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Reading Knowledge Transfer from the Pre-Service Teaching Phase to the Novice Teaching Phase: A Phenomenological Study

by

Natalie Sajko

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of

Bellarmine University

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Philosophy

October 2020

Natalie M. Sajko

Reading Knowledge Transfer from the Pre-Service Teaching Phase to the Novice Teaching Phase: A Phenomenological Study

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Surreal is the only way I can describe the conclusion of this experience. For four years, completing this dissertation was the goal, and for the majority of those four years it was an abstract finish line. Now, hundreds of hours of reading, researching, and writing later, it's surreal that this project I imagined is complete before me. When I was working on this dissertation, I found myself undergoing a deeply personal, transformative journey. I am a different teacher for having completed this project; I am a different person for having completed this project. Thank you to all the people who supported my growth and pursuit of understanding. The journey would not have been the same without you.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to all teachers who find themselves questioning—questioning their preparation, questioning what they observe, questioning their positionality to their work, questioning the school system. Keep questioning, keep reflecting. We need you.

Abstract

This qualitative study explored the experiences of eight novice teachers as they transferred knowledge of reading instruction from their teacher education programs (TEPs) into their first classrooms in a rural district. Specific mechanisms for learning transfer (prior knowledge, motivation, context, and culture) and their perceived influences were also explored. Phenomenology was utilized to help explore these experiences and perceptions. Social constructivism, Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and critical pedagogies (hooks, 2014; Love, 2019) were used to interpret findings in this study. This study centered on the following questions: (1) how do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from aspects of their program (coursework and student teaching) to their own classrooms? and (2) how do elementary novice teachers perceive the role of different mechanisms of knowledge transfer in their lived experience? Themes that emerged include: "learn about it and then go and meet with the class and do some of those things", "why didn't I know how to do that before I started student teaching?", "I feel like I was making it up as I was actually doing it", "How do you teach where there's so many behaviors?", "Best mentors ever" versus "She more wanted it done, like, her way", "No, it wasn't enough just to have the knowledge", "I don't want to say 'reading people', but that's what we, I guess kind of excel at", "Different places have different values", "It was a close-knit, a close-knit group, supportive of one another", and "Me? Not the same".

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Introduction

Background of the Problem

Multiple studies have produced similar results—teachers, both pre-service and in-service—do not possess the content or pedagogical knowledge necessary to teach reading. Pre-service teachers are found to have lower levels of literacy content knowledge than expected, specifically regarding reading processes, and in-service teachers were not found to know much more (Hikida, Chamberlain, Tily, Daly-Lesch, Warner, & Schallert, 2019; Spear-Swirling & Brucker, 2003; Washburn, Joshi, & Cantrell, 2011). When teachers are ill-prepared to meet the needs of their students, it is unsurprising that students nationwide are struggling with reading, as evidenced by only 35% of fourth graders being labeled proficient on NAEP reading measures (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). In the mid-southern state of focus in this study, 38% of fourth graders were at or above the proficient level, with notable differences between student groups. Only 16% of Black students performed at or above proficiency, while 27% of Hispanic students scored at the same level, demonstrably lower than their White peers, 41% of whom scored at or above the proficient level—a gap that has not significantly changed since 1998. Fewer boys (35%) were proficient or above compared to their female counterparts (40%), and students eligible for the National School Lunch Program performed drastically below their more affluent peers (28% proficient or above compared to 51%) (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2017). While there has been improvement in reading performance since the initial publication of "A Nation at Risk" (United States, 1983), the achievement gap brought to the forefront of the national consciousness has not improved enough to meet the mission of the report, and teachers are not gaining the knowledge and skills necessary to meet the needs of their

diverse students (Forgione, Jr., 1998). Teacher Education Programs (TEPs), therefore, are a logical place to begin addressing the divide between teacher skill and teacher practice.

TEPs rely on the student teaching experience as a bridge between methods courses and the pre-service teacher's first solo job. During coursework, pre-service teachers attending accredited TEPs are exposed to research and strategies aligned with the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation's (CAEP) standards. TEPs are responsible for providing research regarding the profession and for assessing the application of content knowledge that reflect standards of a Specialized Professional Association (SPA). Many universities rely on the International Literacy Association's (ILA) standards for literacy, which help assess candidate knowledge of core content standards (ex. Common Core State Standards), and ensure candidates utilize relevant technology (CAEP, n.d.). The Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) standards referenced by CAEP act as an umbrella, stating generally that teachers need to understand content knowledge in their discipline (standard four), to understand how to apply content knowledge in accessible ways in the classroom (standard five), and to understand and use a variety of instructional strategies to engage students (standard eight) (InTASC, 2013). The ILA's (2010) literacy standards for Pre-K and elementary teachers address more specifically what content and pedagogy teacher candidates need, including understanding theories that underpin literacy practice, students' reading development, curriculum, differentiated approaches, reading assessment, diversity, and how to create a physical and social environment that promotes motivation and makes use of a wide range of resources (both print and digital) (CAEP, n.d.). The ILA also has a standard outlining professional learning and leadership.

These standards reflect the findings of the National Reading Panel (2000), which concluded the five most important areas of reading instruction include phonological awareness,

phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Professors in TEPs seek to improve performance of teachers by basing their instruction on these standards, specifically focusing on teaching research-based pedagogical strategies. TEPs hope that participation in student teaching will help PSTs put the pedagogical strategies and foundational knowledge they learned in their coursework into the classroom context, generating a deeper level of understanding; student teaching is a feature of TEPs which highly predicts teacher and student outcomes (National Research Council, 2010). If PSTs participate in student teaching placements, they are more likely to help generate high student outcomes in their own classrooms. It would seem as though the improved performance of teachers would also help reduce achievement gaps in vulnerable student populations when PSTs are more likely to student teach with vulnerable populations. Despite this, the NAEP data does not indicate that consistent progress is being made.

If TEPs are accredited, proving they provide instruction aligned with relevant CAEP, InTASC, and ILA standards, then an important question is what is interrupting the knowledge transfer process in pre-service teachers? King (2009) found that adults try to merge new information to their already defined beliefs. When they are unable to reconcile the new information with their beliefs, they begin to investigate the root of the dissonance. Thomas and McCarther (2006) indicated that learning is transferred during experiences when supports such as coaching and feedback are present. These experiences involve a social element, which Monk (2013) believed situates real learning. Day and Goldstone (2012) added that knowledge is contextually bound and highly influenced by the other people present in the same context. Constructivist thought, used in many schools of education, promotes experiential learning, emphasizing the importance of context. Seeing as many TEPs subscribe to constructivism as a

foundational theory, it is understandable that student teaching is viewed as the learning experience in context.

While context and prior knowledge is important in knowledge transfer, culture also acts as a mechanism for transfer. Consider the findings of Ronfeldt (2012). In a study of field placement schools, a pre-service teacher's experience learning to teach with minority, low-income, and/or struggling learners did not connect to the pre-service teacher's ability to later raise achievement. Theoretically, these teachers have prior knowledge, and they are learning to teach in context, yet they are still unable to effectively teach. Pea (1987) determined that aspects of learning might not be transferred if the cultural contexts are not aligned (in this study, between PSTs and their students), including attitudes and other affective dimensions. This might offer insight into the reason why teachers still struggle to effectively teach their students—they have prior knowledge, contextual experience in student teaching, and motivation to teach, but lack similar cultural contexts including racial, linguistic, and socioeconomic backgrounds.

The results of a National Center for Education Statistics (2017) survey revealed the composition of the teaching force underwent some change between data collections. The percentage of female teachers increased from 75% in 1999-2000 to 77% in 2015-2016, while the percentage of White teachers declined during the same period from 84% to 80%. Considering the increasingly diverse student composition of public schools in the United States, there is an understandable cultural disconnect in terms of race, gender, socioeconomics, and sexual orientation, among other factors. For years, teachers have exited teacher preparation programs ill-prepared to meet the needs of students whose backgrounds and experiences vary so differently from their own. One course on multiculturalism cannot prepare teachers for life in their classrooms (Love, 2019).

The purpose of this study is to explore the experience of knowledge transfer from the pre-service phase to the novice teaching phase, thereby bridging coursework to student teaching and student teaching to their own classroom. Through their experiences, novice teachers will share how they were able to transfer knowledge, and, perhaps, how they struggled to transfer knowledge, providing insight into which mechanisms they used frequently, and which were potentially inhibited.

Statement of the Problem

Researchers note time and time again that teachers will find it impossible to effectively teach children if they do not fully understand what they are teaching (Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; McCutchen, Harry, Cunningham, Cox, Sidman, & Covill, 2002; Moats, 1994; Moats & Foorman 2003; Stotsky, 2006; Washburn et al., 2016). Studies by Spear-Swerling, Brucker, and Alfano (2005) and Washburn et al. (2016) indicated that pre-service teachers and in-service teachers lack knowledge relating to phonological awareness and phonics, and Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, and Chard (2001) found that teachers feel under-prepared to teach struggling readers, though Cunningham et al. (2004) found a gap between teachers' perceived knowledge and actual knowledge of reading content—teachers estimate they know more than they actually do. Without necessary knowledge and without realizing what they truly know, teachers have the potential to make mistakes during instruction, when analyzing assessments, and when providing feedback (Moats, 1994). This lack of knowledge, as Spear-Swerling et al. (2005) pointed out, has tremendous negative implications for struggling readers and young readers; gaps present in elementary school, for example, only increase. The need for high-quality teachers is highest in "urban and high-poverty communities" where there is a deficit

of such teachers (Lazar, 2007). These schools, however, are generally staffed by a higher proportion of novice teachers, and alternatively and/or emergency certified teachers.

Even though researchers have found gaps in teacher knowledge, other researchers found that TEPs are actively assessing candidates' knowledge (Wineburg, 2006). Wineburg (2006) acknowledged that validity is of question in these assessments, and there is also the question of other mediating factors. Imig and Imig (2006) stated that while emphasis seems to be on content knowledge, novice teachers encounter contexts and obstacles unaddressed in their TEP curricula. The authors mentioned that a divide exists between TEPs and schools because novice teachers are assigned "the most difficult students, in the most difficult schools, with the least support. It would be considerate if new teachers were treated as novice practitioners 'ready to learn' with reduced assignments, limited expectations, and supportive mentoring" (Imig & Imig, 2006, p. 287). Kennedy (1999) elaborated on this point, writing that enacting knowledge is an issue across professions, but in teaching it becomes particularly precarious as teachers must simultaneously use what they know to work with groups who operate at different levels of proficiency and address different external and internal goals.

McDonald, Kazemi, and Kavanagh (2013) stated that many TEPs are organized following an acquisition model—TEP faculty "deliver information", and then teacher candidates must "carry that learning with them as they enter the field" (p. 381). This model of teacher education does not explicitly address the interplay of developed culture within the program in transfer of the knowledge, or how culture moving into field placement could impact the transfer of knowledge. When TEPs are situated in a "practice-based approach", content and pedagogical content knowledge are utilized to understand "learners' knowledge for developing appropriate

pedagogical practices and creating supportive social situations for learning" (Hollins, 2011, p. 397), meaning the existing culture in the TEP is leveraged to enhance knowledge transfer.

TEPs are tasked with imparting content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge to their pre-service teachers (PSTs), with the amount of content knowledge developed in a PST theoretically impacting the development of pedagogical content knowledge (Kleickmann, Richter, Kunter, Elsner, Besser, Krauss, & Baumert, 2013), with foundational knowledge acting as a mechanism to enhance or inhibit transfer (Caffarella, 2002). Shulman (1986, 1987), the father of pedagogical content knowledge, described it as separate from content knowledge. Content knowledge is the *what,* and pedagogical content knowledge is the *how,* specifically how a teacher makes the content accessible to students. Like Shulman (1986, 1987), Elbaz (1981) described the knowledge needed as practical knowledge, which includes personal, theoretical, and experiential dimensions. Perkins (2013) argued that TEPs also help pre-service teachers with emancipatory knowledge, stating:

> 'emancipatory knowledge' is more than learning the words and becoming part of the established discourse; it is bound up with the teachers' own personal experiences, which makes them the people they are…It is the sort of knowledge which is emancipatory because it enables me to question the established discourse and create my own. A cognitive and emotional dissonance occurs when there is a mismatch between personal knowledge and the knowledge required by an external authority. (p. 294)

Whether TEPs truly aid in the development of emancipatory knowledge is open to debate. In a study of personal practice theories of teachers, Levin and He (2008) found that participants' teaching practices were influenced by their own experiences as students in the K-12 setting (28%), experiences during field placements (19%), and observations in field placements (16%).

When combining factors, 66% of participants rooted their theories of practice in their TEP or field experience (p. 62). TEP setting and field placements involve an interaction with individuals, thus inevitably creating a culture, and research into the influence of cooperating teachers (CTs) indicated that pre-service teachers align their practice with their CTs. With the seemingly heavy impact of TEP and CTs, it does not appear probable that most pre-service teachers are creating their own emancipatory knowledge that could run counter to those influences. Perkins (2013), in juxtaposition to her idea of 'emancipatory knowledge' stated that TEP students tend to mimic what they did in their own schooling—"They felt that in school they would discover how that school 'did it' and to comply was to be an effective teacher of reading in that context" (p. 303). This mimicry alludes to the influence of CTs on PSTs, that effective teaching was discovered in school contexts. Related to the idea of knowledge is the idea of teacher candidates' beliefs, which directly influences how or if knowledge is learned in TEPs, and how knowledge is put into practice (Chant, Heafner, & Bennett, 2004). Beliefs are heavily affected by human interaction, relating to the idea of culture created during pre-service teachers' time in a TEP, during a student teaching placement, and then as they transition into being a novice teacher.

Nokes (2009) noted that there are multiple mechanisms for knowledge transfer. One of the most common, especially in experiential learning, is context. Day and Goldstone (2012) argued that while teachers could not address all possible contexts an idea could be applicable, the knowledge learned in a classroom setting is "unlikely to be accessed and applied outside of the classroom" (p. 156). Transfer, however, was more likely to occur when the information is originally presented in ways that engage "cognitive processes that were likely to be engaged"

(Day & Goldstone, 2012, p. 156). Day and Goldstone (2012) warned against relying on context, stating:

> On one hand, presenting information via concrete examples may lead to mental representations that are overly "bound" to a particular context and may interfere with a person's ability both to recognize new situations where their knowledge could be relevant and to apply their knowledge in an appropriate way. On the other hand, efforts to circumvent these problems by presenting information abstractly, with minimal specific context, may seriously impair the learner's ability to accurately represent the information at all. Educators may, reasonably, feel faced with the unappealing task of choosing between comprehensibility and applicability. (p. 158)

Another mechanism of knowledge transfer noted by Pea (1987) involves culture. Schools, whether TEPs or public K-12 institutions, transmit culture (Ventura, Pattamadilok, Fernandes, Klein, Morais, & Kolinsky, 2008). In relation to culture, the transfer of knowledge can be inappropriate (meaning it did not transfer when necessary or it transferred to context it should not have) or appropriate. The appropriateness of the transfer is determined by the culture in which the learner, or in this case, PST, is situated (Shweder, 1986). Green (2013) argued that if the transfer of knowledge is based on one set of cultural concepts only (in his research, western cultural values), then other ways of knowing or learning transfer are marginalized. Green (2013) further mentioned:

> It is worth reflecting here that social interaction itself is frequently governed by cultural mores, and that, if transfer is the outer manifestation of epistemic beliefs, then those epistemic beliefs are likely to be the inner manifestation of culture. (p. 372)

If the belief or behavior at the heart of the transfer process does not align with the cultural values in which the learner is situated, the transfer will not take place (Green, 2013). This concept places further skepticism on Perkins' (2013) idea of emancipatory knowledge—this knowledge theoretically cannot take root if it is at odds with the cultural context.

Hyland (2010) posited that learning involves "the development of knowledge, values, emotions, understanding, reason, skill, experience and insight" (p. 525). On the surface, these elements that relate to learning seem to have a cultural bent to them; aspects such as values and understanding are culturally situated. Hill (2014) stated in a more general way that, "Learning is affected by the context as well as the beliefs and attitudes of the learner" (p. 58). Once again, referencing culture, as beliefs and attitudes are mediated by interaction with others. Specifically, Vygotsky (1978) explained how outward interaction becomes internalized processes. Learning, however, is more than just knowledge and beliefs—it involves helping students see how knowledge is relevant to them (Kanuka, 2010; Kasworm, 2008). In the cases of students who are racially, socioeconomically, or sexually different than their teachers, this process would involve the teacher having enough awareness of his or her cultural positioning and being able to activate relevant pedagogical content knowledge to make the knowledge accessible. Hill (2014) relayed that tying information to their own lives helps students retain and apply the knowledge later.

Student teaching, one of the traditional elements of a TEP and the pre-eminent experiential learning component, has long been considered the means of translating knowledge into practice, as well as predicting student outcomes (NRC, 2010). Hillman, Bottomley, Reisner, and Malin (2000) described the student teaching placement as a means of applying coursework to practice. Ronfeldt, Reininger, and Kwok (2013) found that length of this experience did not relate to a pre-service teacher's "perceived preparedness", but it was "positively related to

teacher efficacy" (p. 331). Pre-service teachers in the student teaching phase felt better prepared when they had a "quality" CT and greater autonomy (Ronfeldt et al., 2013).

