending". When the direct instruction segment ended, the children appreciated and enjoyed conversations with their peers. Social interaction was obvious. However, the children viewed social interaction as a pleasurable experience, not as a part of literacy. They were not apprenticed in how to use social interaction in the interpretive process. When a student did use the role of social interaction in the production of artifacts, it was a natural occurrence that was generated by the child, not by the teacher or librarian.

Conclusions on the Findings Related to the Four Questions

The setting for this study aligned with the research on quality school libraries (Lance et al., 2000b) and the principles espoused by the ALA (1998). Literacy events were ubiquitous, but literacy was limited. The children's literacy experiences and understandings were restricted to learning language systems, primarily how to access sources. This was evident in the lessons taught, the charts around the room, the hand-outs the children received, and the way the children comprehended text and produced artifacts.

The emphasis on learning language systems present in the library (e.g., classification of books via Dewey Decimal systems, operating the databases) denied the children apprenticeship in learning *about* language and learning *through* language (Halliday, 1980). In a recent review of the literature on marginalized adolescent readers, Franzak (2006) noted that "comprehension is context specific and that inherent in any skilled readers' comprehension of text is attention to the sociocultural context of the reading act" (p. 217). I presented several examples where children were not apprenticed into the sociocultural context of reading. Caitlin did not receive instruction, strategies, or practice in reading the expository writing of historians and thus, added unknowingly an inaccurate section to her artifact. Kamia did not receive instruction, strategies, or practice in the vocabulary embedded in the discourse of the baseball community, thus she did not comprehend the metaphor in her source. Consequently, she accepted an inaccurate understanding of the text. Elizabeth did not receive instruction, strategies, or practice in using social interactions in the interpretive process or how to use notes. Therefore, Elizabeth copied from an electronic source to compose her final artifact. She did not use the knowledge she gained through her own literacy practices of note taking and conversation.

The discussion of the four subsidiary questions in this study presented an overall contradiction. This setting was a quality school library program as defined by the research. Within this quality school library program, literacy events were ubiquitous. Upon a close and lengthy investigation, *literacy*, as it was defined for this study using sociocultural perspective (Gee, 1997, Halliday, 1978, 1980; Luke & Freebody, 1997), was absent from most literacy events that the children experienced. In the next section, I present my explanation of this paradox.

Explaining the Paradox

As other ethnographers have done, I set out "to make the exotic familiar, and, in doing so, to make the familiar exotic" (Toban, 2005, p. 92). During one year of data collection, I discovered that the familiar, and seemingly prosaic, school library was exotic and quite surprising.

The first day I entered the school library, I was aware of real, concrete space. Yet I knew immediately that the setting for my study existed well beyond the obvious, physical borders. As a reading researcher, I was not surprised that the children's literacy experiences were mediated not only by tangible materials and familiar people, but also by virtual materials and unknown, invisible people. I knew that the school library, like an ocean, only appeared to have a horizon. The borders expanded well beyond the obvious. However, it was not in the expansiveness of the library that I found the most surprises. It was beneath the surface. Anyone who entered the school library would see what appeared to be literacy in action: children reading, writing, computing, searching for books, researching, talking with each other, or listening to the librarian's instructions. After one year of close investigation, I discovered a paradox: In this quality school library program, literacy events were ubiquitous, but literacy was rare. To clarify, the criterion established by the school library discourse community for a quality program did not align with a quality literacy environment as established by the literacy discourse community.

This contradiction is not merely an interesting phenomenon; it is a substantive issue worthy of discussion. Through this study, I learned that children, regardless of their reading ability, reading experiences, gender, or race, need apprenticeship in learning language, learning *about* language, and learning *through* language. If children's total language needs

are not met as they experience literacy events in the school library, then the children will be

not be prepared to use and participate with the text, as well as analyze the text. They will

regard literacy as the ability to locate a source and lift information from it. They will come to

believe, as the children in this study did, that knowledge exists outside of their own minds:

ready-made and waiting to be found.

To understand how a school library could be labeled as an ideal literacy environment

from one perspective and not from another, I present a two-fold explanation. I begin by

noting differences in the school library discourse community and literacy discourse

community which influences teacher education programs. These differences explain part of

the paradox. Secondly, I explain how the expanding and evolving definition of literacy

makes determining an ideal literacy environment problematic regardless of the discourse

communities' perspectives.

Different Discourse Communities

As noted in chapter 1, Swales (1990) conceptualized a discourse community through

six characteristics. I will discuss two that are pertinent to this explanation. First, members of

a discourse community typically move from novice to expert and have a "suitable degree of

relevant content and discoursal expertise" (p. 27). Second, discourse communities have

"specific lexis" (p. 26) that aligns with the professional program or content. Both

characteristics will be used to show how the two discourse communities not only have

differences in the way they discuss literacy in their preparation programs, but how they are

also professionally isolated from one another. I argue that the differences in the way literacy

is perceived and discussed, preparation programs, and isolation lead to different

interpretations of what constitutes a quality literacy environment.

Content and discoursal expertise. I begin my quest to understand the two discourse communities by analyzing the contents of two journals: *The School Library Journal* (*SLJ*) and *The Reading Teacher.* Both are practitioners' journals, and represent the content and expertise expected for professionals in their respective fields.

SLJ is a peer reviewed journal that provides librarians with "indispensable information needed to integrate libraries into the school curriculum, become leaders in the areas of technology, reading, and information literacy, and create high-quality collections for children and young adults" (School Library Journal Online, 2006, ¶ 1). Part of the mission of *SLJ* is to

> help librarians partner with teachers to design worthy learning experiences, identifying quality curricular materials and related resources, and guiding school communities in effective instructional strategies that combine traditional and emerging technologies that inspire student achievement (*School Library Journal*, 2006, Learn about our history, ¶ 4).

The editors of the *SLJ* mentioned both reading and instructional strategies. As I analyzed the contents of the June, 2006 issue of *SLJ,* I found that the journal did address reading issues. For example, in the features for June, there were two articles related to reading: a cover story on author Jacqueline Woodson and an article on electronic games for teens. Although both issues relate to reading, neither addressed instruction or strategies. The remaining feature articles in this issue related to the library field more specifically: the *SLJ*'s 2006 Technology Survey, results of a coast-to-coast survey of certification standards, news stories about libraries, censorship issues, and a professional conference. Within the regular features, there were two sections. One section within the journal was entitled "Tech

Knowledge" and included four columns on various technology trends. Only one trend included reading. The author, Jeffrey Hastings, a school librarian, provided a description about a new reading software program, LeapTrack Reading Pro. His review focused upon the workings of the software program, not the worthiness of the reading instruction. He discussed components of the program like the lap top feature, the stylus pen, and the audio quality. He did not review the quality of the reading activities or the passages included in the program. His only comment about the reading materials was that the program included "high-interest nonfiction articles and related skill cards" (Hasting, 2006, p. 25).

Other recurring columns in *SLJ* include the following: "Editorial", "Carrie on Copyright", "What Works", "Teenage Riot", "Consider the Source", "Nonfiction Booktalker", "Up for Discussion", and "Under Cover". These columns reported information on areas such as copyright issues, reviews of books and software, and a rebuttal to a recent NEA survey that indicated middle school children do not read much nonfiction. In summary, the articles in the SLJ related marginally to reading, but none included instructional information, reading research, or strategies for readers.