While aspects of student teaching placement can impact efficacy, Zeichner and Gore (1990) found that being in these schools can meaningfully socialize teacher candidates. Ronfeldt (2015) stated that, "schools cause student teachers to reproduce the kinds of teaching they encounter in these settings" (p. 306). Adding to this, Hamman, Button, Olivarez, Jr., Lesley, Chan, Griffith, and Woods (2006) shared that during reading instruction, PSTs engaged in practice akin to their CTs. The idea that student teaching placement can shape pre-service teacher's conceptions of their own teaching indicate the possible play of culture. More than likely, given the characteristics of teachers currently teaching in the United States, the PST and CT share characteristics that enabled their interactions to generate or engage in a shared culture. Further, CTs are responsible for most of the PSTs student teaching experience (Fives, Mills, & Dacey, 2016). PSTs become reliant on the knowledge of their CTs, as CTs are the ones primarily giving feedback (Snead & Freiberg, 2019).

The potential of shared culture developed between PSTs and CTs is further supported by the concept that PSTs completing their field work in schools with less teacher turnover were better at raising achievement in their future classrooms than their peers in schools with high-teacher turnover (Ronfeldt, 2012). When more teachers stay in a school, it is possible culture among the staff grows and evolves to be more productive, thereby making knowledge transfer between contexts stronger. The issue, however, is that most PSTs do not complete their student teaching placements in schools such as these. Rather, "schools that were lower performing, harder to staff, less collaborative, and had more historically marginalized students were more likely than other schools to be used as field placements" (Ronfeldt, 2015, p. 311). While it

would seem practicing in context would help with skill-transfer to the novice teaching phase, most novice teachers face great challenges especially in their first year (Kumi-Yeboah & James, 2012).

Whether placing students in these schools is a conscious choice by TEPs is unclear. In the state in which this study was conducted, the Educational Professional Standards Board (EPSB) is the organization which oversees approval of TEPs in the state, as well as the certification of teachers and administrators. EPSB (2020) set forth regulations pursuant to state law about student teaching placements, requiring PSTs to have 200 field hours prior to student teaching. Within those 200 hours, PSTs must be in schools whose populations are ethnically and culturally different from how the PSTs identify, also including experience with students across grade levels, as well as with students who have disabilities and are English Language Learners (ELLs). CTs are required to take an EPSB training that outlines their responsibilities, best practices in supporting PSTs, and effective assessment of PSTs (EPSB, 2020). There is no outright requirement for where student teaching placements must occur.

It is also important to note that White teachers are more likely to transfer schools after their first jobs than their Black and Hispanic peers, and teachers generally settle in schools with students who resemble themselves (Boyd et al. 2011). In addition, White PSTs were less effective at teaching "underserved students" before and after completing their student teaching placement as compared to PSTs of other races (Ronfeldt et al., 2013, p. 326). The tendency of teachers to teach in schools with students who are of the same race as them, combined with the differing levels of effectiveness of PSTs at teaching diverse students, suggests the power of culture in choice-making about their careers and instruction, even if done subconsciously. Particularly regarding reading instructional effectiveness, if PSTs are presented with necessary

knowledge in their coursework, as the accreditation of their programs would suggest, then it is possible that cultural differences influence the transfer of knowledge to this context.

Research Questions

By utilizing first-hand accounts with knowledge transfer between pre-service coursework and student teaching placement, and student teaching placement to novice teaching, I seek to answer the overarching question: How do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from their TEPs to their own classrooms? I will do so by addressing the following questions:

1. How do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from aspects of their program (coursework and student teaching) to their own classrooms?
2. How do elementary novice teachers perceive the role of different mechanisms of knowledge transfer in their lived experience?

Significance of the Research

While TEPs include experiential learning to build context, work to build prior knowledge through coursework, and some are starting to address culture through the building of cultural competence, teachers still enter the profession without the skills necessary to address the learning needs of all students. A number of quantitative studies (Hikida, Chamberlain, Tily, Daly-Lesch, Warner, & Schallert, 2019; Spear-Swirling & Brucker, 2003; Washburn, Joshi, & Cantrell, 2011) attest to a reality where teachers do not have the knowledge they think they do. What is missing, however, is an account of novice teachers' lived realities transferring knowledge. They come to their first classrooms equipped with what they retained from their TEPs, which quantitatively has been proven to be not enough to meet student needs, though the content theoretically meets

standards for accreditation. If the content is not the issue, then the mechanisms of transfer are brought into question. One or more mechanism of knowledge transfer is inhibited or distorted to alter what knowledge the novice teacher brings into the classroom. As Dewey (1938) wrote in a foundational work on experiential learning:

> An experience may be such as to engender callousness; it may produce lack of sensitivity and responsiveness. Then the possibilities of having richer experience in the future are restricted... An experience may be immediately enjoyable and yet promote the formation of a slack and careless attitude. (p. 25-26)

These experiences incorporate different cultural understandings, require differing amounts of prior knowledge, and impact motivation as well, thereby connecting mechanisms of knowledge transfer. By exploring the lived experiences and perceptions of reading knowledge transfer in novice elementary teachers, TEPs can work to ensure that the mechanisms employed to transfer content knowledge are strengthened. We know that students living in poverty are more likely to have novice teachers—if more novice teachers were able to transfer reading content into their first classrooms, perhaps progress could be made on the achievement gap.

Conceptual Framework

Three lenses underpin this study: social constructivism, Situated Learning Theory, and critical pedagogies. Social constructivists ascribe to the theory that individuals develop subjective understandings of the world around them (Creswell & Poth, 2014). Knowledge is accepted as truth within specific contexts, being mediated by social and historical factors (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Gergen, 1985; Holstein & Gubrium, 1994; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003; Moll, 2014; Schwandt, 1994). Knowledge is not specifically tied to the context, rather it is shaped by the people in the context.

Because social constructivists view interaction as shaping knowledge, there is much emphasis on the role of language in the creation and transfer of knowledge across individuals (Gergen, 1985, Holstein & Gubrium, 1994; Shotter, 1993). Vygotsky (1962) explained that concepts, much like Piaget's (1968, 1970) schèmes, form and transfer to contexts when the individual perceives similarities, even if they are only surface-level similarities. The concepts and thought patterns of the individual are shaped by the cultural context of the individual (Vygotsky, 1962). Specifically regarding thought, Vygotsky (1978) theorized that thought occurs first as an interaction between two or more people, then the words and ideas are internalized and used as a frame of reference, or self-talk.

This conception of how knowledge is created in a shared culture helps support the use of Lave and Wenger's (1991) Situated Learning Theory, which helps explain how knowledge within a community transfers among its membership, moving novices to experts. Knowledge is situated in the culture, and through interactions with other community members, novices learn explicit and tacit information important to the function and perpetuation of the community.

Critical pedagogies, specifically engaged pedagogy (hooks, 2014) and abolitionist pedagogy (Love, 2019) are used in reference to how knowledge of reading instruction presents itself in interactions with students. Assuming the goal of education is to impart skills to help students be successful in their endeavors, teachers must be able to effectively reach all students, valuing who they are as individuals.

Social constructivism, Situated Learning Theory, and critical pedagogies were interwoven to form the conceptual framework for this study because much of a PSTs knowledge and practice is influenced by their interactions within their TEP and with the CTs, thereby making the social element highly impactful. These lenses look at knowledge creation as well as

culture in context, which connects to multiple mechanisms for knowledge transfer found in the literature. Using these lenses also helps best analyze knowledge of reading instruction from its creation within the communities of TEPs to the interaction with students, providing a better means for recognizing potential breakdowns which will later inhibit teachers' abilities to effectively teach reading and students' abilities to effectively utilize reading skills.

Methodology

Since this study centers on the idea of knowledge construction and transfer being socially mediated, a phenomenological methodology is employed to explore the lived experiences and interactions of the participants. Schutz (1967) describes language in phenomenology as giving meaning and relaying reality, that interaction communicates meaning. Moustakas (1994) explained that:

> Phenomenology, step-by-step, attempts to eliminate everything that represents a prejudgment, setting aside presuppositions, and reaching a transcendental state of freshness and openness, a readiness to see in an unfettered way, not threatened by the customs, beliefs, and prejudices of normal science, by the habits of the natural world or by knowledge based on unreflected everyday experience. (p. 41)

Phenomenology requires the researcher to set asides his or her own personal thoughts on a phenomenon and let the participants' words speak for themselves.

Moustakas (1994) also explained that "knowledge and experience" are rooted in phenomena, and that the knower exists in unity with his or her surroundings and objects of knowing. This idea connects to sociocultural theory, in which knowledge is created and influenced by one's relations to his or her surroundings. Through phenomenological research, knowledge and experience are clarified through reflection, and the researcher is committed to

descriptions of the experience as relayed by the participants; the researcher does not seek to explain or analyze (Moustakas 1994).

Limitations

This study is limited to novice elementary teachers who teach in one rural public-school district in a mid-southern state, meaning only teachers within their first three years of teaching in this one district are included. This type of participant is the focus because they are not far removed from their TEP coursework or their student teaching placement and are settling into the cultures of their respective schools. Since the coursework in question centers on foundational reading content and pedagogical knowledge, the participants are also limited to elementary school teachers. Participation is further limited to novice teachers who became certified teachers after completing a traditional initial certification, meaning those who obtained certification after completing an alternative certification path are excluded from the scope of this study. Combined with the nature of qualitative work, the results of this study cannot be generalized beyond these specific participants.

This study is further limited by the influence of mentorship programs. In 2018, the internship program for the state's teachers was suspended due to lack of funding (Adams, 2018). The purpose of the internship program was to support novice teachers during their first year of teaching, leading to full certification. Teachers in their third year of teaching in this study will have experienced the program, while teachers in their first and second years will not as it ended as they entered the teaching profession; these teachers may or may not have experienced mentorship programs supplied by the district, as it is not required but "encouraged" (Adams, 2018). Third year teachers might have a difference in knowledge transfer as a result of the mentorship variable.

Literature Search

Relevant literature to ground this study's literature review, theoretical framework, and methodology was found in a few ways. Academic journals were accessed using EBSCO Host and ProQuest searches, as well as JSTOR and Sage Journals using the following search terms: knowledge transfer, reading content knowledge, elementary reading instruction, pedagogical content knowledge, teacher effectiveness, teacher preparation programs, student teaching, and field placements. Articles from the following journals from years 2009-2019 were considered: Journal of Research in Reading, Journal of Literacy Research, Teacher Development, Journal of Teacher Education, College Teaching, Adult Learning, Cognitive Psychology, and Journal of Memory and Language. Relevant books from the Bellarmine University library, as well as books purchased and borrowed for this study, regarding student teaching, culture, Situated Learning Theory, critical pedagogies, and foundational works from Vygotsky, Piaget, and Dewey were utilized.

Definition of Terms

To avoid any confusion, terms integral to this study are outlined.

Cooperating Teachers (CTs): certified teachers who supervise PSTs during their student teaching placements and field experience. CTs and other teachers actively working in school districts are also known as in-service teachers.

Culture: the beliefs, values, language, and actions developed through interaction between individuals with shared characteristics such as race, gender, age, socioeconomics, and/or sexual orientation (Crossley, 2015).

Field experience: is an umbrella term for practical experience in classrooms during a TEP, including observation hours and student teaching.

Novice teacher: a teacher three years or less removed from his or her TEP (Huberman, 1993).

Pre-service teachers (PSTs): also known as “candidates” or “teacher candidates” in educational literature, are individuals enrolled in a TEP.

Struggling school: a school with low-student achievement as measured by standardized tests. It is important to note that while these schools generally have larger proportions of students of color, English language learners (ELLs), and students living in poverty, these characteristics do not mean these students are destined to struggle; this term is not used to invite a deficit perspective, rather it is used to align with the literature base.

Student teaching placements: prolonged periods of practical experience in which the PST works in conjunction with the CT to essentially put into practice what he or she learned during coursework with the CT’s class.

Teacher education programs (TEPs): programs set within universities with the goal of preparing pre-service teachers. They are tasked with teaching pre-service teachers pedagogical content knowledge necessary for teaching in school contexts.

Transfer: taking knowledge from one situation and applying it to another, through direct action or for informing decisions.

Summary

The most recent NAEP assessment indicated that the majority of fourth grade students are performing below proficiency (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). Wide

discrepancies exist between racial groups, as well as socioeconomic groups, with differences aligned with gender present, too. Even though TEPs provide evidence to accrediting bodies, largely CAEP, that their instruction aligns with standards set forth by CAEP, InTASC, and the ILA, pre-service teachers and in-service teachers do not possess the necessary knowledge to teach young readers (Hikida, Chamberlain, Tily, Daly-Lesch, Warner, & Schallert, 2019; Spear-Swirling & Brucker, 2003; Washburn, Joshi, & Cantrell, 2011). Knowledge is not transferring from coursework to student teaching placement to the novice teaching phase and considering the composition of the teaching force in the United States (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017), one must begin investigating mechanisms of knowledge transfer.

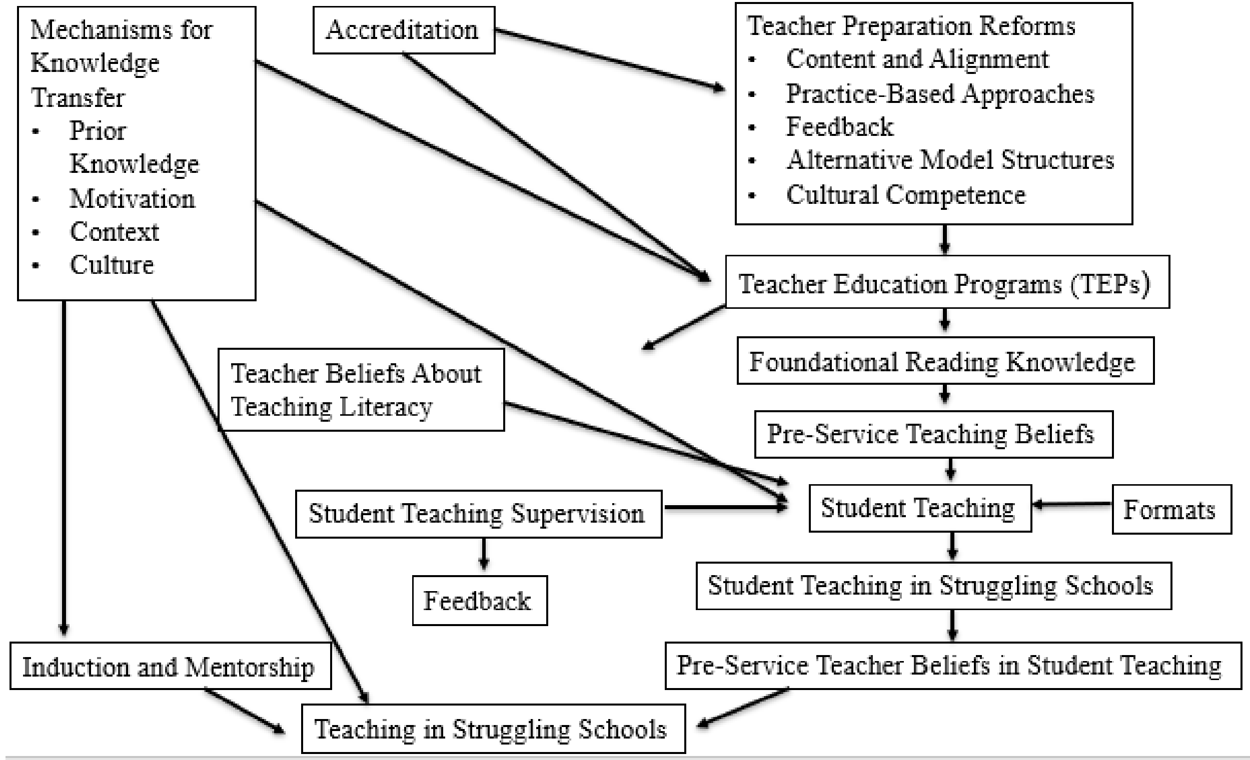
While putting the knowledge into context during student teaching placement is seen as key to the learning process (Hillman et al., 2000; NRC, 2010), both the duration of the placement (Ronfeldt et al., 2013) and the students with whom the PST worked (Ronfeldt, 2012) made no difference in PST outcomes. PSTs were, however, drastically impacted by their CTs, often mimicking their approaches (Hamman et al., 2006; Ronfeldt, 2015; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). The focus on interaction between individuals who are relatively similar, constructing shared values brings the issue of culture as a mechanism for knowledge transfer into question (Crossley, 2015; Pea, 1987; Shweder, 1986). Through social interaction, people create culture among themselves reflecting shared beliefs, values, and behaviors that influence the internalizing of knowledge and processes (Green, 2013; Hill, 2014; Hyland, 2010; Kanuka, 2010; Kasworm, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978). There are mechanisms of knowledge transfer at work, but the fragmentation of the transfer from the TEP to the novice teacher's classroom suggests something is inhibiting the transfer.

Literature Review

Teacher preparation is a complex system, impacted by politics, accreditation, context, cultural differences, and even what is happening in the school districts surrounding the TEP. In the following section, a synthesis of research relating to different components in knowledge transfer as PSTs become novice teachers is presented to provide background into the current research problem and study. Figure 1 depicts connections between literature review topics.

Figure 1

Literature Review Connections



Knowledge Transfer

Educators have been accused of not considering how knowledge will transfer when planning lessons (Thomas, 2007), which is troubling since not all learning experiences will bring about effective knowledge transfer (NRC, 1999). Miller (2011) noted that university professors

need to be mindful of the different types of memory when planning lessons for their adult students, primarily when the goal is knowledge retention. The types of memory include sensory memory, which holds information for a few seconds making it unable for the brain to fully interpret it; short term memory, which holds information being used for the task at hand and is often pushed aside in favor of information necessary for the next unless it is repeatedly rehearsed; and long-term memory, which stores information permanently, though it must be retrieved and readmitted into short-term memory to be utilized (Miller, 2011). While many professors and students consider memorization to be positive since information appears to be shifted into long-term memory, transfer is enhanced when a person truly comprehends the information rather than merely able to recite it (NRC, 1999). In fact, Macaulay and Cree (1999) stated that:

> students often enter Higher Education with a conception of learning as a process of memorization (a procedure that may have proved effective in attaining the qualification to gain entrance to a course) rather than as developing insight. This often leads to the use of 'surface' learning strategies involving rote learning and a lack of reflectiveness, rather than 'deep processing' which involves an intention to understand complex ideas. (p. 187)

When students enter university settings, surface learning and memorization gives the illusion of deep understanding, leading to assumptions that deeper ideas are learned and will be transferrable as well. Students complete coursework indicating they learned content, but the content is not easily retrieved from memory because it was not reflected upon or learned in-depth.

Knowledge Transfer and Prior Knowledge

Knowledge transfer is impacted by a few different mechanisms. First, is prior knowledge. The National Research Council (1999) found that "Without an adequate level of initial learning, transfer cannot be expected" (p. 41). The application, or transfer, of knowledge from situation to situation is made easier when a person can make use of patterns to retrieve useful information (NRC, 1999). Piaget (1968, 1970) called these generalized and repeatable patterns schèmes. These schèmes become an issue when the person either does not have enough information stored or is not able to recognize applicable patterns. TEPs struggle to help PSTs transfer knowledge between contexts because they are made to be generalists (Day, & Goldstone, 2012). The National Research Council (1999) noted that knowledge transfer suffers when teachers cover too much information in a short amount of time because "students (a) learn only isolated sets of facts that are not organized or connected or (b) are introduced to organizing principles that they cannot grasp because they lack enough specific knowledge to make them meaningful" (p. 46). This relates to the idea presented by Macaulay and Cree (1999), in that learning is reduced to surface features, lacking a depth that will help facilitate transfer. In the realm of teacher preparation, if PSTs do not have enough prior knowledge to understand theoretical underpinnings of the five pillars of reading, transfer of that knowledge will be reduced.

Knowledge Transfer and Motivation

When knowledge is not meaningful to a student, motivation is impacted—an affective mechanism which, when lacking, can further diminish knowledge transfer (Knowles, Marlow, & Muchmore, 1992; NRC, 2010; Pea, 1987). This lack of motivation can impact an individual's

metacognition. Being aware of how one learns, being able to "assess their readiness" (p. 55), and monitoring one's learning improves knowledge transfer (NRC, 1999).

Knowledge Transfer and Context

Another mechanism for knowledge transfer is context (NRC, 1999). Cox and Criss (2017) noted that memories rooted in events and any information related to those events an individual deems relevant are encoded separately in the brain but will be retrieved together thereby strengthening the association between the memory and associated information. This is, perhaps, why many researchers and educators advocate for learning in context—the information from a relevant context is associated with a concept being taught, thus strengthening the relationship between the two (Treff & Earnest, 2016). Information is retained when individuals compare it to existing information and can make connections, while also taking beliefs into account (Day & Goldstone, 2011; Hill, 2014; Hyland, 2010). Thomas (2007) reported in work with novice social workers that while they are trained to work with people living in poverty, they often do not get to practice relevant counseling skills, leaving them uncomfortable to do so in real life, which is consistent with Kanuaka (2010) and Kasworm's (2008) works in which the ability to match information to the context of lived reality facilitates transfer.

Kuk and Holst (2018) defined experiential learning—the act of learning in a context—as containing three parts, "experience, reflection based on prior knowledge, and learned experience as a result" (p. 151). Michelson (2015) noted that reflection is relative to an individual, so while two people may experience learning in the same context, each will walk away with different conceptions of the experience. Bearing that in mind, it is important for educators to be aware that different people may transfer learning differently in the same context based on what previous knowledge and experience shape their reflections (Allman, 2001; Kuk & Holst, 2018).

Context as a mechanism of knowledge transfer is generally viewed as analogical. In order for someone to engage in analogical transfer, one much have a "prior exemplar", map it to a "current problem or situation", and make an inference (Nokes, 2009, p. 3). This type of transfer is only efficient when one can match both "surface features and deep structure" (p. 30), with more cognitive work necessary when contexts are increasingly dissimilar in their surface or deep structures (Nokes, 2009). Novice learners will rely more heavily on surface features, resulting in more frequent inappropriate transfer, while experts will rely on both surface and deep level features (Novick, 1988).

While being able to do use analogical transfer helps an individual be able to predict patterns and adjust behaviors accordingly (Klayman, 1988), when features are dissimilar, individuals might inappropriately transfer knowledge between contexts. Pea (1987) critiqued the concept of analogical transfer, as it assumes that the individual has the ability to accurately judge that his or her analogy is appropriate, when "not all analogies are good ones. Most importantly, the goodness of the analogy depends on the purposes of the analogizing. Whether the analogical transfer of knowledge is judged to be 'good' depends on who is doing the evaluation" (p. 649). One may believe he or she is making an appropriate analogy, but others may disagree, thereby making the analogy wrong in the context. This will later connect to the idea of culture as a mechanism for knowledge transfer, as knowledge can be culturally-situated and developed.

While educators advocate for teaching in context, Day and Goldstone (2012) warned that only teaching in one context could:

> lead to mental representations that are overly "bound" to a particular context and may interfere with a person's ability both to recognize new situations where their knowledge could be relevant and to apply their knowledge in an appropriate way. On the other hand,

> efforts to circumvent these problems by presenting information abstractly, with minimal specific context, may seriously impair the learner's ability to accurately represent the information at all. Educators may, reasonably, feel faced with the unappealing task of choosing between comprehensibility and applicability. (p. 158)

While context may enhance transfer, it may also hinder it. If students are only taught a concept in one context and not taught the concept so they can recognize deeper features and patterns of application, they may struggle to transfer it elsewhere, instead relying on surface features which may result in inappropriate transfer. Further, in a foundational work on experiential learning, Dewey (1938) argued that some experiences educate counter to the designated purpose. He noted that, "An experience may be such as to engender callousness; it may produce lack of sensitivity and responsiveness. Then the possibilities of having richer experience in the future are restricted... An experience may be immediately enjoyable and yet promote the formation of a slack and careless attitude" (p. 25-26). While TEPs attempt to help PSTs implement theory into practice by requiring field work, when field placements and CTs are not properly vetted and these placements are not properly supervised, PSTs could have enjoyable field experiences that lead to detrimental habits instead of the preferable habits TEPs envision.

Knowledge Transfer and Culture

One final mechanism of knowledge transfer is culture. Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, and Miller (2003) stated that, "The issues of culture and learning have been inseparable for centuries for the simple reason that one of the main goals of learning is the transmission of culture from generation to generation" (p. 15). When there is dissonance between what someone brings from their culture and another context, transfer is inhibited (NRC, 2010). While researchers have conducted studies of TEPs for alignment to professional standards, effectiveness of student

teaching experiences, pre-service teacher knowledge, and the impact of Whiteness on pre-service teacher attitude (Fasching-Varner, 2012), the impact of culture on knowledge transfer from coursework to student teaching, and from student teaching to the novice teaching period has not been explicitly explored. The impacts of culture which have been analyzed narrow the lens to solely race, which is but one aspect of culture. Crossley (2015) explained that culture can only exist between individuals who share commonalities, and it is strengthened through interactions in networks. Understanding culture in this way means elements such as gender, age, sexual orientation, and socioeconomics play into the creation of common uses of language, body posturing, belief, and values in between individuals who share those factors. Crossley (2015) mentioned that cultural diffusion is unlikely to occur between individuals and networks that are seemingly diametrically opposed—for example, members of a masculine culture are less likely to adopt elements of a feminine culture because they are generally presented in opposition to one another. Culture also includes “socioeconomic and ethnocultural factors” which impact the way information is interpreted (Kozulun, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003, p. 27). Bearing this in mind, Green (2013) warned that it is incumbent upon educators to be aware that:

> certain types of learning themselves may be predicated on cultural values and transfer of learning itself is not exempt from this. If effective learning, and hence transfer of learning, is premised on assumptions of the learner possessing values and beliefs that are consistent with western cultural values only, then it is time to re-examine, in a global, culturally diverse learning community, transfer’s increasing dominance in tertiary education. (p. 371)

Vygotsky (1978) theorized that interactions between people shape the inner thought processes of an individual, and since these interactions adhere to accepted cultural norms, these norms then

become internalized into beliefs (Crossley, 2015). Connecting to the idea that learning is the passing on of culture, Green (2013) wrote that knowledge transfer that occurs is a reflection of the culture in which it is situated. Crossley (2015) added that cultural knowledge is only passed through certain types of contact; someone who is exposed to a culture that is opposed to his or her own is less likely to adopt aspects of that culture. When the beliefs or values of the individual do not match the inherent values encasing the knowledge being transferred, then the transfer will either be inappropriate, incomplete, or nonexistent (Ventura, Pattamadilok, Fernandes, Klein, Morais, & Kolinsky, 2008). Shweder (1986) defined inappropriate transfer as situations in which an individual transferred knowledge that was actually unrelated to the context or failed to transfer knowledge that was relevant. Appropriate transfer occurs when knowledge is transferred to a situation and it is deemed acceptable by the culture of the individual. For example, what is considered appropriate knowledge transfer in a situation with others from the same culture may be inappropriate knowledge transfer if the person in question was with others from a different culture. Since appropriate transfer is dependent on cultural conventions and values, Pea (1987) noted that even some parts of the knowledge will be "censored because of taboos that vary cross-culturally" (p. 649).

Pea (1987) also connects culture to affective mechanisms of transfer, explaining:

> Evaluations of simulated mental effort may influence the likelihood of knowledge transfer even when students have availability and access to transfer-relevant knowledge. Such mental effort conservation is fundamentally cultural because perceived transfer benefits are value-dependent. What one considers transfer of learning to be "worth" in one's effort calculations (whether tacit or explicit) is influenced by cultural concerns such as the value of time, and accountability to others. Determination of such costs will in part

> depend on an individual's idiosyncratic history of costs and benefits for knowledge transfer in what he or she perceives to be similar situations to the current one. Furthermore, one's projections of the likely cognitive effort of knowledge transfer activities is itself probably influenced by the sophistication of one's prior knowledge. (p. 649)

If a person believes that knowledge will not be pertinent or of value to their context or reality, then that knowledge is less likely to be stored and transferred, even if it is necessary knowledge for future use. In the context of teacher preparation, this can become problematic because if PSTs do not believe a concept will be of value to them, but a change in context reveals the information to be valuable as they enter the novice teaching phase, the knowledge will not be available to them for transfer.

When one does judge the transfer to be worthwhile and assumes its correctness when in actuality the transfer is inappropriate, the individual can view this as failure. As an elementary example, this could occur when a reader makes use of the VCe pattern (a word with a vowel, a consonant, followed by a silent 'e') to help decode the irregular word "come". Seeing the silent 'e', a reader might inappropriately transfer their understanding of the VCe pattern and pronounce the word like /comb/ instead of its actual pronunciation. In this case, the knowledge was transferred, but it was done in an inappropriate instance. If this happens too many times, motivation decreases and an individual will choose not to learn (Pea, 1987).

Reading Instruction

While not exhaustive, this portion of the literature review serves to briefly discuss the concept of quality reading instruction—theoretically, what PSTs should learn about in their TEP coursework and how to implement it in their student teaching placement. This study will look at

the transfer of reading instruction knowledge, both content and pedagogy, as PSTs become novice teachers. In order to understand what knowledge should have transferred, it is integral to know what reading instruction should include.

Elements of Reading Instruction

The National Reading Panel (2000) determined that quality reading instruction should include elements to address phonological awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension strategies, with emphasis on scientifically based reading instruction to help more children learn to read (Lyon, 1999). Within shared reading for intermediate readers, Fisher, Frey, and Ladd (2008) indicated focus should be on comprehension, vocabulary and structures within the text.

Further defined, phonological awareness refers to the concept of words being comprised of sounds, with phonemic awareness referring to the identification and manipulation of individual sounds (morphemes) in words spoken orally (Brown, 2014). Phonics refers to "systematic relationships between letters and sounds" and how to use those patterns to quickly decode (Brown, 2014, p. 42). Phonemic awareness and phonics need to be addressed explicitly and systematically (Moats & Foorman, 2003; Washburn, Joshi, & Cantrell, 2011). Explicit instruction "raises these children's levels of word consciousness, which in turn might increase their abilities to notice and learn unknown words more independently and incidentally" (Kesler, 2010, p. 272). Touching on the remaining three of the five pillars of reading instruction, Moats and Foorman (2003) wrote:

> Teaching students to read with fluency necessitates the instruction of automatic, accurate word recognition, which rests in part on the ability to process syllables and morphemes found in longer words…. Instruction of vocabulary requires an understanding of semantic

> organization and the relationships among word structure, grammatical rule, and meaning. Comprehension instruction requires the teacher to know and explicate such linguistic concepts as text organization, genre, inter- and instrasentence references, figurative and idiomatic language, and the complex sentence structure found in academic discourse. (p. 24)

Even in a brief overview of the five pillars of reading, it becomes evident that surface level knowledge of each is not adequate to meet the recommendations from experts in the field.

Younger children—kindergarteners, in the context of the elementary school structure—need special consideration in conjunction with the NRP recommendations. The National Early Literacy Panel (2008) found that alphabetic knowledge, phonological awareness, and rapid naming of letters, numbers objects, colors are predictive of later success in reading. In fact, children who are unable to master these skills typically do not comprehend texts at grade-level expectations (NELP, 2008). To best address these factors, NELP (2008) recommended focus on concepts about print and oral language development in younger grades, particularly kindergarten. Concepts about print include a student's ability to understand that print "tells the story", but also knowing the features of the physical book, how to hold the book, directionality of text, and the function of punctuation (Brown, 2014, p. 38). The alphabetic principle, or the concept that written letters have specific names and match spoken words, can also be an indicator of struggle; when readers do not firmly grasp this concept, all other reading systems become virtually impossible; the alphabetic principle is a bridge from phonological awareness to phonics (NRC, 2010). Reading further becomes a struggle when readers cannot shift "comprehension skills of spoken language to reading and to acquire new strategies" (p. 79), and when readers lose motivation to read (NRC, 2010).

Relating to comprehension strategies, Dole, Brown, and Trathen (1996) found that a reader's comprehension improves when he or she is taught to monitor his or her own comprehension and implement appropriate strategies. Afflerbach, Cho, Kim, Crassas, and Doyle (2013) found that when readers successfully comprehend text, they engage in metacognition and are motivated.

Lack of Knowledge Concerning the Five Pillars

While it is known what elements should be addressed in elementary classrooms, teachers do not have the knowledge to effectively expand on students' understanding of phonemic awareness or phonics (Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, & Chard, 2001; Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; McCutchen, Harry, et al., 2002; Moats & Foorman, 2003; Pearson, 1996; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2004), and PSTs generally do not receive enough instruction on reading development and how disorders impact such development. Joshi, Binks, Hougen, Dahlgren, Ocker-Dean, and Smith (2009) found that more likely than not, elementary teachers could not determine why phonics instruction was integral to their students' reading. It is possible that this lack of knowledge is related to the fact that PSTs on average take just two courses relating to reading (Lyon & Weiser, 2009), which is problematic, as the National Research Council (2010) determined that reading teachers need to be able to bring students to mastery on foundational skills. Additionally, when communicating this knowledge, PSTs do not need specific instructional strategies, rather they need "an arsenal of strategies they can use to meet the needs of diverse students" (NRC, 2010, p. 87).

When teachers do not know what they are teaching at a deep level, student outcomes suffer, as teachers cannot effectively meet NRP recommendations (Morris, 2015; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2004). Professional development has been shown to address some of these deficits

(Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2004), though knowledge acquisition seems to be impacted by educational attainment, years of teaching experience, and experiences with coaches, with degrees earned and "scope of professional requirements" having a larger impact on literacy knowledge (Fitzharris, Jones, & Crawford, 2008, p. 390). Having more degrees, more teaching experience, and more feedback from coaches are traditionally viewed as variables which positively impact teacher knowledge. In Fitzharris, Jones, and Crawford's (2008) study of teacher literacy knowledge, teachers with more degrees and more responsibility within the school were more likely to have more literacy knowledge than teachers with more experience or feedback from coaches.