To compare the two discourse communities' content and discourse expertise, I examined the May, 2006 issue of *The Reading Teacher.* Like *SLJ, The Reading Teacher* is a peer reviewed journal. It includes

> a host of practical, hands-on ideas for the classroom, each one based on sound
> theory. Regular columns on such topics as struggling readers, family literacy, urban
> education, and technology give you insight on important issues in literacy teaching
> and learning. Rounding things out are reviews of children's books and professional
> materials (Reading Teacher Online, 2006, More about RT, ¶ 1).

Analyzing the feature articles that appeared in May, 2006 issue of *The Reading Teacher*, I found six articles. Two related specifically to reading comprehension. In one, Liang and Dole (2006) outlined a comprehension framework to help with the teaching of reading comprehension. In the other, Smith (2006) presented a comprehension strategy using think-alouds. The remaining feature articles focused upon other literacy-related aspects: "writing-to-learn across disciplines to foster critical thinking" (Gammill, 2006, p. 754), strategies for selecting literature for English learners (Vardell, Hadaway, & Young, 2006), puppets to "support literacy instruction in the content areas" (Peck & Virkler, 2006, p. 786), and ways to "implement a family literacy support program in a low-income neighborhood" (Waldbart, Meyers, & Meyers, 2006, p. 774).

Like *SLJ*, *The Reading Teacher* also has recurring columns. These columns were "Teaching Tips", "Instructional and Professional Material Reviews", and "Children's Books". Only one of the recurring columns related to technology. In this issue's column, Labbo (2006) reviewed five internet sites that were "too good to miss" (p. 810). In the prelude to the five sites, Labbo noted the importance of thinking about the accessibility of an Internet site for young children. She reviewed some of the recent research that supports the use of electronic stories and websites for literacy development in the area of vocabulary, sight words, concepts about print, as well as "aesthetic and cognitive engagement" (p. 810). Unlike Hastings' (2006) review in *SLJ*, Labbo discussed literacy aspects, as well as the technological issues. For example, Labbo noted that one site, entitled "The Biography Maker", assisted students in "asking questions . . . synthesizing information", as well as "providing a link to information on the six traits of effective writing" (p. 811). Like Hastings,

Labbo discussed the technological aspects, such as the need for multimedia tools for some sites to function properly.

By reviewing two journals with similar purposes from differing discourse communities, I learned that there was little overlap. *SLJ* focused primarily on technology, literature and professional aspects of librarianship. *The Reading Teacher*, like its name, reflected the needs of reading teachers. It included research-based strategies, teaching ideas, and materials. There were two obvious differences in the journals. One was the way the authors within each journal reviewed technological resources. *SLJ* focused almost solely upon the technological issues, whereas *The Reading Teacher* embraced the literacy component as well as the technological demands. The other major difference was that the authors of articles that appear in *The Reading Teacher* were much more explicit about citing research to support their ideas. Although the analysis of the journals implied that these two discourse communities were widely separated in their discoursal expertise, I was pleased to find an advertisement for the International Reading Association's Convention listed among library conferences in a recent issue of *SLJ* (School Library Journal, February 2006, p. 13). I found no library conferences advertised in *The Reading Teacher.*

Like the journals, the academic preparation of school librarians was not part of my original research agenda. But I was interested in investigating the preparation of school librarians in order to understand the paradox of the quality library setting. I looked primarily at the expertise expected within the discourse community.

School librarian preparation programs and teacher education preparation programs have similarities, but there are also important differences. I share the differences that are

most noteworthy and have implications for understanding how my study's setting could be perceived as quality by one discourse community, but not by the other.

In a recent survey of state-by-state certification standards, Thomas (2006) noted that over half of the states did not require a school librarian to hold a teaching certificate, and 65% of states did not require a school librarian to have any teaching experience. In their call to action, Mulvaney and O'Connor (2006) claimed that education for librarianship is in crisis. They indicated that "one of the root causes of these tensions is the lack of a commonly perceived core both in library school curricula and in libraries" (p. 38). Without dialogue across discourse communities, Mulvaney, O'Connor, and others who propose changes in the library school curricula, may succeed in achieving commonality in library programs, but miss articulating a shared vision of literacy with the other discourse community that shares the library space.

Similarly, the literacy discourse community has not embraced the expertise of the school library discourse community. Dreher and Asselin (2003) reported that despite a request from the ALA's Presidential Committee on Information Literacy, the role of the school library has not been added to most teacher education programs.

Just as the preparation programs do not communicate and embrace each other, teachers and school librarians within the school are, for the most part, isolated in their own discourse communities. Whelan (2003) found only 15 percent of elementary school teachers collaborate with school librarians in teaching children literacy as it related to finding and using information. Whelan attempted to explain the dilemma by citing Frances Roscello, former president of the American Association of School Librarians (AASL), who placed part of the responsibility for the issue on teachers who hold a negative view of librarian, and a

singular focus on teaching reading. However, Roscello cited no research to support his claim, and I found no data on why teachers were reluctant to collaborate with school librarians. Is it possible that the differences in terminology may also inhibit collaborative efforts? In the next section, I explain how difference in the discourse communities' use of language may isolate the two groups.

Specific lexis. As Swales noted, discourse communities have "specific lexis" (1990, p. 26) that align with the professional program or content. Because of the unique lexis of their discourse communities, teachers and school librarians do not have the same professional language. Kenneth Burke (1966) noted that human understandings are mediated by terminology and, therefore, create "terministic screens" that "[direct] attention to one field rather than another" (p. 50). To explicate this issue, I highlight terms from each discourse community that have similar meanings but are not used across discourse communities: information literacy and critical literacy.

"Information literacy" is a familiar term within the school library discourse community. "Information literacy" is defined by the ALA (2003) as "the set of skills needed to find, retrieve, analyze, and use information." Shenk (1997), an emeritus professor from Columbia University, outlined the importance of information literacy by introducing "data smog" as a term to describe overabundance of information available today. He articulated a careful warning about the dangers associated with not equipping all members of society with information literacy. He cautioned that when speed is favored over content or image over meaning, then the reader will only achieve instant and, most likely, flawed information. The cause, he asserted, is not necessarily the data smog, but rather a lack of careful deliberation

of how to find, retrieve, analyze, and use information. Although Shenk's admonition related to data within technology, it is applicable to any kind of information seeking.

On a positive note, a *sense* of information literacy has appeared in the literacy-related writings of the reading and teacher educators' research communities (e.g., Fehring & Green, 2001; Labbo & Reinking, 1999; Muspratt, Freebody, & Luke, 1996), but the actual term is not typically used. Some school librarians have taken responsibility for this deficit because they have not used the term "information literacy" with their faculty and administration; others contend that it is an "amorphous phrase that's difficult to grasp" (Whelan, 2003, p. 51). The notion that information must be found, retrieved, and analyzed before using seems universal, and not "difficult to grasp". It is more likely that the term "information literacy", not the meaning, is uncommon outside of the library discourse community. As Swales (1990) noted, any discourse community may establish a term, and exercise authority over the term. But, he warned, authority of the term's meaning is limited to that particular community unless it is understood by other discourse communities.