Teacher Beliefs About Teaching Literacy

Related to the concept of knowledge is the concept of teachers' beliefs about literacy. Knowledge and belief intermingle, which can impact how instruction is delivered (Cunningham, Zibulsky, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2009). Relating to this, Meijer, Verloop, and Beijaard (2001) wrote:

> we viewed teachers' beliefs and knowledge as inseparable, although beliefs are seen roughly as referring to personal values, attitudes, or ideologies, and knowledge to a teacher's more factual propositions. Taken together, teachers' knowledge and beliefs are a huge body of personal theories, values, factual propositions, and so forth that are found in teachers' minds and that teachers can, sometimes more easily than at other times, summon and make explicit. A teacher's knowledge and beliefs are important determinants of a teacher's actions. (p.172)

If teachers do not believe a practice is valuable, either because it was not of focus in their TEP, it was not part of their experience in student teaching, or it is not encouraged within the culture of the school in which they work, they are less likely to implement it—even if it is beneficial.

Considering NRP recommendations, it is interesting to note how teachers choose to spend their instructional time. In a study of how teachers manage their language arts block, Cunningham et al. (2009) found that teachers spent most of their time on "teacher managed" activities in which the teacher is the focus of the lesson (models and assorted whole class lessons), closely followed by independent reading and writing, with phonics specifically addressed 11.5% of instructional time, and all other NRP recommended elements receiving "far less coverage" (p. 423). In this same study, when asked how they might restructure their time, some teachers responded they would cut time spent on phonics rather than elements of their reading instruction that do not specifically address NRP recommendations (Cunningham et al., 2009). In contrast, other teachers took time from teacher-directed activities to make a more balanced literacy block with time more appropriately distributed among the different elements of reading instruction, indicating that teacher beliefs could influence instruction (Cunningham et al., 2009). Beliefs are linked to instruction in this study, as teachers with less phonics knowledge were more likely to spend less time on explicit phonics instruction than teachers who had a deeper level of knowledge, thus taking away time from phonics to put towards other instructional areas (Cunningham et al., 2009).

McCutchen, Harry, Cunningham, Cox, Sidman, and Covill, (2002) found the opposite. In their sample, teacher beliefs were not associated with practice or student outcome. Their study analyzed teacher knowledge of phonology and children's literature—both topics covered to some degree in TEPs. Teachers in the study knew less about phonology, but they did know a

great deal about children's literature. Phonological knowledge was tested for correlation with "end-of-year word reading" (p. 223) and was positively associated with their students' reading outcomes but was only significant in kindergarten. The authors suggested that there could be relatively low reliability in assessment for first and second grade teachers in the sample (McCutchen et al. 2002). The positive correlation between teacher phonological knowledge and student reading outcomes in kindergarten help illustrate the importance of teachers developing a deep knowledge of phonics during their TEPs, as not developing this knowledge set can have potential negative ramifications for students.

Accreditation

The following section provides a brief overview of accreditation, the means for theoretically monitoring the quality of TEPs. While accreditation provides standards for programs, not all programs are structured in the same way or teach concepts to the same degree, all of which can impact the knowledge and subsequent knowledge transfer of the PST.

Accreditation is an accountability process by which universities analyze their programs and prove they align with the accrediting body's standards. In the world of TEPs, the accrediting body is the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). CAEP sets standards for knowledge and dispositions of which future educators must demonstrate mastery by the end of their program, while also asserting that TEPs must select discipline specific standards from Specialized Professional Associations (SPAs) such as reading standards from the International Literacy Association (ILA) (CAEP, n.d.). CAEP looks for evidence of The Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) standards, which state generally that teachers need to understand content knowledge in his or her discipline (standard four), to understand how to apply content knowledge in accessible ways in the classroom (standard five),

and to understand and use a variety of instructional strategies to engage students (standard eight) (InTASC, 2013). The ILA's (2010) literacy standards for Pre-K and elementary teachers address more specifically what content and pedagogy teacher candidates need:

1.1: Understand major theories and empirical research that describe the cognitive, linguistic, motivational, and sociocultural foundations of reading and writing development, processes, and components, including word recognition, language comprehension, strategic knowledge, and reading–writing connections.

1.2: Understand the historically shared knowledge of the profession and changes over time in the perceptions of reading and writing development, processes, and components

1.3: Understand the role of professional judgment and practical knowledge for improving all students' reading development and achievement.

2.1: Use foundational knowledge to design or implement an integrated, comprehensive, and balanced curriculum.

2.2: Use appropriate and varied instructional approaches, including those that develop word recognition, language comprehension, strategic knowledge, and reading–writing connections.

2.3: Use a wide range of texts (e.g., narrative, expository, and poetry) from traditional print, digital, and online resources.

3.1: Understand types of assessments and their purposes, strengths, and limitations.

3.2: Select, develop, administer, and interpret assessments, both traditional print and electronic, for specific purposes.

3.3: Use assessment information to plan and evaluate instruction.

3.4: Communicate assessment results and implications to a variety of audiences.

4.1: Recognize, understand, and value the forms of diversity that exist in society and their importance in learning to read and write.

4.2: Use a literacy curriculum and engage in instructional practices that positively impact students' knowledge, beliefs, and engagement with the features of diversity.

4.3: Develop and implement strategies to advocate for equity.

5.1: Design the physical environment to optimize students' use of traditional print, digital, and online resources in reading and writing instruction.

5.2: Design a social environment that is low risk and includes choice, motivation, and scaffolded support to optimize students' opportunities for learning to read and write.

5.3: Use routines to support reading and writing instruction (e.g., time allocation, transitions from one activity to another; discussions, and peer feedback).

5.4: Use a variety of classroom configurations (i.e., whole class, small group, and individual) to differentiate instruction.

Organizations engage in a self-study, reporting their results to CAEP, with site visits from a visit team (CAEP, n.d.). Members of the visit team are from other colleges and universities. The National Research Council reported that "The criteria for the selection of peers—whether teachers, administrators, or researchers—might have a profound influence on the resulting review because of those individuals' professional views regarding the elements that are important or effective in teacher preparation" (p. 163).

While accreditation is supposed to ensure the quality of the TEP, Zeichner (2006) indicated that there are still weak TEPs, meaning there are still foundational flaws that are not being addressed (Allington, 2005). Allington (2005) argued that while TEPs need to "document that the courses and experiences offered in our teacher education programs do matter" (p. 200),

the focus of TEPs, in his view, has shifted to course distribution rather than candidate competence, meaning TEPs pack coursework with information and experiences but are not effectively evaluating if their students truly know the content. Further illustrating the point that there is room for improvement in the accreditation process, Zeichner (2006) wrote that InTASC standards are not concrete, allowing for variation between programs. He used the following example:

> INTASC Standard 3, "Diverse Learners," is defined as "The teacher understands how students differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners." A list of key indicators is also presented to further define the meaning of the standard. These include indicators like the following: "designs instruction appropriate to students' stages of development, learning styles, strengths and needs (3.1)." Although the inclusion of indicators like these brings the articulation of the standards closer to the work of teaching, they still need to be translated into activities and routines that teachers can learn how to enact to realize the purposes of the standards. (Zeichner, 2012, p. 377)

Knowledge transfer can be problematic in this instance because different interpretations of accrediting standards interferes with multiple mechanisms of transfer. Firstly, prior knowledge could be impacted because what one TEP determines is essential to the standard might not be essential to another. Secondly, context could be impeded because each TEP could potentially link skills to certain contexts that are being learned at surface levels or, perhaps, not learned at all. Finally, differing professional cultures could develop as a result, which could enhance or hinder knowledge transfer.

Teacher Education Programs (TEPs)

TEPs are important to this study for they play a large role in facilitating or unintentionally inhibiting knowledge transfer. They provide the knowledge, as well as contextual experiences and instances of feedback for PSTs, which can have direct impact on their practice as they become novice teachers. In the United States, there are two types of TEPs—traditional programs and alternative programs. Traditional programs are housed within colleges and universities, with between 70-80% of teachers receiving their preparation from them. The remaining teachers receive their training from "approximately 130 'alternative' routes" (NRC, 2010, p. 2). Considering this, the TEPs of focus in the literature review and study overall are the traditional programs, as they are responsible for the majority of teachers' preparation in the United States.

What is taught in traditional TEPs is largely impacted by state regulations, though PSTs report learning about topics such as differentiation and diversity, and do not feel prepared to actively plan using these concepts (Kane & Andrew, 2013). Individual states can dictate admission criteria, field work hours, and types of coursework (NRC, 2010). The National Research Council (2010) determined that strong TEPs have a clearly stated purpose, distinctly outlined subject-matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, field experiences, and qualified faculty. Because outside policy varies from state to state, it is unsurprising, then, that TEPs across the country fail to agree on what comprises each of those elements (Baker, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2006; McCombes-Tolis, & Feinn, 2008; McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanagh, 2013; NRC, 2010; Reutzel, Dole, Read, Fawson, Herman, Jones, Fargo, 2011; Zeichner, 2012). There is even disagreement on what distinguishes professional knowledge from subject-matter knowledge (NRC, 2010).

The disagreement on what TEPs need to best equip PSTs to serve our nation's children leads to devastating results in the classroom. Nationally, 35% of fourth graders were labeled proficient or above on NAEP reading measures, while in the state at the heart of this study, 38% of fourth graders were proficient or above, with notable differences between student groups (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). The greatest influence on academic growth is highly knowledgeable teachers (NRC, 2010; Reutzel et al., 2011). What, then, do teachers need to know to facilitate academic growth? In the sections below, an outline of teacher knowledge, PST beliefs, TEP self-assessment, and TEP reform is presented. As student teaching is another central idea to this study, it will be discussed in its own section.

Teacher Knowledge

Moats (1994) stated that teachers who are highly knowledgeable about reading processes, especially in primary grades, can help prevent students from falling behind in reading, something that is not entirely reality now. Preservice teachers and in-service teachers generally do not have enough requisite literacy knowledge transfer from their TEP to meet the needs of their students (Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; Moats, 1994 Moats, & Foorman, 2003; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2006). Washburn, Joshi, and Binks-Cantrell (2011) found that when PST literacy knowledge was assessed before literacy courses, the candidates did not demonstrate knowledge, while in a separate study, Bos, Mather, Dickson, Padhajski, and Chard (2001) assessed PST literacy knowledge at the end of their TEP and found their knowledge levels of language structure underwhelming. Spear-Swerling and Brucker (2003, 2006) reported similar results, with teachers receiving an intensive professional development over language structure making significant gains, highlighting the importance of explicit instruction of phonological awareness and phonics in TEPs.

In a study focused on the knowledge of teacher educators, Joshi, Binks, Hougen, Dahlgren, Ocker-Dean, and Smith (2009) found that teacher educators showed understanding of phonological awareness, did not do as well with items involving phonics, and their knowledge of comprehension was marginally higher than their knowledge of morphology, suggesting they are not keeping up with their knowledge base. Teacher educators who are not prepared to effectively teach the five pillars of reading to PSTs add another layer of potential issue to the running of TEPs.

Elbaz (1981) labeled different types of knowledge in TEPs. Practical knowledge was defined as what was learned in context, meaning it can constantly change based on environment and interaction. Practical knowledge was broken into five categories--knowledge of subject matter, curriculum, instruction, self, and the milieu of schooling (Elbaz, 1981, p. 48), as well as five orientations--situational, theoretical, personal, social, and experiential (Elbaz, 1981, p. 49). The amorphous nature of knowledge presented this way makes it difficult for TEPs to determine what they are responsible for teaching.

Shulman (1986/1987) argued that TEPs are charged with helping PSTs build different types of knowledge, chief among them content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Content knowledge refers to what is being taught, and pedagogical content knowledge is how that content is taught—including possible misconceptions students may have (Shulman, 1986). This view of knowledge types is prevalent in educational literature today. The National Research Council (2010) determined that strong content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge are necessary for teachers to implement best-practices in their classrooms. They are careful to caution, however that:

> There is a critical distinction between pedagogical content knowledge and the advanced content knowledge that one would develop by taking upper-level courses in a subject, and thus it is important to be clear that aspiring teachers cannot develop pedagogical content knowledge simply by taking additional courses in their field, even though a thorough grounding in university-level study for a particular field of learning is an important prerequisite. (p. 68)

Specifically, in terms of reading instruction, Loewenberg Ball, Thames, and Phelps (2008) found that in order to teach reading, teachers need “detailed knowledge of text, language, and reading process that goes beyond just being able to decode and comprehend text proficiently” (p. 393). During this time, PSTs are also forming “self-concepts regarding their professional knowledge” (Paulick, Großschedl, Harms, & Möller, 2016, p.177).

Kleickmann, Richter, Kunter, Elsner, Besser, Krauss, and Baumert (2013) explored how and when content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge develop. They find that content knowledge was more developed in PSTs, with negligible additional development in the in-service teaching phase, while pedagogical content knowledge was low in PSTs, and continued to grow, albeit weakly, after completing a TEP. The study of Kleickmann et al. (2013) was conducted with secondary teachers in Germany, and they noted that students from lower socioeconomic statuses disproportionately had teachers with weaker content and pedagogical content knowledge. The authors specifically reference Darling-Hammond’s (2006) work in which students in the United States faced a similar issue (Kleickmann et al. 2013). It appears, then, that PSTs leave their TEP with almost as much content knowledge as they will ever have. Knowing that content knowledge evolves less over time than pedagogical content knowledge, it becomes incumbent upon TEPs to increase the quality and effectiveness of their instruction to

best facilitate content knowledge transfer between coursework and practice, especially considering novice teachers are more likely to work with the most vulnerable student populations as they enter the teaching profession.

Somewhat adding to the confusion of what knowledge in TEPs is, Grisham (2000) labeled knowledge types differently. He defined professional knowledge as what is developed in a TEP, practical knowledge is grown within contextualized teaching experiences such as field placements and student teaching, and personal knowledge comprised the beliefs the individual created through socialization (Grisham, 2000). These knowledge types work together in an environment, influencing the decisions of the teacher, and, because the environment influences the use of knowledge, teachers need knowledge that is flexible (Phelps & Schilling, 2004).

Perkins (2013) also wrote that in addition to practical knowledge, teachers need emancipatory knowledge. Emancipatory knowledge is based on previous individual experience which causes a person to question pre-existing structures and practices. When a teacher feels dissonance between internal thinking and what is occurring externally, his or her emancipatory knowledge helps the person establish their own discourse. This idea is built on the premise that knowledge is built and compared through sociocultural contexts (Macaulay & Cree, 1999).

Since the 19th century, teacher preparation has been criticized for a plethora of shortcomings, chief among them that teacher candidates are ill-prepared for effectively teaching (NRC, 2010). Despite that, the overwhelming majority of in-service teachers report being satisfied with their TEPs (DeAngelis, Wall, & Che, 2013). Stotsky (2006) noted, “How can a teacher teach what she or he does not know—or know well?” (p. 258). Directly related to the idea of not knowing, Hoffman, Svrcek, Lammert, Daly-Lesch, Steinitz, Greeter, and DeJulio (2019) observed that the more often PSTs are in situations where “the status quo of teaching” (p.

246) is replicated, the more likely they are to carry those forth; this issue is only exacerbated when PSTs and in-service teachers think they know more they actually do. Bos et al. (2001) and Cunningham et al. (2004) found when surveying PSTs about their perceived knowledge and their actual knowledge of morphology and phonics, PSTs were more likely to rate their knowledge higher than it was in actuality.

When TEPs are saddled with fragmented structures, poor teaching, disconnected practicum, and a lack of clarity in standards and goals, it is difficult to end the status quo and fully develop the skills necessary for excellent teaching (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Hollins, 2011; Zeichner, 2006, 2010). Further, Zeichner (2006) indicated that while accreditation standards provide guidance for TEPs, they have not fully fixed issues within the institutions because so much about practice to interpretation; what is considered necessary knowledge for one TEP may not be taught in-depth in another, as discussed previously in the overview of accreditation. Additionally, Hollins (2011) argued that TEPs need to structure themselves to help PSTs "learn the professional discourse and practices and the conditions of engagement and enactment in ways that facilitate learning in PK-12 schools with diverse students" (p. 403). Hollins (2011) continued:

> What I mean by this is that how learners respond to a particular learning experience depends on who they are, their prior knowledge and learning experiences, the social context in the classroom and other factors, as well as how the teacher interprets and responds to all of the factors that influence learning. (p. 403)

It is the duty of the TEP to help craft the knowledge and the experiences, but PSTs bring beliefs with them which shape their interpretations. These beliefs will be discussed in the next section.

Pre-service Teacher Beliefs

When a candidate starts a TEP, he or she starts with beliefs about teaching and learning already intact. Scales, Wolsey, Lenski, Smetana, Yoder, Dobler, and Young (2018) wrote that these "preexisting pedagogical beliefs shape how they position themselves because their beliefs frame learning from coursework by filtering information to fit their beliefs, which influences how they use professional judgment during instruction" (p. 8). These beliefs can alter as a PST goes through a TEP, especially when working closely with a CT or other mentor teacher; PSTs usually take on the practices of their CTs (Anderson, 2009; Scales, et al., 2018). Not valuing reflection in practice and using literacy programs without question, for example are beliefs that could be detrimental to students' learning (Scales, et al., 2018). Given that beliefs can change through experiences, Scales, et al. (2018) noted that there are many contexts in which novice teachers will have to apply knowledge and pedagogy, they often must rely on their own judgment, a reality for which they are not generally prepared.