Like the school library community, the International Reading Association (IRA) uses terminology and statements that create "terministic screens" (Burke, 1966) when discussing literacy. For example, in their position paper entitled, "Integrating Literacy and Technology in the Curriculum" (International Reading Association, 2001), the IRA did not use the term "information literacy" (ALA, 2003) nor did they mention school librarians as partners or professionals in their explanation of how to advance and integrate literacy and technology (ALA, 1998; Lance et al., 2000b). The IRA did provide specific recommendations for teachers, parents, teacher educators, school administrators, policy makers, and researchers. There was no mention of school librarians. Further, the IRA recognized that twenty-first

century students, upon graduation, will spend most of their time reading and writing with information and communication technology (ICT). They also called for assessment practices that address new literacies. Embedded within the position paper was the IRA's endorsement for teaching critical literacy.

The term "critical literacy" has long roots in the literacy community (Jongsma, 1991) but appeared only recently in the April, 2006 edition of *SLJ* (DeVoogd, 2006). DeVoogd did not provide references for the term critical literacy and embedded it within the notion of "questioning authority" (p. 48). I found additional evidence that the term "critical literacy" was just emerging in the librarian discourse community by locating a letter to the editor in the August, 2006 edition of *SLJ*. Elizabeth Gray, a youth service and outreach librarian, thanked the editors for introducing her to the term "critical literacy", and Gray noted she was interested "in learning more about how to apply this concept" (p.13).

Conversely, as early as 1991, the literacy discourse community was using the term "critical literacy" with such regularity that Jongsma (1991) sought a thorough understanding of what was meant by this pervasive term. To clarify the meaning of "critical literacy" for classroom teachers, reading specialists, and reading researchers, Jongsma asked two highly regarded literacy researchers to offer a definition. According to Patrick Shannon, Professor of Education at Penn State University, critical literacy helps readers to use the question, "Why are things the way they are?" as a weapon and a tool (p. 518). Shannon argued that critical literacy is beyond decoding because it involves understanding not only one's self, but also the world. Within Shannon's definition is the notion of social action and what he called a "hopeful force with which we can build a better, more just future" (p. 519). Allan Luke, from James Cook University in North Queensland, Australia concurred with Shannon and

added that critical literacy cannot be prescribed, but he noted that it involves students becoming "active critics of cultural discourse and text" (p. 519). Critical literacy, therefore, includes opportunities to analyze text.

In sum, critical literacy represents a stance that enables readers to consider text, not simply at face value, but through historical, cultural, and political lenses. I argue that critical literacy, a term popular within the literacy discourse community, can be likened to "information literacy" a term popular among the school library discourse community. Information literacy refers to the ability to "find, retrieve, analyze, and use information" (ALA, 2003). If Shenk's (1997) data smog were expanded to include information shrouded in historical, cultural, or political views, then the two terms (i.e., information literacy and critical literacy) could be parallel ideas.

I am not arguing that the terms are synonymous. However, they do evolve from a similar epistemological mind set where knowledge is not viewed as static, ready made information, but rather knowledge is viewed as the process and results of analyzing and using the information. Recently, I was encouraged to locate the term "critical information literacy" in an article from a recent edition of *Libraries and the Academy*, a journal directed toward research in higher education. In her article, Simmons (2005) indicated that there are a "handful of scholars – a few literacy researchers and a few librarians – beginning a conversation about critical information literacy" (p. 300). Simmons called this a "deliberate movement to extend information literacy further than the acquisition of the research skills of finding and evaluating information" (p. 300). These discussions are in the early stages but indicate a hopeful change in the way two discourse communities communicate.

However, if discoursal expertise and specific lexis currently divide discourse communities, then each community would have different visions of an ideal literacy environment. Yet this is not the only explanation for the contradiction I discovered. Even if the differences in the discourse community were resolved, there remains a larger issue. Establishing the criteria for an ideal literacy environment presumes that there is a definition for literacy. The literacy discourse community has noted for some time that defining literacy is a work in progress.

The Expanding and Evolving Definition of Literacy

Like the school library, literacy in the twenty-first century is both familiar and exotic. Although the meaning of literacy has altered over time (Venezky, 1990), it is only recently that the term itself metamorphosed. In order to include the changing resources and purpose of literacy in the new millennium, the New London Group (1996) coined the term "multiliteracies" (p.62). Although instituting the term "multiliteracies" at the end of the twentieth century represented a change in thinking, other views of literacy and approaches to knowledge continue to be "seriously challenged . . . by the intense digitization of daily life" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003, p.155). As literacy resources proliferate, there are implications.

In order to define literacy and acknowledge the growing number of resources, many members of the literacy discourse community have taken on a sociocultural view. Those espousing a sociocultural view of literacy, like Lankshear and Knobel (2003), believe that the ability to access, mediate, analyze, and refute text is embodied within the other social practices that involve talk and interaction, as well as the use of tools and spaces. In so doing, these who embrace a sociocultural view of literacy understand that all literacy is situated in social and cultural environments. Therefore literacy can never be contained in a definition.

Given the complications of defining literacy, politicians, many educators, and other members of society have avoided grappling with a literacy definition. Instead, they employ standardized tests, which do not reflect the burgeoning new literacy resources, as a way to determine literacy. If children achieve a particular, pre-determined score, then literacy has been reached. Literacy is easier, and certainly less messy, when it is reduced to a score on a test.

With this notion firmly in place, it also becomes much easier to determine an ideal literacy environment by aligning reading scores to particular, countable, and obvious items within a literacy environment (e.g., the number of computers, books, databases available). Because the standardized test drives the curriculum, resources are expected to reflect the curriculum as well. This tidy cycle of input – output is far less complicated than the ongoing scholarly discussions happening in the literacy discourse community. Because literacy is situated in social and cultural environments, it cannot be reduced to a one dimensional definition. Instead, literacy must keep pace with the evolution of resources and needs of society.

Summary

In the research about school libraries (Lance et al. 2000a, 2000b; Lance et al., 1993) the findings focused upon resources and their relationship to reading scores. In their state-wide study of Pennsylvania libraries, Lance et al. (2000b) did not use individual students' reading achievement scores; the researchers used an average of all fifth grade students' scores on the reading component of the PSSA for each school that participated in the study. The results indicated that a particular blend of resources (human, print, and technological)

predicted higher reading achievement scores. Although my intention was not to negate Lance's findings, I did find a paradox.

The setting for my study was a quality school library in a school with above average scores on state-wide standardized tests. The resources aligned with the research on quality school libraries. By using a childist lens, I investigated beyond the obvious layer of resources and reading scores. I joined the children to view their experiences and understandings during literacy events. I affirmed the quality aspects of the library that related to Lance et al.'s (2000b) research. The children had access to superb resources (human, print, and technological). These sources were integrated with the established curriculum which aligned with the state-wide testing. The children learned a great deal about accessing these sources. But access alone, even with thoughtful, caring instruction, did not assure the children's literacy learning *about* language and *through* language.

I suggest that the contradiction may be due to differences in the school library discourse community and the literacy discourse community. In addition, I acknowledged that it is difficult to determine an ideal literacy environment when the definition of literacy continues to expand and evolve. But understanding the paradox I discovered is worthy of discussion because the literacy needs of the children are not being met, despite the scores on the standardized test.

In chapter 1, I presented distressing findings from a recent study on the renovated public libraries in the city of Philadelphia (Neuman &Celano, 2006). Researchers found that the knowledge gap for low-income children was not eliminated by enhancing the libraries' facilities. Similarly, I found that an elaborate and well-appointed school library does not assure that children will experience literacy and gain knowledge. I agree with Neuman and

Celano in their call for adults to care, model, and guide children. However, it is in the modeling and guiding that I found more distressing findings. Before the instruction, the adults who work with children in this setting must have an understanding of literacy that extends beyond learning language systems and how to access sources. In the next two sections, I continue to use a childist lens and address both implications for instruction and future research.

Implications for Instruction

Knowing that research impacts policy, and policy "affects what happens in the classrooms" (Franzak, 2006, p. 237), I regard identifying instructional implications as a privilege, as well as a professional expectation. After one year in this academic setting, I present three broad instructional recommendations. First, I discuss what should be replicated from this setting into other school library programs. Second, because I found serious gaps in the school library program with regard to the children's literacy, I also suggest additions which will enhance the literacy for all children, regardless of race, gender, reading ability, or reading experiences. Finally, I suggest a replacement for the passive action of "attending" that encompassed the majority of the children's time in this school library.

Worth Keeping

Lankshear and Knobel (2003) argued that the ability to access, mediate, analyze, and refute text cannot occur without resources. There were many positive aspects related to the tools and space of this school library. Most importantly, there were many decisions made by the librarian about the resources that had a positive impact on the literacy practices of the children.

Resources. Although I agree with Neuman and Celano's (2006) argument that excellent facilities alone cannot transform the knowledge gap, I, like Elley (2000), also recognize that without the needed resources, there is less of an opportunity for children to acquire and engage in literacy habits and practices.

Lewis Elementary's school library had the kinds of resources that should be available to all children. Technologically, this library had ample computers: one for every two students. I found that the children were the most engaged and motivated when they worked at the computer in dyads. When the children worked at the computer alone, the other children spent time with the print resources. This system validated the importance of print and technology.

All computers were well equipped. In addition to an Internet connection, each computer had a wide array of software programs and electronic games. On each computer, the children could access the online catalog and the school library homepage. By accessing the online catalog, the children could easily locate any book in the library. Using the carefully crafted library homepage, the children could link to numerous sites.

Print resources varied. The book shelves included a range of genres, topics, and levels. Additionally, multiple copies of many books were available to encourage partners or small groups to read the same book. The reference section included items such as almanacs, as well as more unusual references like *The Scholastic Book of Idioms* (Terban, 1998). A well stocked and up-to-date collection of magazines was also incorporated into the library.

The resources present in this school library allowed the children to have a number of literacy experiences that were worthwhile. But without the librarian and staff, the resources alone would not advance the children's literacy experiences.

A certified librarian and library staff. The value of a librarian who has at least one staff person cannot be overstated. Having a library aide enabled Ms. Coleman to keep the library opened throughout the school day. Ms. Coleman did not close the library when she was teaching, having a meeting, or eating her lunch. The aide provided assistance to the children whenever the librarian was not available. Together, Ms. Coleman and Ms. Craybill created research quests that changed monthly. In addition, they updated the library book displays to introduce a multitude of cultural holidays, like Ramadan and Yom Kippur, as well as new acquisitions to the library.

Because of her expertise in children's literature, Ms. Coleman valued the work of authors and illustrators. Annually, Ms. Coleman allotted funds in the library budget to invite an author or illustrator to meet with the students. Because Lewis Elementary housed students in grades three through five, the children met and talked with three different children's books authors and/or illustrators during their time at the school. The year I conducted my study at Lewis Elementary, Ms. Coleman invited Jacqueline Woodson, a popular narrative, fiction writer. Woodson, an African American, includes primarily African American characters in her stories. The previous year when the participants from my study were in third grade, Ms. Coleman invited the highly regarded children's poet and illustrator, David Florian. In the next academic year after my study was completed, the children met Joseph Bruchac, a member of the Abenaki tribe, who has authored numerous books about Native American culture.

A major decision that Ms. Coleman made was to emphasize the outer language systems in her instruction and during the practice segment. She focused upon learning language systems. Although I have been critical of this stance, I also recognize that as a

result of this decision, Elizabeth grew from an inept user of the computer's mouse to a proficient computer user. With this new found skill at the computer, Elizabeth began a quest to take as many quizzes as she could on the Reading Counts software program. As the year progressed, this seemingly small skill with the outer language systems encouraged her to read almost all of the Junie B. Jones books in the school library. This occurred because there were adequate resources and a caring adult in this environment who took the time to help Elizabeth learn how to manipulate the mouse.

Like Elizabeth, the other five children also had positive literacy experiences linked to a combination of resources and the librarian's decisions. Because Ms. Coleman organized the author visits, Caitlin entered an essay contest and was selected to have lunch with Jacqueline Woodson. Through this opportunity, Caitlin announced that she was re-committed to becoming a writer herself. The annual author visit was not only an opportunity to promote reading and writing, but it was also an inspiration to the children as they considered career choices. Similarly, Ian was also encouraged in his desire to become a marine biologist because he was able to read every issue of *National Geographic for Kids* without having to buy a subscription. Ms. Coleman kept the magazines up to date and included a variety of other magazines in the bins. She also introduced Ian to other books that extended his strong interest in natural history.

Ms. Coleman was flexible with the library schedule, and this allowed the teachers many opportunities to use the facilities. Without the frequent library visits this class experienced, it is doubtful that Demont would have become interested in books from the war genre. Because Ms. Coleman allowed the children ample time to select books as they talked with their friends, Demont found a new reading partner who introduced him to this topic.

Through this relationship, Demont improved his ability to use the online catalog and locate books.

Although I have noted negatives associated with the various PowerPoint presentations, I also realize that without these presentations, Kamia would not have been exposed to the many new books she found that related to her family. Even Jamal, who slowly disengaged from literacy events during the year, had positive experiences that related to the PowerPoint presentations. Because of Ms. Coleman's decisions to teach the children about academic databases, she moved the children beyond using Google as a search engine. Therefore, Jamal was exposed to more sophisticated searching skills. For example, Jamal learned about abstracts and their merits in determining if an article had the information he needed. Although much of his learning did not transfer when he searched at home, Jamal used websites and databases in the school library that he most likely would not have located without the assistance of the school librarian.

Therefore, one important instructional recommendation is to suggest that all school libraries have, at minimum, what is currently present in this setting: superb resources that relate to the curriculum and a certified librarian and staff. Without the facilities (i.e., computers, Internet connections, rich print resources, space, flexible schedules) and a certified librarian and staff, children would not be afforded the kinds of excellent literacy experiences they had.

Worth Adding

I suggest three additions to the quality school library. The first concerns articulation across discourse communities, the second is related to aligning instruction around children's needs, and the third deals with the assessment process.

Dialogue across discourse communities. Because I viewed the library through the children's experiences and understandings, I know that the children viewed each adult as an individual expert, not a collaborative team. Considering this information and my analysis of the two discourse communities, I recommend that the teacher and librarian have opportunities to engage in professional conversations about literacy. Due to the ever-expanding research about literacy, I further suggest that the reading specialist be included in these professional conversations.