Lazar (2007) suggested that it is even harder to employ professional judgement when all pre-service teachers do not have experience with literacy in different social and cultural contexts, otherwise certain potentially negative assumptions remain intact. That is not to say that PSTs are not provided the opportunity to critically engage with their views, rather not all PSTs put forth an effort to confront their beliefs (Ball, 2000). Lazar (2007) further asserted that teachers need to comprehend how literacy connects to "ideology and power, and understanding how race shapes one's access to the literacies that are privileged in the school" (p. 416). Unexamined teacher beliefs can influence student learning in ways that are not necessarily recognizable (Hughes, 2010; Risko et al., 2008). Hughes (2010) wrote that when teachers know their own beliefs, they are then better able to understand and appreciate the beliefs of their students.

Like Lazar (2007), Zeichner (2012) emphasized the importance of developing cultural competence in PSTs when they are constructing their beliefs about teaching considering "that many teachers are responsible for supporting the learning of students who have very different cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic backgrounds than their own" (p. 380). Fasching-Varner (2012) is a powerful voice for cultural competence. In *Working Through Whiteness: Examining White Racial Identity and Profession with Pre-Service Teachers,* Fasching-Varner (2012) explained how White educators are often resistant to analyzing themselves in relation to their environments, instead adopting "explicitly politically correct, progressive and involved view of difference" (p. 2) while staying within the comfort and safety of their own demographic group, which is easily done considering 80% of teachers are White (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). Shaw and Mahlios (2008) noted that beliefs are created "through social interaction between persons and modified through a largely internal process of interpretation (p. 43). Concerning White PST beliefs, Fasching-Varner (2012) made a compelling case for why critically unexamined beliefs can be dangerous:

> When new teachers enter the classroom racially dysconscious or subconscious, they may attempt to employ methods that were taught to them in their pre-service teacher education programs, using hypothetical children and without consideration for the socio-emotive and socio-political realities of the classroom landscape they are in particular or, more pointedly, the socio-political realities of their students' lives. Instead of learning the thinking behind the intended engagement of a particular method or strategy, the teacher clings to the method itself, decontextualized from who the students are (as raced, gendered, sexualized, classed, abled, etc.), who he or she is as a teacher (as raced,

> gendered, sexualized, classed, abled, etc.), and the resulting pedagogy becomes as naïve as the rationales the teachers have for becoming teachers. (p. 78)

When teachers do not reflect on who they are and who their students are, the strategies they learned in their TEPs have the potential to be less effective because they will struggle to engage their students in the learning.

While communicating knowledge, TEPs can also be a powerful creator of professional culture. PSTs beliefs about teaching are influenced by their TEP experiences, and the TEP acts "as a filter through which teacher candidates acquire and interpret new knowledge" (Levin & He, 2008, p. 56). Levin and He (2008) found that 35% of participants shaped their beliefs based on their TEP, 28% derived their beliefs regarding teaching from their own experiences as students in the K-12 setting, 19% developed their beliefs through their field placements, and 16% created their beliefs from related practicum, meaning a combined 66% of participants grounded their beliefs explicitly in the TEP or in field experiences through the TEP (p. 62).

Teacher Educator Preparation Assessment

There are obvious deficits in TEPs in the United States, but efforts have been made to assess institutions for improvement, though not always with grand results. TEPs keep data on their performance for accreditation, but this data is largely aggregated and does not lend itself well to determining which components are working and why (Bastian, Fortner, Chapman, Fleener, McIntyre & Patriarca, 2016). Wineburg (2006) wrote that TEPs involved in a survey of institutional gauges of teacher candidate knowledge of content though the assessments, including practicum observations by institutional experts, did not consistently ensure validity. The majority of Wineburg's (2006) respondents did not include P-12 learning to determine if PSTs could transfer their learning from TEP to the field. What was unclear was how the TEPs use the data

to “demonstrate effectiveness” (Wineburg, 2006, p. 57). Program effectiveness is generally defined by the program itself, which can be problematic (Stotsky, 2006). Darling-Hammond (2006) noted that many TEPs are working to develop means of assessing PSTs’ abilities and how effective institutions are at individually preparing PSTs. In order to conduct such an assessment, it is critical that institutions develop a common understanding of what PSTs need to know and be able to do when leaving a program (Baker, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2006; McCombes-Tolis, & Feinn, 2008; McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanagh, 2013; NRC, 2010; Reutzel et al., 2011; Zeichner, 2012). This is critical because teachers were more likely to alter their instructional approach based on student need when the teacher felt he or she was well-prepared, as well as raising questions about whether differences in TEPs could relate to this reaction (Darling-Hammond, 2006), but tricky to accomplish—there is debate over which elements (delivery and depth of coursework, amount and structure of field work) consistently provide positive results across the country (Grisham, 2000). Further, when teachers have not created the requisite knowledge to fully address student needs, they risk interpreting assessments incorrectly or providing inaccurate feedback (Moats, 1994). It is in this discussion the perceived gap between TEP and school becomes noticeable (Imig & Imig, 2007), as most policymakers will adamantly assert that academic content is of the utmost importance to teacher licensure (Stotsky, 2006). Stotsky (2006) also found that while teachers need content knowledge, they also need “a rudimentary understanding of generic professional knowledge and skills. But here one is unlikely to find much variation across teacher preparation programs” (p. 259).

By engaging in reflection, assessing the quality of a TEP, and making effective use of data sources, program leaders can begin to make adjustments to improve areas of weakness in order to better prepare PSTs for their novice teaching phase. In the case of Stanford University,

the adjustments paid off, as it is currently ranked as the seventh best undergraduate teaching program in the United States (U.S. News & World Report, 2019). Speaking directly about the transformation of the Stanford University program, Darling-Hammond (2006) noted that coursework was shifted to align with implementation in practicum placements. Additionally, PSTs were placed with "expert" CTs during student teaching placement, clear expectations were communicated regarding professional standards, and supervisors partook in training for best practice in observation and implementation of a rubric (p. 122). Lastly, Darling-Hammond (2006) found that Stanford built relationships with fewer placement schools, selecting those which employed "equity-oriented practice with diverse learners" (p. 122). These adjustments made positive impacts on the abilities of PSTs. These changes, however, came about after intensive surveying of PSTs and graduates of the program. Components the respondents favored were expanded, and traditional student teaching placements remained to support teacher candidates who taught as uncertified teachers by connecting to their prior knowledge (Darling-Hammond, 2006).

Teacher Preparation Reforms

> Fix the teachers and you will fix the schools—the sentiment is as common as it is old. Perhaps, most consistently, however, the quest to build a better teacher—by now two centuries old—has been expressed through efforts to improve teacher preparation practices. Fix the training, in other words, and you will fix the teachers. (Schneider, 2018, p. 330)

As Schneider (2018) suggested, TEPs are making some attempts at improvement, although not in consistently beneficial ways. There are some reforms TEPs are employing to remedy perceived

deficits in their programmatic and delivery structures. Kosnik and Beck (2008) noted regarding literacy instruction, TEPs should consider how the program influences the PSTs, the exact content, and the pedagogy of the teacher educators. In Hollins' (2011) view, TEPs would be better served by employing strategies such as focused inquiry, directed observation, and guided practice with PSTs, allowing them to learn more about the learning process and how perspective influences pedagogy so they are better able to construct instruction for diverse learners. TEPs also need to consider the coherence of their programs, ensuring that experiences are connected and organized in ways to facilitate the development of knowledge; the consistency of their programs; the integrity of their programs, addressing concepts in a strong, organized way (Hollins, 2011).

Amount of Content and Alignment. Kosnik and Beck (2008) found that an additional issue in traditional TEPs is that so much material needs to be covered for elementary teachers, as they are viewed as generalists (Stevens-Smith, Warner, & Padilla, 2014), it is nearly impossible for them to bring clarity to all the information and methods. On top of an overload of information, PSTs struggle with the inability to put instructional strategies from their methods courses into a context, reporting greater mental ease when they have the opportunity to teach in context (Ganesh & Matteson, 2010). Further, PSTs benefit when coursework and field work align so they can also practice adaptations to meet student needs (Ghousseini, 2015). Dewey (1938) argued that when experiences are misaligned, "their disconnectedness may artificially generate dispersive, disintegrated, centrifugal habits. The consequence of formation of such habits is inability to control future experiences" (p. 26). This is one reason why the alignment (as well as supervision, which will be discussed later) between coursework and fieldwork should not be ignored; habits could be formed that are detrimental to future practice.

TEPs need to address the fractures within methods coursework as well. Kanuka (2010) found that learning suffers when the teacher's approach is "dissonant and unrelated or incoherently related to perceptions of the teaching and learning context" (p. 73). Francis, Olson, Weinberg, and Stearns-Pfeiffer (2018) suggested focusing on key pedagogical practices, such as they did in centering their TEP's reform on five practices to increase PST learning, including explanations accompanied by modeling of strategies, altering tasks for the learning goal, being strategic about employing methods to assess student learning, focus on individual thinking, and incorporating discussion.

Practice-Based Approaches. Several researchers advocate for a more practice-based approach to teacher preparation (Ball & Forzani, 2009; McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanagh, 2013). McDonald, Kazemi, and Kavanagh (2013) stated that both competency-based and case-based models do not address the problem of enactment (Kennedy, 1999) currently present. They argued that:

> Teacher education programs are often organized in ways that align with acquisition models of learning in which teacher educators deliver information about teaching to teacher candidates through courses at a university or other non-K-12 setting. The onus is then on the teacher candidates to carry that learning with them as they enter the field. (p. 381)

To shift the structure of the learning and make it more cohesive, McDonald, Kazemi, and Kavanagh (2013) recommend utilizing a specified framework.

McDonald, Kazemi, and Kavanagh's (2013) framework is based on the idea of guided assistance in which PSTs learn a practice, implement the practice with students, and analyze the experience. This takes "an abstraction of the work" and brings it "into an instantiation of

teaching-in-action" (p. 382). The beginning of this guided practice is a learning cycle in which teacher educators provide a model of a practice and the class analyzes it. This relates to Ball and Forzani's (2009) concept of determining core practice. Afterwards, PSTs move to planning and rehearsing their practice, and finally PSTs enact the practice and the teacher educators provide coaching, coteaching, or modeling as needed to provide feedback. Coaching helps to increase correct implementation (Rakap, 2017). Finally, the PSTs analyze their enactment of the practice to encourage reflection (McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanagh, 2013).

A means of helping PSTs develop such an understanding is through a literacy curriculum that helps PSTs "become flexible, adaptive, and responsive to students' needs" (Lacina & Block, 2011, p. 320), including practicum experiences that are supervised and incorporate content connected to the classroom (Lacina & Block, 2011). Risko, Roller, Cummins, Bean, Block, Anders, and Flood (2008) noted that determining which practices accomplish this goal is difficult to pinpoint, as studies focus on the impact of singular areas rather than the overall program, potentially ignoring the way factors build upon or influence one another. However, some of these individual markers of strong areas within a TEP include an increased number of reading methods courses in the program, reading courses that use a balanced literacy framework, reading courses focused on the five major components of reading, increased practicum hours before student teaching, and increased number of teacher educators with "advanced degrees in reading and had previous teaching experiences in elementary classrooms" (Lacina & Block, 2011, p. 321). Lacina and Block (2011) also stated that successful TEPs require PSTs to learn and practice giving assessments to students and utilizing the data to make instructional decisions, reflecting on their practice along the way—this was shown to increase the confidence of the PSTs, to the degree that they believed they had the capacity to teach "all children how to read

and write" (p. 340). PSTs from these types of programs specifically addressed "racial and socioeconomic differences, and ways to address the varied literacy needs of diverse individual learners, including the needs of English language learners" (Lacina & Block, 2011, p. 340). Sharp, Brandt, Tuft, and Jay (2016) suggested exercising caution when talking about increased confidence in ability, as self-efficacy is related to perceived ability, not actual ability. Since researchers show that PSTs have an inflated perception of their own knowledge, confidence measures need to be considered carefully.

Feedback. Throughout the literature on TEPs, the use of feedback increased PST performance. Concrete feedback was critical to PST development (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Shulman, 2002; Risko et al., 2008). Klayman (1988) found that feedback is crucial, but in TEP environments (including field work), feedback can be difficult to come by, and may be distorted. Prior beliefs the PSTs and teacher educators bring to the situation can be the cause of feedback distortion, making a stronger case for examination and calibration of beliefs (Soyer & Hogarth, 2015). Feedback can be further distorted based on the delivery, which impacts learning. Soyer and Hogarth (2015) noted that learning happens when feedback is immediate, specific, and considers prior beliefs. However, when PSTs do receive feedback, they might not have the opportunity to implement it in context (Zeichner, 2010). Related to the idea of feedback, reflection is also important, particularly in examination of PST beliefs. The importance of reflection in TEPs is woven throughout the literature. Risko et al. (2008) plainly stated the issue:

> They [TEPs] provided very little guidance on how to reflect because of theoretical understandings that suggested that guiding reflection would impose the teacher

> educator's thought processes on prospective teachers and would not generate genuine reflection. (p. 277)

Vygotsky (1962) argued that all thought is presented as external conversation between individuals before it is internalized. If reflection can help shape or adapt beliefs—beliefs that may directly influence practice in potentially detrimental ways—it becomes the duty of the TEP to explicitly teach the art of reflection in the hope that once a PST knows how to critically analyze his or her beliefs and practices, they will then make their own adjustments.

Alternative Model Structures. Some TEPs have chosen to implement a cohort model to support PSTs. Beck and Kosnik (2001) wrote that cohort models facilitate socialization within a program, as well as establish norms, but they can also reaffirm "points of confusion" (p. 925). While there is the possibility for negative reaffirmations, a community structure mitigates the fragmentation of coursework and dissonance of large class sizes (Beck & Kosnik, 2001). Other structures TEPs are experimenting with include small group settings, such as tutoring, which could be beneficial for increasing PST literacy knowledge, fortifying pedagogy, helping enhance professional judgement, placing stronger emphasis on relationship and culturally responsive teaching (Hoffman et al., 2019; Risko et al., 2008). Tutoring also helps shape PSTs' beliefs about teaching reading and bolstered their confidence (Al Otaiba, 2005; Warren-Kring & Warren; 2013). Alternative models of student teaching are presented in further detail later in this literature review.

Cultural Competence. Much like addressing cultural competence in examining teacher beliefs, TEPs also need to incorporate cultural competence in the use of literacy strategies. Cazden (2001) wrote that teachers treated student groups differently in reading instruction, with high-performing readers receiving feedback on comprehension, while low-performing readers

(generally of a different cultural background than the teacher) were interrupted more often while reading, with most feedback centering on decoding skills. It is situations such as this that prompted the National Research Council (2010) to state:

> The sometimes stark achievement gaps among various groups have called attention to the urgent need for greater attention to the educational needs of underserved groups, as well as the importance of preparing teachers with the knowledge and skills to work effectively with these students. (p. 49)

Howard (2006) indicated that some of these actions are unexamined psychological responses, as humans are "predisposed to categorize and negatively discriminate against perceived out-groups, even when the basis for the differentiation is trivial and meaningless, then it might appear overwhelmingly difficult to reduce group-based biases related to more significant issues of human difference" (p. 33). He suggested teachers engage in reflection regarding their identity, their students' identities, and their practices (Howard, 2006), though we know this work will need be grounded in TEPs, with teacher educators teaching PSTs how to reflect. Stevens-Smith, Warner, and Padilla (2014) also suggested implementing coursework which focuses on social justice to help elementary educators to understand how "social and cultural factors" (p. 110) impact instruction. Hughes (2010) reminded us that cultural competence courses generally focus on racial diversity or a diversity of abilities, while considering children living in poverty is not. She notes that teachers need to be aware of their own thinking concerning poverty so as not to reinforce stereotypes, while also being aware of how multiple factors of vulnerable populations can intersect, and believing that all students can learn (Hughes, 2010).

There are some researchers who do not believe TEPs need drastic reformation. For example, Hikida, Chamberlain, Tily, Daly-Lesch, Warner, and Schallert (2019) asserted TEPs do

not need to undergo “radical reform” (p. 190), but there is some evidence of support for the use of tutoring as a structure in TEPs to facilitate knowledge transfer, gaps exist in PSTs literacy knowledge, and these gaps can be helped through coursework focused on diverse students (though there is disagreement on what the best methods for doing this are). Whether TEPs can be reformed also depends on factors beyond the institutions themselves. Firstly, the majority of K-12 schools rely on public funding, which is constrained. This caps teacher salary at lower levels, which impacts the types of candidates who enter TEPs (Schneider, 2018). Secondly, the lack of revenue is compacted by the massive number of students being served; the immediate and constant need for teachers limits a TEP’s freedom to restrict acceptance to higher-quality candidates (NRC, 2010; Schneider, 2018). Finally, education is impacted by its “perceived importance” (Schneider, 2018, p. 331). Schools, specifically public schools, are viewed as less important by the public at large than other publicly funded services. The lack of funding that is directed towards schools as a result of this view detracts potential highly qualified teachers from entering the profession (Schneider, 2018).