The children would be the beneficiaries of three experts working together in this literacy environment. The librarian, as evidenced earlier in this chapter, has been trained as an information specialist. The classroom teacher has expertise in the content and curriculum. Having the expert voice of a reading specialist, who can act as the text and strategies expert, could assist in assuring that children learn *about* language and *through* language. For example, I envision the teacher, librarian, and reading specialist considering the importance of social interaction in literacy events. Although each may have different expertise, together they could craft a practice segment of the library session where the children would continue to learn how to access information. But they would also learn *about* language with lessons and modeling on rhetorical structures and vocabulary specific to certain genres. As the children gather socially to share their knowledge, they would learn *through* language as they talked with their peers and analyze the information. This would move social interaction from merely a pleasant sidebar to a vital part of the literacy events.

Focus on the literacy needs of children. The second suggested addition is a natural progression from the first, and concerns the focus of the library program. In the current practices of this school library, the program takes its shape from the librarian and teacher

decisions about what the children produce as an artifact (e.g., travel brochure, biography, puppet). During the year that I conducted my study, the determining factor for all lessons was the basal reading program. The teacher and librarian followed it explicitly and sequentially.

Because the artifact aligned with the basal reader, the instructional lessons focused upon the product, rather than literacy. To alleviate the overemphasis on a product aligned with a basal reader, I recommend using the children's literacy needs as the guiding focus of the library program.

Every artifact the children produced involved reading or writing text with expository rhetorical structures. By December, the children were expected to complete a bibliography as they worked through their second artifact. However, as noted in chapter 4, there was only one writing model in the basal reader that included a third person report-like expository writing format with a bibliography. This was the last writing model presented in the theme of "Nature: Friend or Foe". The model was located on page 654, less than 20 pages from the end of the basal reader. To my knowledge, neither the teacher nor librarian ever discussed this writing model because it was presented in the text so close to the end of the year.

If the children's needs were considered first, the teacher could use "Nature: Friends or Foes" unit earlier in the year because it included a wonderful student model of expository rhetoric with a bibliography. In addition the passages in this unit were non-fiction, although some were written in a narrative format. By engaging the children with instruction and experience reading exposition early in the year, the teacher and librarian would also provide more opportunities to improve on the children's abilities to write using expository rhetorical structures. However, this can only occur if the children's literacy needs drive the program.

I provide an example to further underscore the importance of this issue. Caitlin was only apprenticed in the differences between nonfiction and fiction. As noted in her literacy portrait, she referred to *Snow Treasure* (McSwigen, 1986), the book Mrs. Sun-Ya read aloud, as "non-fiction and fiction at the same time" (Interview, May 3, 2005). If Caitlin had received additional apprenticeship in rhetorical structure, she would have realized the book her teacher read was a narrative. Secondly, if she had received apprenticeship in how some authors used facts within fiction, she would understand that this book was not non-fiction but rather, historical fiction. As such, it would be shelved with the fiction books in alphabetical order by the author's last name. It would not be placed in with the 900s, the history section of non-fiction books which is where Caitlin believed *Snow Treasure* was located. This knowledge along with strategies for learning *through* language would enable Caitlin to ask questions about how the author used facts along with fiction. She would realize that not all narrative books are fiction. But without instruction and awareness, Caitlin wrote a biography of John Harris using a narrative rhetoric structure. Unknowingly, she also added fiction to her biography of John Harris. Yet at the end of the production process, Caitlin believed that her artifact was a non-fiction biography.

Assessment aligned with students' literacy practices. Assessment must keep pace with authentic literacy experiences. Prensky (2001) noted that today's fourth graders are "digital natives . . . native speakers of the digital language of computers, video games, and the Internet" (p.1). The U.S. Department of Education concurred. In a recently issued brief, DeBell (2005) indicated that "the use of computers and the Internet by students is common place and begins early" (p. 3).

Ironically, Leu, Mallette, Karchmer, and Kara-Soteriou (2005), in their recently published book, noted that students are not allowed to use word processors on any state's writing assessments, nor does any state assess a student's ability to "locate, read, critically evaluate, and comprehend information in an online environment despite our knowledge that these skills will be required of all citizens in an information age" (p. 5). Although most children routinely use digital language and technologies in their social and in-school practices, assessment procedures that chronicle the children's achievement ignore the obvious and rely on familiar test formats. I recommend that classroom teachers, along with librarians and reading specialists, embrace this challenge and construct assessment that authentically measures how children read and write using computers and online resources. By this process, the teacher may become more aware of the many deficiencies I noted in my study in how the children comprehended and produced their artifacts. Awareness of the issues that children struggle with using online resources would re-direct the instructional plans because the focus would align with children's needs.

Worth Replacing

In this study, I found that children's perception of knowledge related to what had been modeled. In the final interview with all the children and the library model, the children indicated initially that knowledge was primarily located in the computer because the computer was the source of the Power Points used by the librarian for direct instruction. Secondly, they selected reference books, specifying the World Books, as the second most important source of knowledge. This reference tool was part of a direct instruction lesson, and a tool most children used to produce artifacts. Third, the children identified biographies as having the most knowledge. Biographies were used in the largest research project of the

year. After being prompted, the children identified the adults as the number one knowledge source and consequently moved the others down on the list. The children did not identify themselves or their peers as sources of knowledge. Yet, they had relied upon friends and their own knowledge during the year.

The definition of literacy established in chapter 1 implies that readers engage in their own purposes, their own understandings, and their own dubious questions about what they read. Educators play a vital role in how children determine where knowledge is located and what counts as knowledge. For the children in this study, the sources of knowledge used at school informed their epistemological assumptions. However, if the school library aligned with the sociocultural definition of literacy defined in this study, then the children would be strategic and motivated, using and enhancing their knowledge through social interaction. Therefore, I recommend "attending" be replaced by active engagement.

Attending is one dimensional and passive; engagement is multidimensional and active (Guthrie & Anderson, 1999; Guthrie et al., 1998). Because engagement is both "hands-on" and "minds-on" (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003, p. 124), the children would not be merely gazing at a screen, they would be active and invested. Baker and Wigfield (1997) noted that "engaged readers are motivated to read for different purposes, utilize knowledge gained from previous experience to generate new understandings, and participate in meaningful social interaction around reading" (p. 452). This definition matches the sociocultural vision of literacy. In this library, the children were socially interactive, but only as a pleasurable activity, not as a part of literacy learning. If the children were engaged, and not merely attending, they would embrace social interaction as a vital and important part of literacy practices. Elizabeth and Sofia would recognize that their conversation about the artists was

an important and justified part of literacy learning, and not insignificant social banter. In addition, evidence of this conversation would have been present in Elizabeth's biography.

Summary of Instructional Implications

I recognize that there is no absolutely ideal literacy environment. Indeed, this school library program did have many important and useful resources, including a certified librarian and library staff. But creating an ideal literacy environment cannot stop there. Educators (i.e., teachers, librarians, and reading specialists together) must recognize that children's literacy needs include learning language, learning *about* language, and learning *through* language. To foster this understanding of literacy, educators must place children' literacy needs in the forefront, design engaging literacy events, and create authentic assessments that align with current literacy practices and resources.

<center>*Directions for Future Research*</center>

A quality school library program has the potential to become the most opportune location for future literacy research. Because it is a physical and virtual space, rich in resources and technology, it provides an authentic context for today's view of literacy. I propose three wide-ranging suggestions for future research. These research directions focus upon the child's perspective in order to enhance the understanding of literacy as it relates to school libraries, but ultimately more global contexts.

First, I am interested in gaining more of an understanding of children's epistemologies within a school library program with particular attention to technology. As Bruce (1997) noted, "Technologies do not oppose, replace, enhance or otherwise stand apart from literacy" (p. 307). The students in this study associated knowledge with whatever was modeled or reinforced as knowledge to them over the course of the year. Surprisingly or not,

when asked as a group, they viewed the computer, not the human beings, as possessing the most knowledge. Yet there were instances when *individually* in practice, they rejected information supplied by the computer and demonstrated that they were using their own knowledge in their literacy learning. For example, Jamal indicated that he used a book in his research on Benjamin Rush because it was more reliable, he cautioned that on "the Internet, you can write what you want" (Interview, February 2, 2005). Similarly, when interviewed individually, Caitlin noted that knowledge was "learning things, and learning about things you enjoy and knowing things that you might use someday in your future life" (May 24, 2005). This fit with her assertion that the most important part of the library for her was the fiction books (May 3, 2005). These two individual children had very different views when they worked corporately to determine where knowledge was located in the library. Both of these students were high ability readers. Although I have not investigated this within my data, I am interested in identifying if there was a difference in the way reading ability affected the children's ability to see themselves as a source of knowledge. In addition, I would like to build on the research of Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2005) and Cairney and Ruge (1997) by sorting through the data to learn what children used as knowledge sources and how they view literacy. However, given the focus of this study on only six of the children, this issue most likely requires another investigation.

Research that explores differences in individual and corporate views of epistemology fits well with Lankshear and Knobel's (2003) call for "rethinking knowledge for classroom learning" (p.155). They suggest the development of "digital epistemologies" (p. 155) because they argue schools need to keep pace with the challenge of a digitized world. Lankshear and Knobel offer several changes that could occur in the status of knowledge as "everyday

practices" (p.162) become more and more digitized. One change they suggest is that knowledge will move to being located outside the knower. Perhaps this can be likened to a similar fear that calculators would diminish children's ability to know mathematics. It seems plausible that without a critical dimension in all areas of understanding, knowledge does exist exterior to the knower. The knower simply uses the knowledge, and does not analyze, critique, or own the text.

Second, literacy events in the school library expanded beyond the borders of the library. There were numerous times when the literacy event extended into family life. Previous studies have investigated the role of print and spaces for literacy within various socioeconomic communities (Duke, 2000; Elley, 2000; Heath, 1983, 2000; Neuman, & Celano, 2001, 2006). In this exploratory study, all children indicated that they had computers at home and family members who used the computers. The omnipresent technology within homes did not result in a unified response to how children used computers during literacy events in the school library, and vice versa. For example, none of the children in the study, even the highest achieving readers, indicated that they used what they learned during literacy events in the school library to inform their literacy practices at home during literacy events.

Knowing how children access and use technology within their homes and community as a result of their instruction with a school library program would provide interesting feedback to the ever-changing construct of literacy. This type of research would also provide an opportunity to reflect on how various socio-economic communities reinforce or react to school practices with technologically-based literacy. It would be interesting to learn how the family's literacy habits with technology impact the children's sense of the literacy instruction provided in school libraries.

Third, the major contradiction discovered in this study begs the answer to a politically charged question. During one year of studying this library, I found literacy, as described in sociocultural terms, missing from most literacy events. The students were not apprenticed in the intricate and vital language systems, such as expository rhetoric. They were not provided with instruction on how to analyze a text. Yet, the fifth grade students in this school scored above the state average in the standardized reading tests.

It seems doubtful that definition of literacy that guided the production of the standardized test aligns with a sociocultural definition of literacy. I recommend research into the standardized test itself. It would be helpful to connect the kind of literacy expectations found in the test to a definition of literacy. This alignment would provide insight into how children who have not been apprenticed in the critical literacy practices of using, participating, and analyzing text do well on this standardized reading test.

In 1983, Heath shared the story of diverse literacy communities, and she indicated that their literacy events should be viewed as "an unfinished story" (p. 13). To continue exploring how communities use, support, and struggle with literacy based upon whatever sources are available would extend Heath's work. Realizing the global impact of technology on society is not enough. Understanding how literacy events with home and community are affected would provide specific knowledge to inform research about classroom instruction.

Limitations

Kenneth Burke noted that when scholars select to focus upon a reflection of reality, they, perhaps unconsciously, also choose a deflection of reality (Wertsch, 1998). Any study, then, is fraught with limitations.

In my study, there are limitations related to the perspective. To begin, espousing a view brought limitations. By using a "childist" lens, I diminished others' voices. Although I did interview and spend time with the librarian and teacher, I did so with the intention to understand the children's perspective. Therefore, this study does not provide a crystallized view of a quality school library. It provides a crystallized view of six children's experiences and understandings within the school library. However, it was a purposeful decision to hear what children do and think and to focus upon issues related to them.

By selecting six children, I limited the voices and actions of 18 other children in the classroom. Although I received permission to use all but one child from the classroom in my study, I rarely made use of this opportunity. In addition, my time for interviewing the children was limited due to the cadence of school routines. Longer more in depth interviews would have enabled more of an understanding about the texts and the students' writing.

My study focused upon the literacy events that occurred when the children spent time in the school library. I became aware of that literacy events in the school library continued and/or blend with the classroom's literacy events and into family life outside of the school building and school hours. But in order to fully investigate these aspects, I would have had to spend time in the classroom and with the families of the students.

Finally, one large limitation is based upon the knowledge that my definition of a quality school library program was built upon Lance and his colleagues' work (2000b), as well as the ALA (1998). Although I designed a rigorous and intentional plan to locate a setting as close to ideal as possible, the plan was not foolproof. Although both the organization (ALA) and the researchers (Lance et al.) are highly regarded in the world of school libraries, there are other processes that could be used in locating a quality school

library program. Despite the realization that the presence of the variables noted in the research and the professional organization's expectation, this may not be the only way a researcher could determine a quality school library program, I am confident that the process I used was thorough and thoughtful, as well as solidly built upon my reading of the recent research on quality school libraries.

Conclusion

The current research findings on quality school libraries and their impact on reading achievement (Lance et al., 2000a, 2000b) are encouraging, but insufficient. Meeting the criteria for the definition of a quality school library program is not enough to assure that children will become independent readings and writers.

Beyond the surface of certified librarians and staff, print resources, and technological integration into curriculum, there remains a more global issue to consider. School libraries possess the kind of complex environment that allows children to learn how to make sense of the information age. If children's needs are placed in the forefront of instructional decisions and they are engaged in the process, then the school library can become an authentic space where children are supported to not only to learn language, but also to learn *through* language and learn *about* language.

Some have suggested the need to embrace cultural texts (Alvermann & Hagood, 2000) to ensure that we are engaging children in learning about and through language. With the proliferation of sources, debates and decisions such as these will continue to expand. This study suggests that such discussions must occur within the context of children's experiences and understandings. Privileging children's voices can inform and encourage the work of literacy researchers.

This study of six fourth graders in a quality school library program advocates for future research to extend beyond classroom instruction. By viewing how children understand knowledge based upon their experiences both with technology and within their families and communities would provide a richer understanding of literacy in current times.