Student Teaching

A key component of this study is the experience of student teaching. Student teaching is the most prolonged exposure PSTs have in real classrooms before they enter the novice phase of teaching, in which they will bear sole responsibility for their room as the teacher of record. It is the time for PSTs to connect strategies and theories learned during coursework to classrooms, while also practicing their pedagogy. Below is an overview of relevant literature to student teaching.

The National Research Council (2010) determined that, out of all programmatic features of TEPs, student teaching is most closely associated with teacher performance and future student

outcomes (Zeichner, 2012), yet Borko and Mayfield (1995) shared that even though value is placed on student teaching, PSTs are often declared ill-prepared for the experience by cooperating teachers (CTs). These statements appear diametrically opposed, however, bearing in mind researchers find teachers in general do not have the knowledge necessary to adequately teach reading, it is possible for teachers to be unprepared for the experience and still have it associated with outcomes; the outcomes are merely disappointing. The situation is made trickier by the inadequacies of student teaching placements in general. The success of student teaching placements can be influenced by factors beyond the control of the PST. For example, Valencia, Martine, Place, and Grossman (2009) stated:

> In our analysis, we see numerous structures that impact the learning of student teachers: discrepant goals for student teaching, strained interactions within the triad, tenuous ties between coursework and fieldwork, unclear criteria for field placements, and lack of support for cooperating teachers and university supervisors. This conceptualization of the interactive, structural, and social nature of student teaching adds another layer of complexity to an already multifaceted setting, and it adds another dimension to the existing research on student teaching. (p. 318)

When student teaching placements are fractured in their goals, interactions among participants, and coursework alignment, it becomes easier to understand how knowledge transfer could be inhibited, bearing in mind context and culture are both mechanisms for transfer.

PST Characteristics

Student teaching outcomes are also somewhat dependent on the PST's characteristics. White teachers have "weaker preferences" (p. 326) for teaching underserved populations before working with them, as well as after compared to Hispanic and Latino teachers, and PSTs who

attended public school had stronger preferences for working with that same population (Ronfeldt, Reininger, & Kwok, 2013). Using this same sample of teachers, Ronfeldt, Reininger, and Kwok (2013) found that higher GPAs, better communication skills, better critical thinking abilities, and greater knowledge of teaching and learning "reported no better or worse instructional preparedness or teacher efficacy" (p. 328), suggesting that PSTs in the study were as prepared and believed in their practice in the same way regardless of indicators generally associated with stronger teachers. Considering that pedagogical content knowledge consistently relates to student achievement (Hill, Ball, & Schilling, 2008), the potentially equal preparation of participants in Ronfeldt, Reininger, and Kwok's (2013) study could be a positive or a negative. If all PSTs were prepared at an equally high level so characteristics such as GPA and critical thinking skills were negated, then they could potentially enter their novice teaching phase with higher pedagogical content knowledge, meaning they are more likely to raise student achievement. However, there is also a terrifying possibility—that all PSTs were prepared equally poorly, meaning they enter the novice teaching phase with less pedagogical content knowledge and find it difficult to raise student achievement.

There are some characteristics which do impact PST efficacy, causing him or her to have greater confidence in his or her ability. Ronfeldt, Reininger, and Kwok (2013) noted that teacher efficacy is affected by substitute teaching experience, as well as whether the teacher attended high school in the district in which he or she is teaching. Considering knowledge transfer can be facilitated by context, PSTs who subbed in districts in which they are later hired may find themselves with a better developed schema for how to function in the district. The same can be said for PSTs who attended high school in the district.

Student Teaching Supervision

When PSTs take part in more structured student teaching placements with higher levels of supervision, they are more successful at addressing student achievement (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2009; Sivan & Chan, 2009). In more structured student teaching placements, expectations are explicitly stated for both the CTs and PSTs, and from placement school to placement school, leaving the experience more controlled. In terms of supervision, PSTs had more frequent meetings and observations with their CTs and university supervisors with more detailed feedback. Brannon and Fiene (2013) found that PSTs "were more prepared to teach reading" when they participated in highly structured field experiences than they were in "less structured, more traditional field experiences" (p. 192). Similarly, Zeichner (2006) stated that field experiences need to be "closely monitored by teacher education faculty but they need to be extended out to the communities served by these schools so that novice teachers can develop the sociocultural competence that they need to be successful" (p. 334). When discussing TEP reform, it was noted how researchers are calling on TEPs to incorporate the development of cultural competence in PSTs. One means of adding the development of cultural competence could be through adjusting the supervision structure of student teaching placements, with TEP faculty helping PSTs expand their cultural competence in context.

There is variation in who supervises field work, how qualified the individual is, and how the supervision is completed (NRC, 2010). In Jacobs, Hogarty, and Burns' (2017) study, the majority of PSTs complete four field experiences (69.9%), and the majority of TEPs felt that their PSTs were in placements where there were quality supervisors (72.1%). Supervisors were usually tenured professors (51.7%), and most PSTs did not have the same supervisor through all field work (93%). The lack of continuity is exacerbated by the fact that TEPs reported most

frequently that methods professors were not supervisors (37.7%), with methods professors supervising field work only 0% to 20% of the time. University supervisors are also supervising many PSTs at any given time at various stages of their field work (Jacobs, Hogarty, & West, 2017). TEPs in the study believe that supervisors give feedback (78.6%), evaluate (77%), and form relationships with the PSTs they supervise (67.9%) (Jacobs, Hogarty, & Burns, 2017).

Student Teaching in Struggling Schools

It is important to state here that literature often references schools with lower student achievement as struggling schools. For the sake of consistency, these schools will be called struggling schools in this study. Often, students living in poverty, students of color, and English Language Learners (ELLs) are associated with these schools. It is critical to note that these student characteristics do not explicitly cause low student achievement, and a deficit perspective is not endorsed in this study.

Ronfeldt, Reininger, and Kwok (2013) found that completing student teaching placements in struggling schools does not influence a PST's instructional preparedness, however completing the placement in a school with little teacher turnover and high levels of collaboration was linked to later success at raising student achievement when in the novice teaching phase (Ronfeldt, 2015). Duffy and Atkinson (2001), however, argued that PSTs need to complete diverse field work to help them feel prepared for a variety of readers, and Lazar (2007) noted that PST efficacy increases when they teach in urban settings while simultaneously taking literacy courses.

Despite the conflicting research on the impact of student teaching context on novice teaching performance, field placements schools usually have a high percentage of students eligible for free or reduced lunch, a high percentage of minority students, and a relatively high

percentage of English Language Learners (ELLs) (Ronfeldt, 2015). As Ronfeldt (2015) plainly stated, “schools that were lower performing, harder to staff, less collaborative, and had more historically marginalized students were more likely than other schools to be used as field placements” (p. 311). According to Ronfeldt, Reininger, and Kwok’s (2013) study, White PSTs had less preference for teaching in urban schools than other groups. Considering most student teaching placements are in these schools, it is important to consider how motivation and culture, two means of knowledge transfer, affect knowledge transfer when the PST has a specific preference regarding the school.

PST Beliefs in Student Teaching

Theoretically, student teaching is the time when PSTs get to practice the strategies they learned during coursework (Anderson & Radencich, 2001; Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Chen & Fortune 2017; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hillman, Bottomley, Reisner, & Malin, 2000; Zeichner, 2012). Brannon and Fiene (2013) stated PSTs “need prolonged experiences teaching reading in order to ensure their effective use of the reading strategies they learn during their college coursework” (p. 185). Much like at the onset of their TEP, PSTs come to their student teaching with beliefs and expectations based on previous experience. Many PSTs believe that students will learn the same way as them and will share similar experiences, that teaching is easy, that teachers are autonomous, that students at the same grade are at the same instructional level, and if they teach learning will take place (Wall, 2016). Putnam (2012) suggested helping PSTs directly examine their beliefs will help increase their efficacy. Along these lines, Wall (2016) shared the beliefs of PSTs shifted as they experienced the dissonance between their beliefs and reality, and they become aware of their cultural identities (Wall, 2016). Likewise, Choy, Wong, Goh, and Ling Low (2014) and Haritos (2004) stated that these expectations generally do not

match reality. One way these expectations do not match reality is in the strategies used in the placement—PSTs may not see strategies they learned, and they may not be able to implement the strategies they learned (Choy, Wong, Goh, & Ling Low, 2014). Teacher efficacy is directly related to student achievement and use of instructional practice (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). High teacher efficacy is also linked to less burnout, and efficacy increases by placing PSTs in real classroom settings (Fives et al., 2007).

Culture and Student Teaching

Culture develops over the course of the student teaching placement between the PST, the CT, and other members of the school community. A great amount of socialization and belief development occurs during a student teaching placement. PSTs view their student teaching placement as the time they would figure out what it means to be a reading teacher. Perkins (2013) explained that, "A clear system of teaching reading was a relief to a student who was struggling with the conceptual complexity of the reading process" (p. 303). Prior to student teaching placements, many PSTs learned about theories and strategies in coursework without any relevant context. It is unsurprising then that PSTs generally replicate the teaching they witness in their field work. In a foundational study on the relationship between PST behavior and CTs, Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985) wrote that even when a PST's TEP teaches approaches that are opposed to authoritarian ones, the PST will adopt the teaching style he or she witnesses in action (Hamman, Button, Olivarez, Jr., Lesley, Chan, Griffith, & Woods, 2006; Valencia, Martin, Place, & Grossman, 2009). University supervisors have relatively little impact on PSTs (Borko & Mayfield, 1995), while cooperating teachers (CTs) have a strong influence on PSTs, which is understandable considering most of the student teaching experience is controlled by the CT (Hamman et al., 2006; Hollingsworth, 1989).

Having stated such, Hammon et al. (2006) found--specifically regarding reading--that PSTs provided little reading support in the classroom compared to their CT (who was labeled as a highly effective reading teacher), and the CT did not impact the quality of what little support the PSTs did provide. There are a few possible explanations for this. It could be that PSTs did not actively teach as much in the classroom knowing their CT was labeled highly effective, the label either intimidating them or tacitly encouraging them to observe more. It is also possible the compensation CTs receive impacts the relationship, the result being different from placement to placement as CTs usually have a different conception of what their role is and have little preparation for what they are to do with a PST (Fives, Mills, & Dacey, 2016; Wang & Odell, 2002). CTs receive little and varied compensation for their work, potentially influencing the effort put forth. Compensation methods could include some kind of monetary compensation, credits at the educational institution, resources, or recognition (Fives, Mills, & Dacey, 2016).

PSTs classify student teaching placements as successful when they had emotional support, they were treated like a peer, they were able to collaborate with their CT, there was some amount of flexibility in the content and method of delivery, and they considered their CT to be an effective teacher (Beck & Kosnik, 2002). Student teaching is a stressful experience, and the relationships between the PSTs, CTs, and students helps the PSTs navigate the challenges (Berridge & Goebel, 2013). Challenges PSTs identified include how time is allocated for grading and paperwork, and managing student behaviors (Berridge & Goebel, 2013). Overall, elementary PSTs enjoy their student teaching experiences (Berridge & Goebel, 2013). Hirschkorn (2009) completed a case study of a PST as he transitioned from student teaching to the novice teaching phase. The subject of the case study based his expectations on his experiences as a student, developed efficacy based on the freedom his CT gave him, relied

heavily on this CT, shifted his focus from relationships at the onset to management of the classroom, and discovered an awareness of layered cultures in the building. When he entered the novice teaching phase, his attitude soured and he did not feel he fit in at his building, nor did he feel valued (Hirschkorn, 2009).

Student teaching is also a time when joint knowledge is being tested and created. Ellis (2007) argued that subject knowledge is not universal, that it changes based on the knower. Instead, subject knowledge is culturally situated, shaped by practices over time, and PSTs access this knowledge when they are learners if they can build relationships within the system the subject knowledge is held—in this case, classrooms. Finally, when considering knowledge, Ellis (2007) stated one must bring culture into account, for it "provides the grounds for the cultural identity of the system—of the Practice and the Agents…Thus, the process of knowledge creation is connected to the development of a particular form of prospective identity" (p. 457). When PSTs partake in practice in the field, their knowing "can be validated as knowledge according to the rules operated by the community and the extent to which individuals are permitted to work on these rules themselves" (Ellis, 2007, p. 457).

Feedback and Student Teaching

As mentioned in TEP reform, more immediate feedback and teaching reflection to PSTs have been suggested for improving the quality of TEPs; the same can be said during the student teaching placement, as feedback and reflection are integral to the student teaching experience. PSTs receive feedback from their university supervisor and CT, though the CT will be the perceived as the primary source of support and feedback, though peers and learners in the classroom also provide valuable feedback. (Crichton & Gil, 2015). When CTs gave feedback, it was generally on weakness and strategies, while feedback from the learners in the classroom was

not always reliable—either they felt embarrassed in front of their peers, or they wanted to impress the PST (Crichton & Gil, 2015).

The PSTs in Crichton and Gil's (2015) study did not specifically comment on the connections between coursework and student teaching placement, though they did make informal mentions of it. Feedback, however, is not always effective. Soslau, Gallo-Fox, and Scantlebury (2019) found that PSTs are not often pressed for evidence relating to their feelings on how lessons went. Snead and Freiberg (2019) described an alternative feedback structure called person centered learning assessment, or PCLA. PCLA is a self-reflection strategy, in which the CT engages the PST in questioning strategies without providing directed feedback; the PST determines areas for growth (Snead & Freiberg, 2019). A critique of this method of feedback is that PSTs might not have enough experience or professional knowledge to make such determinations (Snead & Freiberg, 2019). Reflection allows for PSTs to "bridge the theory-practice divide" (Choy, Wong, Goh, & Ling Low, 2014, p. 473), though PSTs do not always view reflection as a means of support in their student teaching placements when done informally with their peers (Crichton & Gil, 2015).

Conferences are the most traditional form of feedback in the student teaching placement, however, Borko and Mayfield (1995) wrote that conferences between CTs and PSTs are not always productive, being reduced to personal conversations and generalities. Conferences touched on knowledge domains, but CTs exhibited differences in treatment of the subject matter (Borko & Mayfield, 1995). Additionally, TEPs and CTs have difficulty being explicit. For example, PSTs are told they need to form relationships, however the types of relationships necessary in schools were not modeled, and the value was not explained (Phillippo, Brown, & Blosser, 2018). Phillippo, Brown, and Blosser (2018) stated that the use of reflection journals

help PSTs come to understand their relation to students, which has implication for culturally-relevant pedagogy. Laman, Davis, and Henderson (2018) explained that teachers who are culturally responsive form relationships with their students based on genuine connection and provide multiple means for students to demonstrate their understanding; these concepts are not present in many elementary TEPs.

Student Teaching Formats

Recognizing the issues with the traditional formatting of student teaching placements, TEPs have begun experimenting with different formats. A potential model for student teaching employed by some TEPs with varied success is a coteaching model (Soslau, Gallo-Fox, & Scantlebury, 2019). During coteaching, the PST engages in teaching, planning, and assessing alongside the CT, with feedback given before and after lesson delivery, making the feedback more immediate and situated within the experience (Soslau, Gallo-Fox, & Scantlebury, 2019). Coteaching can also lead the PST to become more adept at collaboration, a skill he or she could bring to the novice teaching phase (Guise et al., 2016). It is important to note, however, that coteaching is only possible when the CT is willing to relinquish some of the power in the relationship (Guise et al., 2016). When PSTs feel their ideas are valued by their CTs, some instructional decisions may not be fully explained resulting in "mimicry" (Soslau, Gallo-Fox, & Scantlebury, 2019). Additionally, the PST and CT need to be "collaborative, open to change, and reflective" (Guise et al., 2016, p. 65). A potential downside to a coteaching model is that when the PST enters the novice teaching phase, he or she may not have a grasp on how much time is needed for an individual to plan and he or she may struggle develop a personal teaching style (Guise et al., 2016).

Another type of structured field placement is a mediated structure, much like what Lazar (2007) suggested. This structure allows for the analysis and discussion of sensitive material, like addressing deficit perspectives many PSTs hold when they start working with students of different races, genders, and social classes (Laman, Davis, & Henderson, 2018). The aim of Laman, Davis, and Henderson's (2018) study was to see how participation in a methods course paired with field work in a school in an urban setting mediated PSTs' understandings of writing instruction and reflect on how their practice influences students' writing. The researchers find that PSTs began to see that they had to honor students' identities and thinking, giving them more voice during conferences and stepping back from trying to influence the students' product, and realizing they made assumptions of students based on a whole host of factors (Laman, Davis, & Henderson, 2018).

Lacina and Block (2011) described another form of mediated field work by analyzing commonalities between programs awarded a certificate of distinction by the International Reading Association. They find that these programs shared field experiences aligned with the philosophical paradigm of the program, coursework that built systematically with field experiences tied to each literacy course, professor modeling of practice at the schools where PSTs were conducting field work, feedback on PST performance was immediate and rooted in the field, and field experiences were supervised by TEP faculty. Across the six TEPs in the study, there was variation in the time spent on field placements, the delivery of the feedback differed, and some programs required PSTs to complete field work in all grades (Lacina & Block, 2011). This structure aligns with Grisham's (2000) view that the most influential element of change is the "congruence between the field experience and the program teaching" (p. 165).

During student teaching placements, PSTs find themselves facing diversity in reality, not in theory. Discussed in greater detail in the next section, PSTs generally do not share the lived experiences of the students they likely will have during their student teaching placements, as well as the students they will likely teach during their novice teaching phase. Nationally, 77% of teachers are female, and 80% of teachers are White (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). While these percentages have decreased, the fact remains that the majority of teachers will not share experiences of their students, while still believing that their students have the same backgrounds as they do and ignoring differences, specifically race—about which teachers declare they do not see—which can have unintentionally harmful effects on students (Fasching-Varner, 2012). Haverback and Parault (2008) suggested helping PSTs adjust to this reality through smaller group formats during student teaching, like tutoring. PSTs might be able to engage more effectively with smaller groups of students (Putnam, 2012). Fang and Ashley (2004) found that when PSTs were taking a reading methods course and tutoring in field work, their efficacy increased, and they placed value on the experience. In a similar experiment, Al Otaiba (2005) described that PST content knowledge increased after they tutored students in reading. Keeping in mind that there is specific reading knowledge that comprises quality reading instruction, it is important to note that the contexts or cultures of the participants of these experiments might better facilitate the transfer of knowledge in these situations.

Induction and Mentorship

Although not necessarily a central focus of this study, it is important to acknowledge the importance of induction and mentorship in the practice of teachers. The idea of mentorship will be further explored in the literature on student teaching. After PSTs successfully complete their TEP, they become in-service teachers, more specifically novice teachers. Novice teachers are

teachers with less than three years of teaching experience (Huberman, 1993). Novice teachers receive some degree of support as they transition into their own rooms, either through an induction program, mentorship, or some combination of the two. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) wrote that induction programs are designed to retain novice teachers in the profession while seeking to improve student growth. Additionally, Ingersoll and Strong (2011) reported that there is a positive connection between induction programs and teacher retention, though the quality of the program factors into the association.

Novice teachers value inductions, and mentors who consider both practicalities and their emotions (Hobson, 2009). Hobson (2009) also reported that novice teachers looked to their mentors to help them feel safe and fit in the culture of the school. Additionally, it was helpful for novice teachers to continue observing their mentors in the classroom, and receive feedback on their teaching from their mentors, as well as have their mentors act as a sounding board for instructional problem-solving (Kane & Francis, 2013).

Having a mentor does not mean that a teacher will stay a teacher, however having a high-quality, regular mentor who works in the same area made a novice teacher more likely to stay in their current school than teachers with low-quality or no mentor (DeAngelis, Wall, & Che, 2013). DeAngelis, Wall, & Che (2013) also found that novice teachers who were unsatisfied with their TEP were more likely to change schools or leave the profession entirely, meaning it is important that TEPs address PST engagement and satisfaction.

Teaching in Struggling Schools

Knowledge transfer, as discussed previously, is facilitated by several mechanisms including context and culture. Also discussed previously, student teaching placements are generally in the most struggling in the district; ‘struggling’ being a term used in the literature to

describe schools with lower student achievement. Again, while these schools have been associated with more instances of poverty, and greater racial and linguistic diversity, it is important to note that just because a student is living in poverty, is a student of color, or speaks a language other than English does not equate causation. Living in poverty does not automatically mean a student is struggling, just as not being White or not speaking English as a home language does not mean a student is struggling.

Though education has been covered widely in research, rural education has not received the same attention as urban education (Burton, Brown, & Johnson, 2013). The term “rural” refers to a wide variety of communities, from areas outside metropolitan areas to areas difficult to reach, with the size of the teaching force varying widely as well (Greenough & Nelson, 2015). Rural schools that are closest to the largest cities in their counties have fewer students who receive free or reduced lunch, and fewer schools eligible for Title I (Greenough & Nelson, 2015). Despite the spectrum of rurality, teachers in rural schools are presented as isolated and with few resources and professional development (Burton, Brown, & Johnson, 2013).

Within rural communities, schools often serve at the center of the community. Schafft (2016) wrote that while schools can help shape “local identity” (p. 139), educational policies can work against this identity “if schooling implicitly devalues rural lifeways and livelihoods, implicitly undermining the aspirations of youth who would choose to lead rural adult lives. Education then becomes a primary instrument of rural out-migration” (p. 138). During the cycle of out-migration, younger, more highly educated people move from the community, leaving the community more impoverished with higher disadvantages (Schafft, 2016). The teachers who teach in these communities often completed their pre-service education not in rural settings and had little understanding of the culture within rural settings, perceiving the students to have

"limited life experiences" and limited motivation (Burton, Brown, & Johnson, 2013, p. 5). O'Neal, Ringler, and Rodriguez (2008) noted that teachers are being prepared in some ways to teach about multiculturalism and diversity instead of being prepared to actually teach multicultural and diverse students.

Teachers in struggling schools, generally in urban or rural settings, face more diverse challenges than their suburban counterparts. Because teacher demographics rarely reflect the student population of a school, teachers are not entirely equipped to meet the needs of all students (Huisman, Singer, & Catapano, 2010). Kumi-Yeboah and James (2012) state that a general assumption by many (potential educators, included) is that TEPs adequately prepare PSTs for these classroom dynamics, which is not entirely true. TEPs' lack of focus on teaching diverse populations makes teaching more difficult for novice teachers because novice teachers' first job placements are often in the most struggling schools in a district (Imig & Imig, 2006). Imig and Imig (2006) warned that putting novice teachers in this position can lead to what they describe as the "unjust path" in which novice teachers face "unimaginable demands, calcification of thought, and the atrophy of personal development for beginning teachers" (p. 287).

Maier and Youngs (2009) indicated that teacher quality is linked to the location of the school in question. Schools that enroll more ELL students, minority students, and students living in poverty are more likely to be taught by teachers who are uncertified or come from less rigorous TEPs (Imig & Imig, 2006; Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002). Not only do these students have less qualified teachers, they have a revolving door of teachers. Schools with more diverse student populations typically have fewer resources, toxic climates, and struggle to retain teachers, leading to students falling further behind (Fasching-Varner, 2012; Imig & Imig, 2006; Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2009).

The great tragedy in staffing struggling schools is that these schools need experienced, high-quality teachers perhaps to a greater degree (Lazar, 2007). Howard (2006) asserted that the distribution of weak and/or inexperienced teachers in struggling schools is unsurprising given the course of history, writing:

> It is no mere coincidence that the children of certain racial, cultural, linguistic, and economic groups—those who have for centuries been marginalized by the force of western White domination—are the same students who are now failing or underachieving at disproportionate rates in our nation's schools. (p. 118)

Working in struggling schools, particularly as a novice teacher, increases the stress of the job. Huisman, Singer, and Catapano (2011) stated that the stress is heightened because of the divide between their perception of what their work would be compared to what their work is in reality. In the district in which this study is situated, 79% of the 936 teachers were women, and 99% of those teachers were White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2020). Compared with the student population of the district, in which 92% of elementary students in the school district were White, 3% of students were Hispanic, 3% of students were of two or more races, and 1% of students were Black; less than 1% of elementary students were Limited English Proficient (LEP). 51% of the elementary student population were male, and 49% were female. During the same year, 43% of elementary students qualified for free lunch, 4% qualified for reduced lunch, and 388 elementary students were considered homeless (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). The typical TEP—the White female—does not have the lived experiences of diverse populations, and likely only learned about diverse populations in theory during coursework. During novice teaching is generally the first time the teacher is experiencing how poverty, and different cultures and languages factor into the classroom.

Summary

The way memories are stored and utilized depend on which type of storage is being tapped by the learning task, though when a memory is stored with associations into long-term memory, the relationship is strengthened in the brain (Miller, 2011). Knowledge transfer is facilitated by a few different mechanisms including prior knowledge (NRC, 1999), which can be diminished by too much knowledge in too small a time frame (Day & Goldstone, 2012; NRC, 1999); context, which can facilitate pattern recognition and knowledge application (Cox & Criss, 2017; NRC, 1999; Treff & Earnest, 2016); affective dimensions like motivation (Knowles, Marlow, & Muchmore, 1992; NRC, 2010; Pea, 1987), and culture (Green, 2013; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003; Pea, 1987, Shweder, 1986., Ventura et al., 2008). Transfer can be appropriate or inappropriate, though these judgements are primarily based on the culture of the individual compared to the culture surrounding the individual.

What knowledge is important is dependent on the discipline and what standards are outlined. In reading instruction, it is integral that teachers focus on phonological awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension strategies (NRP, 2001), with instruction being explicit and strategy-use varied to meet the needs of diverse student populations. What specifically is taught to PSTs regarding reading instruction is set by CAEP standards, including InTASC and ILA standards (CAEP, n.d.). During TEP coursework, PSTs theoretically learn the five pillars of reading instruction and related instructional strategies, though they typically leave their TEP without knowing enough (Bos et al., 2001; Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; Moats, & Foorman, 2003; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2006; Washburn, Joshi, & Binks-Cantrell, 2011), possibly relating to issues of knowledge transfer. TEPs are also criticized for not fostering cultural competence or helping PSTs examine their pre-conceived

beliefs about teaching and student populations, even though some are making attempts to assess their programs and adjust to better prepare PSTs, leading to different reforms such as better alignment in coursework, increased modeling, and reflection.

One element central to a TEP is the student teaching placement (NRC, 2010). Student teaching, like TEP coursework, is criticized for leaving PSTs unprepared or underprepared for the novice teaching phase of their careers. PSTs typically adopt the practices of their CTs, valuing CTs who treat them like peers and support them emotionally. Immediate feedback and coaching enhance the student teaching experience, though feedback varies across CT/PST relationships as CTs have different conceptions of their roles. Like coursework, TEPs have attempted to reform student teaching for better results as well, with structures such as co-teaching or more highly supervised placements. As PSTs become novice teachers, induction programs and mentorships help provide them practical and emotional support, though these vary in quality as well.

The fragmentation in TEPs and student teaching placements, the disruption of knowledge transfer between contexts, cultures, and motivations directly impact children, especially our most vulnerable children. The most struggling schools typically have more students living in poverty, as well as more racial minorities and language diversity, while also having the most inexperienced teachers in a district (Fasching-Varner, 2012; Howard, 2006; Huisman, Singer, & Catapano, 2011).

Looking at specific mechanisms of knowledge transfer, the current state of TEPs and student teaching placements can inhibit prior knowledge as a mechanism for transfer, as PSTs are taught too much information too generally, resulting in only surface level understandings that cannot be easily transferred. Context as a mechanism can also be impacted, as PSTs can restrict

reading knowledge to bounded contexts or cannot transfer it from the context of coursework to the context of the classroom. Motivation as a mechanism for knowledge transfer could be impacted as PSTs face teaching contexts they only leaned about in theory, since schools facing significant challenges are often the sites for student teaching. Finally, culture as a mechanism can be impacted as PSTs form (or do not form) relationships with their CTs, the culture of the student teaching placement may not match the culture of the TEP, and the culture of the PST might not match the culture of the student population; with little developed cultural competence, it becomes difficult to transfer knowledge.

Methodology

Approach

This study employs qualitative methods for data collection and analysis. Qualitative methodology is well-suited for this study because it is grounded in the notion that knowledge is created through social interaction. Qualitative research does not take a binary view of knowledge—that it is either right or wrong—and using a qualitative methodology enabled me to investigate individual experiences and interpretations to develop a more holistic understanding of knowing across the experience of reading knowledge transfer. A phenomenological approach was specifically chosen for this study because the focus is on the lived experience of individuals while developing a common “essence” or “composite description” (Creswell & Poth, 2014, p. 75; Moustakas, 1994), thus connecting the subjectivity of individual experience and the objectivity of commonality (Creswell & Poth, 2014). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) further state that phenomenological studies help in “understanding social phenomena from the actors’ own perspectives and describing the world as experienced by the subjects, with the assumption that the important reality is what people perceive it to be” (p. 26). The focus of this study is the lived experience of novice teachers transferring knowledge from their coursework to the experience of their student teaching, and from student teaching to the experience of their first classroom, with the understanding that this experience is situated in specific contexts to the individual. Using a phenomenological method enables analyses of individual experiences, while highlighting commonalities between them.

Phenomenological studies generally contain focus on a single concept—in this instance, knowledge transfer—while utilizing the lived experiences of 5-20 individuals (Creswell & Poth, 2014). Focusing on the individual means the researcher must bracket herself out of the study by being forthright with “personal experiences with the phenomenon” (Creswell & Poth, 2014, p.

77). Authors of phenomenological studies do not seek to explain, rather they seek to describe the phenomenon, with the experience being clarified through reflection (Moustakas, 1994). Regarding knowledge transfer in this study, the mechanisms of knowledge transfer shared by the participants are a means of describing the commonality between the experiences to illustrate the phenomenon.

Moustakas (1994) recommended the researcher engage in epoche, in which the researcher acknowledges that one naturally assumes her perception is true, thus these understandings are written down to allow the researcher to view the phenomenon with a fresh lens, also known as bracketing (Holstein & Gubrium, 1994). Moustakas (1994) further wrote:

> Phenomenology, step-by-step, attempts to eliminate everything that represents a prejudgment, setting aside presuppositions, and reaching a transcendental state of freshness and openness, a readiness to see in an unfettered way, not threatened by the customs, beliefs, and prejudices of normal science, by the habits of the natural world or by knowledge based on unreflected everyday experience. (p. 41)

The interest in a phenomenon lies with the participants, not the researcher. By reflecting and acknowledging the researcher's own experience with the phenomenon, the researcher can more clearly and openly receive and analyze the experience of others to create the universal essence to which Creswell and Poth (2014) and Moustakas (1994) refer.

The researcher should employ Imaginative Variation (Moustakas, 1994) to "seek possible meanings through the utilization of imagination, varying the frames of references, employing polarities and reversals, and approaching the phenomenon from divergent perspectives, different positions, roles, or functions" (p. 97). When analyzing the phenomenon from diverse perspectives, the researcher can begin to develop structural descriptions, or, as Moustakas (1994)

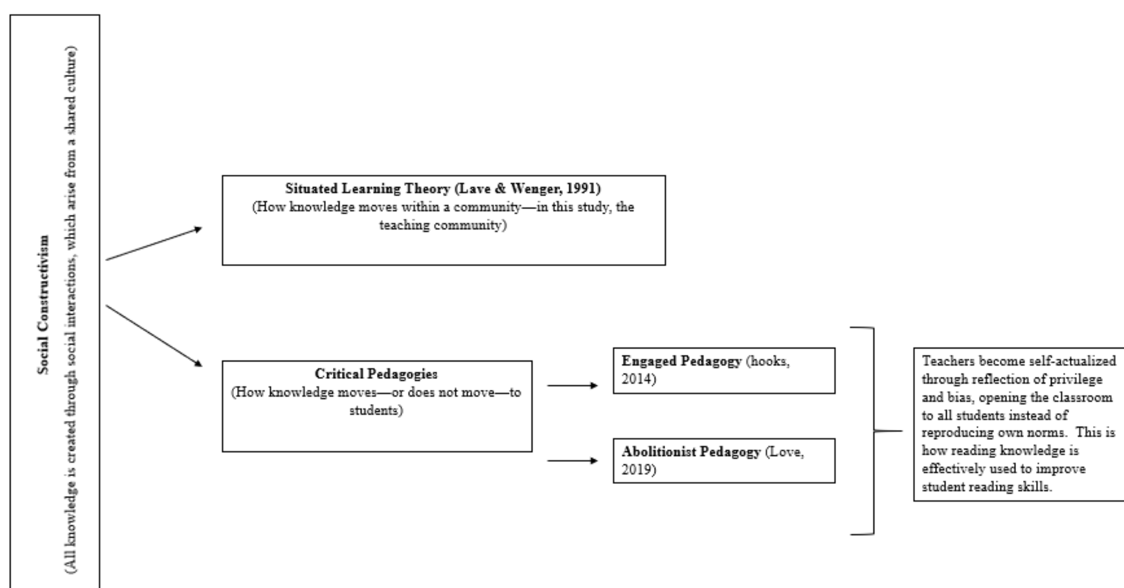
explains, “the ‘how’ that speaks to conditions that illuminate the ‘what’ of experience” (p. 98). To best analyze from multiple perspectives, the researcher must also engage in phenomenological reduction, in which she continually reads and rereads transcripts, observes and observes again (Moustakas, 1994).

Conceptual Framework

Though this study centers on the transfer of reading knowledge of novice teachers, the experience itself is multi-faceted, encompassing the knowledge the participants attained, the transfer of the knowledge, and, since knowledge is socially constructed, the interactions in which participants communicate knowledge. To best analyze each facet of this experience, three theories comprise the conceptual framework: social constructivism, Situated Learning Theory, and critical pedagogies. Social constructivism provides the basis for the conceptual framework, grounding knowledge creation and mechanisms of knowledge transfer within the teaching culture. Situated Learning Theory provides the lens for how reading knowledge disseminates within the teaching community and its actors, and critical pedagogies provides the lens for how reading knowledge presents itself in interactions between participants and students. Both Situated Learning Theory and critical pedagogies fit within the constructs of social constructivism as they are based on culture.