Appendix A

Title Recognition Questionnaire

___ A Light in the Attic
___ How to Eat Fried Worms
___ Call of the Wild
___ Joanne
___ It's My Room
___ Hatchet
___ Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing
___ Hot Top
___ The Polar Express
___ Don't Go Away
___ The Indian in the Cupboard
___ The Trouble with Tuck
___ The Hidden One
___ Homer Price
___ The Missing Letter
___ Heidi
___ The Rollaway
___ Freedom Train
___ Sadie Goes to Hollywood
___ James and the Giant Peach
___ By the Shores of the Silver Lake
___ Superfudge
___ The Case of the Unbreakable Walking Mirror
___ The Schoolhouse
___ Dr. Doolittle
___ He's Your Little Brother!
___ From the Mixed-Up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler
___ Ethan Allen
___ The Lost Shoe
___ Island of the Blue Dolphins
___ Skateboard
___ Ramona the Pest
___ Iggie's House
___ The Great Brain
___ The Winter Worm Business
___ Searching the Wilds
___ Henry and the Clubhouse
___ Harriet the Spy
___ The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe

Appendix B

Travel Brochure Handout

Travel Pamphlet for

_____

Guidelines:
1. The following information needs to be included in your pamphlet
(but you are welcome to include more information):
    a. The name of your country
    b. A picture of your country's flag
    c. A picture representing your country (be creative with this)
    d. The climate
    e. At least 5 interesting facts about your country
    f. Tell about the people in the country
    g. The population
    h. The location of the country
        i. For example, the continent it is located on and/or the distance from the United States
2. The pamphlet should be colorful and neat
3. BE CREATIVE!!!

Due Date: Friday, October 22nd
1. *5 points will be deducted from your score for every day that this project is late.*

Grading:
1. I will be grading on the following criteria:
    a. Content (50 points)
        i. All of the above listed components need to be included in your pamphlet.
    b. Neatness (15 points)
        i. Writing needs to be legible
        ii. Pictures should be colorful and neat
        iii. I should be able to tell that you put a lot of time and effort into this project. ☺
    c. Creatvity (10 points)
        i. No two pamphlets should look the same.
    d. Grammar (15 points)
        i. There should be no grammar or spelling mistakes.

Appendix C

Biography Handout

Biography/Puppet Show Rubric

1. Report (each category is worth 5 points, unless otherwise noted)
    a. _____ Adequate amount of researched information (10 pts.)
    b. _____ Biography is 2 pages handwritten, 1 ½ pages typed
    c. _____ Bibliography is included, and form is correct
    d. _____ Paragraphs are complete thoughts and indented
    e. _____ Correct punctuation
    f. _____ Good opening and closing sentences
    g. _____ Rough draft included
    h. _____ Overall neatness

                    Total research paper points
                    _____

2. Puppet and puppet show
    a. _____ Creativity and originality in making puppet (15 pts.)
    b. _____ Puppet play – factual account of person's life (15 pts.)
    c. _____ Puppeteer's poise during play (10 pts.)
    d. _____ Puppet show overall presentation (10 pts.)

                    Total puppet show points _____

3. Extra credit points
    a. _____ Research paper
    b. _____ Puppet show
    c. _____ Puppet

Appendix D

Steps for Biography Research Handout
Follow these Steps to Locate Information on your Pennsylvania person

Step One – OPAC (library catalog)
- **Important!** You may not find information on your person. If you do not, move to step two.
- On the OPAC, type your person's name in natural order (Jimmy Stewart) on the search line.
- Click KEYWORD to search for books about your person.
- If you find a book with a call number which starts with a **B**, it is a biography. Books with call numbers beginning with a 920 are collective biographies. These books will be useful to your research. Many other nonfiction books (call numbers start with a number) will be useful.
- Write the call numbers and then go the shelf to find your books.

Step Two – World Book Encyclopedia
- **Important!** If you have George Barnard, Tasker Bliss, Andrew Curtin, Edwin Drake, John Harris, William Sims, Jerry Spinelli, or William Still SKIP STEP TWO!
- Open the 2004 World Book Encyclopedia. When you open the World Book, you will get an error message. Just click OK. You will still be able to use the encyclopedia.
- When the menu page opens, you will again get an error message. Just click OK. Click on TOPIC search. When the search box opens, type the name of your person with the last name first (Stewart, Jimmy). You must spell the name correctly! Click OK
- You may want to print the article. You must ask permission to print the article.

Step Three- "Pennsylvania People" on the Pennsylvania for Kids website
- **Important!** If you have Frank Woolworth or Andrew Wyeth, SKIP STEP THREE!
- Open Internet Explorer. When the ElkValley Township web page opens, click on Schools, then Lewis Elementary.
- Scroll down and click on **Library**. From the Library, click on **Pennsylvania for Kids.** Scroll dowon the page and click on **Pennsylvania People.**
- The people on this page are listed in ABC order by the person's last name. Scroll down the page to find your person. If you find information which you would like to print for your report, you must ask permission to print.

DO YOU HAVE ENOUGH INFORMATION FOR YOUR REPORT? YOU MAY BEGIN READING AND TAKING NOTES NOW.

Step Four – Biography Reference Bank
- **Important!** If you have a musician or writer, you should do step five first.
- In the library folder, open the "Lewis Online Resources" by double clicking the globe. Then open the ACCESS PA Power Library.
- On the menu page in the box labeled **Biography,** open the **Biography Reference Bank.**
- Type in your person's name. You may type the name in natural order (Jimmy Stewart). If there is a biography about your person, you should link to the biography. (DO NO use the ARTICLES WITH _____ AS A SUBJECT or BOOKS WITH _____ AS A SUBJECT.) If you want to print an article, you must ask permission to print.

Step Five – Grove Art Online and Grove Music Online
- **Important!** Do not use these databases unless your person is an artist or a musician.
- In the library folder, open the "Lewis Online Resources" by double clicking the globe. Then open the ACCESS PA Power Library.
- On the menu page in the box labeled **ART/MUSIC**, open the **Grove Art Online (artists) or Grove Music Online (musicians)**. Click biographies. Type in your person's last name then first name (Steward, Jimmy) in the box labeled name. Click search.

Appendix E

Baseball Research Handout

Name _____

Take Me Out to the Ballgame!

I am doing a mini research project on _____.

   1. He was born on _____ in _____.

   2. He has played for the following baseball teams: (Put an * beside his current

      team, or the team he was made famous.)

        _____

        _____

        _____

      3. What position does he play? _____

4. List 3 things about this baseball player:

          1. _____

          2. _____

          3. _____

5. Is this person still playing, or did he retire? _____

6. Is this person still alive? _____

        If the answer is no, when did he die? _____

7. Did this person do anything important to make the world better? _____

        What important thing was done? _____

      _____

      _____

8. Do you think this person is a hero? _____ Why or why not?

      _____

      _____

Appendix F

Copyright Permission

From: Sheba Meland smeland@mapletreepress.com 05/01/06 9:39 AM

To: Anita Voelker

Subject: Re: query

Dear Anita,

You are welcome to use this one page (26) from Mary Wallace's book How to Make Great
Stuff for Your Room in your doctoral dissertation. We'd be so delighted if you could send us
the citation and relevant section when it is done, for our files.

With best wishers,
Sheba Meland
Publisher

****

Sheba Meland
President and Publisher
Maple Tree Press
51 Front Street East, Suite 200
Toronto, Ontoario M5E 1B3, Canada
TEL: (416) 304-0702 ext. 306
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Appendix G

Matrix High/High Reader Codes

High/High Readers' Codes

High	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75
9/09[1]	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATl									
9/28	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATl	ATl	uncoded	uncoded	uncoded	UN[2]	UN	UN	REs	REs	COb ss/2g
9/29	ATl	ATl	RW ho	ATl	ATm	RS ss/1g/st	RS ss/1g/st	ATl rc	QUI	CMm cc	CMm cc	REb ref cc	CMm cc	REs	COb cc/bc/1g
10/18	ATl	REho ho	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATm	ATl	CMm cc	CMm cc	CMm cc/st	CMm cc	REb ref cc	CMm cc	COb ss/2g	REb ss/2g
11/03	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATl	ATm	RS	ATm	RS	RW	REs	REs	Rpt	UN	COb cc/bc/1g
11/22	ATl	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATl	RS	RW ref/ho/st	RW ref/ho/st	RW ref/ho/st	OBi	RW ref/ho/st	OT	DS	UN	UN
12/9	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATl	ATm	ATt	CMm cc	CMm cc	CMm cc	CMm cc	CMm cc	CMm cc	OBi pr/cc/1g	
12/13	ATl	ATl	REs st	CMm	QUt	UN	UN	RW n/b/cc/1g	OT						
1/6	Child is ill; no observation notes today														
1/26	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATl	ATm	QUI	REs	REs			Firedrill			
2/11	ATl	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATm	RS	ATm	ATm	ATl	REs	COb cc/bc/2g	CMm st	REs st	REs st	UN
3/02	ATl	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATl	RS	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	COb cc/bc/2g	REs st	REs st	REs	COb cc/bc/2g
3/21	ATl	ATl	ATm	ATm	RS	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATl	QUI	REb cc/bc/3g/st	REb cc/bc/3g/stt	COb cc/bc/3g
4/12	ATl	ATm	ATm	OT	RS	ATm	RS	CMm	CMm	OBi –	CMm	CMm	CMm	CMm ho	CMm ho
5/03	ATl	ATm	ATl	ATl	ATl	RS	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATl	REs	REs	OT	COb cc/bc/2g	COb ho
5/17	ATl	ATl	ATl	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	OT	ATm	ATm	REs/st	OT	OT	REs	COb/ss/1g

---

[1] Did not observe any students on this initial day.
Caitlin: September 28, October 18, December 9, January 6, February 11, March 21, May 3
Jamal: September 29, November 3, December 13, January 26, March 2, April 12, May 17

Appendix H

Matrix Mid/Mid Reader Codes

Mid/Mid Readers' Codes

Mid	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75
9/09[1]	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	uncoded	uncoded	uncoded	UN[2]	UN	UN	REmag	REmag	COb ss/1g
9/28	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	CMm	CMm rc	CMm rc	REs						
9/29	ATI	ATI	RW ho	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	RS	ATI	CMm	REs	QBi	QBi	QBi	COb cc/bc/1g
10/18	ATI	REho	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	CMm st	OBi	CMm	OBi	QBi	COmag ss/1g
11/03	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	RW ho	CMm n	CMm	REs	REs	UN	COb cc/bc/2g
11/22	ATI	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATI	RW ho/ref/st	RW ho/ref/st	RW ho	RW ho/ref/st	RW ho/ref/st	REs/ st	DS	UN	UN
12/9	ATI	REho	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	REho	REs	Qt †	OBi	RW n/b/cc/1g	RW n/b/cc/1g	CMm	
12/13	ATI	ATI	REb ref	RW n/ref	RW n/ref	CMm	OBi	CMm	UN						
1/6	RS	ATm	RS	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	AIt	CMm st	DS	CMm st	CMm ho/st	REs	COb cc/bc/2g
1/26	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATm	REs	D/st	COb/ss/2g	REs	COb cc/bc/2g	QBi Firedrill	UN	UN	UN
2/11	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATm	COb cc/bc/2g	REs	UN	UN	UN
3/02	ATI	RS	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	REs	CT	REmag/st	UN
3/21	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	REs	COb/cc/bc/3g	REb/cc/3g	REb/cc/ 3g
4/12	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	RS	ATm	ATI	REs	REs	COb ss/1g	REb/ss/1g	COb/ss/1g	REb/ss/1g/st	REb/ss/1g/st	UN
5/03	ATI	ATm	ATI	ATI	RS	RS	ATI	RS	ATI	ATI	REs	COb/cc/bc/1g	UN		
5/17	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	REs	REs	REpt	COb/ss/1g	UN

[1] Did not observe any students on this initial day.

Ian: September 28, October 18, December 9, January 6, February 11, March 21, May 3.

Demont: September 29, November 3, December 13, January 26, March 2, April 12, May 17

Appendix I

Matrix Low/Low Reader Codes

Low/Low Readers Codes

Low	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75
9/09[1]	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI									
9/28[2]	OT	ATm	OT	ATt	ATt	OT	OT	uncoded	uncoded	uncoded	CMm rc t	OBi rc	CMm cc I	OBi cc	REs	COb ss/2g
9/29	ATI	RS	RW ho	ATI	ATI	RS	RS	ATI	ATI	QUt			UN	REs	COb cc/bc /1g
10/18	ATI	REho	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	CMm/st	CMm/st	REs	UN	UN	UN
11/03	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATm	RE	ATm	WR ho	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	UN	COb/c bc/2g
11/22	ATI	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATI	RS	RW Ref/ho/st	RW Ref/ho/st	RW Ref/ho/st	RW Ref/ho/st	RW Ref/ho/st	RW	REs/st	CMm/rc	COb ss/2g
12/9	ATI	REho	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	Rs	Cm	Cm	Qt	UN	Rs	CMm/rc	COb ss/2g
12/13	ATI	ATI	CMm st	DS	OBi pr/cc/1g	UN	UN	UN	UN	UN	UN	UN	UN	COb/cc/bc/1g
1/06	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	CMm/st	DS ho/st	CMm/rc	Cm/rc	REs	COb/c /bc /2g
												Firedrill			
1/26	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATm	Rs	COb/ss/2g	UN	UN	REs	COb/cc/bc/2g	UN	UN	COb/c
2/11	ATI	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	OT	REs	REs	UN	UN	COb/c bc /2g
3/02	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	REs			COb/c
3/21	ATI	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATm	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	REs	COb/cc/bc/3g	REb/cc bc/3g/st	REb/cc bc/3g/
4/12	ATI	RE	ATm	ATm	RE	ATm	ATI	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rb/cc/1g/st	Rb/cc/1g	RWRho/cc/1g	UN	UN	REb/c bc/3g/
5/03	ATI	ATm	ATI	ATI	ATI	ATI	RS	RS	ATI	ATI	REs	COb/cc/bc/2g	UN	UN	UN
5/17	ATI	ATm	ATI	ATI	ATI										Kamia is ill; no observation of her today.

---

[1] Did not observe any students on this initial day.

Elizabeth: September 28, October 18, December 9, January 6, February 11, March 21, May 3

Kamia: September 29, November 3, December 13, January 26, March 2, April 12, May 17

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