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework of Teacher Knowledge Transfer



Social Constructivism

Creswell and Poth (2014) noted that under social constructivist theory, individuals develop subjective understandings of the world around them. Social constructivists argue that reality is "pluralistic and plastic" (p. 125), that knowledge is created through interaction (Schwandt, 1994). Further, because knowledge is situated within interaction, this knowledge is accepted as truth within specific contexts, being mediated by social and historical factors (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Gergen, 1985; Holstein & Gubrium, 1994; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003; Moll, 2014; Schwandt, 1994). They see it as impossible for one to "take off our cultural glasses to view the world aculturally—and so compare it to the world as we perceive it culturally" (Tomasello, 1999, p. 218). The issue becomes, however, that individuals generally believe that other people "experience the world basically in the way we do" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1994, p. 263). Gergen (1985) further asserts that "What we take to be experience of the world does not in itself dictate the terms by which the world is understood" (p. 266), again recognizing that knowledge is subjective based on culture and interaction. This means, then, that

there is often the potential for miscommunication and incorrect assumptions when engaging with individuals from differing cultures.

Gergen (1985) called the ways in which individuals understand the world "social artifacts" which are created through "historically situated interchanges among people" (p. 267). The key is that knowledge is not specifically tied to the context, rather it is shaped by the people in the context. Whether the understanding an individual perceives remains depends on if it proves acceptable within "social processes" (p. 268). If these understandings are accepted socially, they can "serve to sustain and support certain patterns to the exclusion of others. To alter description and explanation is thus to threaten certain actions and invite others" (Gergen, 1985, p. 268). Moll (2014) added that groups of people will set the context for "the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and information, as well as cultural values and norms" (p. 119).

Our inner awareness of what is acceptable knowledge and norms within the group to which we belong, in fact, enables the belongingness (Shotter, 1993). This process begins in childhood. Shotter (1993) wrote:

> Thus as socially competent adults, if appropriately 'instructed' as children, they come to act as 'the task' seems to require. In other words, as the children of a particular culture, they learn how to appropriate capacities both from their own biology and from the culture's socio-cultural history, appropriate to life in that culture. As adults, these capacities have been reincorporated into their being, that is, embodied, and they come again to react to their circumstances in a spontaneous and unthinking manner, but now in ways which make sense within the terms of their culture. (p. 114)

When adults attempt to transfer knowledge, then, they bring with them a host of cultural elements, as well as specific contexts, which may or may not assist in the actual transfer.

Further, in the realm of teaching, social constructivists argue that the adults judge if a child is behaving or demonstrating knowledge correctly, when the child's cultural context may be completely different from the teacher (Shotter, 1993). Therefore, self-awareness of one's own implicit biases directly impact approaches teachers take in their classrooms, especially when students' cultures are not the same as their teachers' cultures.

When viewing a study with a social constructivist lens, researchers center on the "contexts in which people live and work in order to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants" (p. 24), specifically acknowledging their own background and how it will affect the interpretation of the research (Creswell & Poth, 2014). This acknowledgement ties in beautifully with the foundations of phenomenology, one of which is utilizing bracketing or epoche to reflect on and become of aware of personal leanings regarding the phenomenon.

Social constructivists focus heavily on the role of language in the creation and transfer of knowledge across people (Gergen, 1985, Holstein & Gubrium, 1994; Shotter, 1993). Regarding language, knowledge creation, and knowledge transfer, Vygotsky (1962) found that concepts are formed and transferred to contexts with similarities, even if it is a "dim impression" (p. 65). Further, if it seems similar the individual will attempt to transfer the concept even without full knowledge of the historical context (Vygotsky, 1962). These concepts, and even how individuals think, are shaped by the culture in which the individual is situated (Vygotsky, 1962). Thought presents itself first as an external exchange between at least two people, which is then internalized as used as a frame of reference, or self-talk (Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003; Shotter, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). Our learning then, connected to our thought processes, is heavily dependent on our culture. Vygotsky (1962) also noted that thinking becomes complex when one unifies "scattered impressions" for "later generalizations" (p. 76), though once a

concept is transferred to a context it becomes more difficult for the individual to define it "when it is no longer rooted in the original situation and must be formulated on a purely abstract plan, without reference to any concrete situation or impressions" (p. 80). Vygotsky (1978) suggested that behaviors can be fossilized, meaning they are highly developed, retrieved automatically, and difficult to alter. These behaviors evolved through extended presence in a social context, changing through history of the interactions of a group. They are easier to alter as they are developing, but something must first interrupt the development (Shotter, 1993).

Social constructivism, as a part of a conceptual framework, is a logical choice for this study as it relates to the phenomenon of focus—knowledge transfer; mechanisms of knowledge transfer (prior knowledge, context, motivation, and culture) relate to social elements that social constructivists argue ground knowledge creation. Firstly, prior knowledge is culturally situated and had to be transferred through a social interaction at some point in the participants' lives, which was then internalized. Secondly, context includes all people in the environment and how the participants situate themselves, thus inviting interaction. Thirdly, motivation relates to whether knowledge was appropriately applied in a context—a determination related to culture in the context—making motivation as a mechanism a subsect of context and culture. Finally, culture, as defined by Crossley (2015) is socially mediated, falling in line with social constructivist theory. These constructs help ground the use of Situated Learning Theory and critical pedagogies to analyze the transfer of reading knowledge within the teaching community, and its relation to the perception of participant/student interaction.

Situated Learning Theory

Situated Learning Theory is a means of describing how knowledge is passed and developed through a community, thus expanding on the social constructivist foundation of this

study. Based on the idea of apprenticeship, Lave and Wenger (1991) described Situated Learning as going beyond experiential learning, writing:

> Instead, it took on the proportions of a general theoretical perspective, the basis of claims about the relational character of knowledge and learning, about the negotiated character of meaning, and about the concerned (engaged, dilemma-driven) nature of learning activity for the people involved. That perspective meant that there is no activity that is not situated. It implied emphasis on comprehensive understanding involving the whole person rather than "receiving" a body of factual knowledge about the world; on activity in and with the world; and on the view that agent, activity, and the world mutually constitute each other. (p. 33)

Situated learning is not just learning through experience, rather it is the learning situated within the experiences shared within a culture, reflecting the history and social practices of the group.

Having knowledge situated within cultures and experiences makes them concrete, and Lave and Wenger (1991) noted that, "abstract representations are meaningless unless they can be made specific to the situation at hand" (p. 33). Abstract ideas were formed in "specific circumstances", and if one is not a part of the history or culture of these circumstances, it is not enough to know a "general rule" because it "in no way assures that any generality it may carry is enabled in the specific circumstances in which it is relevant" (Lave & Wenger, p. 33, 1991). Stories can be utilized to help disseminate general knowledge across situations, though in societies this knowledge is not as respected as more specific knowledge developed in situated contexts; specific knowledge is only meaningful in specific circumstances (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Knowledge is developed and transmitted through a process Lave and Wenger (1991) call legitimate peripheral participation. They wrote:

> By this we mean to draw attention to the point that learners inevitably participate in communities of practitioners and that the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to move toward full participation in the sociocultural practices of a community. "Legitimate peripheral participation" provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artifacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. It concerns the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice. A person's intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a sociocultural practice. This social process includes, indeed it subsumes, the learning of knowledgeable skills. (p.28)

Legitimate peripheral participation is not a means of abstraction, rather a way to describe how concrete knowledge comes to be. During legitimate peripheral participation, individuals develop "skilled identities in practice" and the community is reproduced (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 55). It is also important to note that learning during the process of legitimate peripheral participation can be intentional or unintentional; knowledge can be learned that might not be what the expert in the community planned. This can be problematic as beliefs and values that have been unexamined can be perpetuated within a community. It is precisely because of the nature of legitimate peripheral participation that Lave and Wenger (1991) argued make it an integral perspective on learning because it centers analytical focus on "key aspects of learning experience that may be overlooked" (p. 40).

Legitimate peripheral participation differs from traditional views of learning, as these views rely on internalization of knowledge that decontextualizes the individual learner. It discounts the individual, and the relation between the individual and others, which add complexity to analysis. It simplifies the entire process of learning, relegating it to merely "transmission and assimilation" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 46). Taking people out of knowledge takes away the richness of it. That is why Lave and Wenger (1991) described knowledge as having different meanings based on the individuals who share in it. They stated, "Its meaning to given actors, its furnishings, and the relations of humans with/in it, are produced, reproduced, and changed in the course of activity (which includes speech and thought, but cannot be reduced to one or the other)" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 51). Further, learning can be seen as the change of a person; to take the individuals out of knowledge denies how knowledge helps in "the construction of identities" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 53).

The process of legitimate peripheral participation occurs within set communities. Lave and Wenger (1991) defined communities as comprising "apprentices, young masters with apprentices, and masters some of whose apprentices have themselves become masters" (p. 56). Apprentices are tasked with things that are simplistic, either at the beginning or ending of an activity where the work is less complex (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In this way, knowledge filters through the community, learned from the periphery, and brought to the center in a cyclical way through the history of the community. This reproduction is also described as "a whole spectrum of expertise" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 56). There are important implications to bear in mind when considering communities of practice. Firstly, though the community has members, membership is diverse with different paradigms—it is not necessarily "a well-defined, identifiable group, or socially visible. It does imply participation in an activity system about

which participants share" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 97). Community is the relationships between people, shared activity, and external influences, providing the historical means of interpreting knowledge (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Secondly, learning is not just transfer—the process of learning brings transformation and change to individuals, as the community is concerned with "producing their own future" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 57). This reproduction leaves "a historical trace of artifacts – physical, linguistic, and symbolic – and of social structures, which constitute and reconstitute the practice over time" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 57). Because there is a social organization within the community with power relations of the masters over the apprentices, learning from legitimate peripheral participation needs to include consideration of the political relationships, the history of the community, and how they reflect on the learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Within a community, information flows between peers or "near-peers" (p. 93) quickly, meaning that being a part of the practice in the community is increasingly important; when newcomers and apprentices engage in practice with experts in the community, they will disseminate that information to their peers rapidly. The relationships between newcomers and apprentices evolve as they engage in practices within the community, which causes their knowledge to grow (Lave & Wenger, 1991) The "extended period of legitimate peripherality" assimilates the apprentices into the culture, making it theirs, while at the same time, being on the periphery helps apprentices "gradually assemble a general idea of what constitutes the practice of the community" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 95).

In terms of knowledge development, Situated Learning Theory is based on the premise that the order of activities used to impart community practices will have to change if the peripheral learning of "less intense, less complex, less vital tasks are learned before more central

aspects of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 96). Lave and Wenger (1991) referred to the learning of newcomers as the teaching curriculum, with the knowledge viewed through the viewpoint of whoever is giving the instruction; this clarifies what the learning is about per the community. The learning curriculum is the engagement in community practice. While the teaching curriculum can be relatively isolated, the learning curriculum cannot. It is highly situated within the community. The teaching curriculum connects to the learning curriculum through the use of language. While the teaching curriculum talks about "a practice from the outside", the learning curriculum talks within the practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 107). If the newcomer never moves to the learning curriculum, they will not learn the practice that was talked about during the teaching curriculum, meaning they should be motivated to use language "as a key to legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 109). Put another way, if the newcomer (in the case of this study a pre-service teacher would be considered a newcomer) learns about teaching in TEP coursework but never sees this content in the learning curriculum (or the classroom context in the teaching profession), the practice will not take root with the newcomer. Using the language of the profession helps bridge the teaching and learning curricula for the newcomers by showing connections between content and context.

By participating in the learning curriculum, apprentices (or novice teachers) move closer to the center of the community. However, access to the community can be manipulated—depending on how the community is organized, "legitimate peripherality can either promote or prevent legitimate participation" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 103). Meaning, learning from the outskirts as an apprentice can help the apprentice learn knowledge to participate. While Lave and Wenger (1991) use the example of butchers who kept apprentices from simulated practices to mirror real-life situations or kept them from experiences rather than allow them to be

peripheral, demonstrating how the apprentice is seen as less legitimate in the community, an example from the teaching community could help frame the same phenomenon. When PSTs are kept from full participation in student teaching places from their cooperating teachers (CTs) who maintain all control in the classroom, PSTs' legitimacy is diminished and keeps from excluded from the community. Access can also be hindered by the participants if they are not aware of how to talk in the way of full participants in the community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Knowing how to talk increases the validity of the apprentice and allows deeper access to the community, though it does not necessarily impede knowledge gains (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Being accepted and interacting with experts in the community of practice make the knowledge apprentices gain legitimate (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Within this study, the community in which learning is situated is the community of teachers. Within the teacher education program, participants engage in the teaching curriculum when they are just learning about the community. They engage with near-peers (other students in their programs) to make sense of their learning, and they engage in legitimate peripheral participation as they move through their program, moving closer to the center of the community as they enter the novice teaching phase. They continue to engage in legitimate peripheral participation as they continue to assimilate to the culture of their community, taking in knowledge and practices as time continues.

Lave and Wenger (1991) are careful about the role of traditional schooling and learning. They claimed that schools are viewed as disseminators of decontextualized knowledge, but schools are, by nature, social and "constitute very specific contexts" (p. 39). Because of this, and the effectiveness of schools "in teaching, in the specialization of schooling in changing persons, in the special modes of inculcation for which schools are known" (p. 39), Lave and Wenger

(1991) found traditional schooling misaligned with legitimate peripheral participation, which is not a pedagogy, but "an analytical viewpoint on learning, a way of understanding learning" (p. 40). Despite this, Situated Learning Theory is still very much applicable to this study as it concerns newcomers to the community of teachers as they engage in legitimate peripheral participation, gaining knowledge valued within the community.

Critical Pedagogies

"Let's face it: most of us were taught in classrooms where styles of teachings reflected the notion of a single norm of thought and experience, which we were encouraged to believe was universal. This has been just as true for nonwhite teachers as for white teachers. Most of us learned to teach emulating this model. Consequently, many teachers are disturbed by the political implications of a multicultural education because they fear losing control in a classroom where there is no one way to approach a subject—only multiple ways and multiple references" (hooks, 2014, p. 35).

Critical pedagogies are derived from instructional practice through a critical theory lens. Kincheloe (2008) explained that critical pedagogies seek to contextualize school within the community to "identify the insidious forces that subvert the success of particular students" (p. 7). He added that, "If we are unable to articulate the transformative, just, and egalitarian critical pedagogical vision, then the job of schooling will continue to involve taming, controlling, and/or rescuing the least empowered of our students" (p. 8). Critical pedagogies also recognize the politics present in education, that when education claims to be neutral, "it supports the dominant, existing power structure" (p. 11). Kincheloe (2008) noted that critical pedagogies are "dedicated to the alleviation of human suffering" (p. 11), and "prevents students from being hurt" (p. 13). Exploring how classrooms act to reproduce systemic oppression of different social groups based on numerous factors, critical pedagogists also seek ways of instituting instructional practice that

values all students and addresses the traditional ways schools have oppressed student groups (Kincheloe, 2008). Critical pedagogies are important to this study because the participants in this study are coming from a dominant group, serving students who are not all members of the same in-groups; while their students are largely White, the majority are living in poverty of some kind. The teachers are bringing their own cultural lens, socialized through their own childhoods and their educational experiences—they learned what it meant to be a teacher through group situated learning within the teaching community, and replicated a culture and practices that may misalign with the culture of their students, ignoring the political and historical contexts of the educational system.

Engaged Pedagogy. The first critical pedagogy to inform the analysis of this study is that of bell hooks. In *Teaching to Transgress* (2014), hooks outlined her engaged pedagogy which blossomed from the uncomfortable experience of learning ideas at school that "ran counter to values and beliefs learned at home" (p. 3) School was a place that ultimately transmitted the idea that "obedience to authority" was the primary objective (hooks, 2014, p. 4). The issue stemmed from the professors' lack of self-actualization—they were not aware enough of themselves, their biases, and the power dynamics they often blindly reproduced; they did not actively show they valued everyone in the classroom (hooks, 2014). hooks (2014) also noted that the "primary lesson" in college was to obey authority (p. 4). hooks (2014) stated:

> Let's face it: most of us were taught in classrooms where styles of teachings reflected the notion of a single norm of thought and experience, which we were encouraged to believe was universal. This has been just as true for nonwhite teachers as for white teachers. Most of us learned to teach emulating this model (p. 35)

In TEPs and in related student teaching rooms, teachers learn to reproduce and obey systems that do not honor all students.

hooks (2014) argued that engaged pedagogy goes further than other critical or feminist pedagogies in that it centers on well-being. Teachers are required to become self-actualized if they are to "teach in a manner that empowers students" (p. 15); being self-actualized is a way of taking care of one's self as it brings clarity. Engaged pedagogy puts value on the life experiences of students rather than the single lens of the instructor. It acknowledges that trust in the classroom is dependent on an equal amount of vulnerability; to expect otherwise is "exercising power in a manner that could be coercive" (hooks, 2014, p. 21). Even instructors who attempt to go against established tradition may find that they actually serve to maintain the status quo through their "body posture, tone, word choice, and so on that perpetuate those very hierarchies and biases they are critiquing" (hooks, 2014, p. 141). hooks (2014) noted that the same is true of educators who teach in diverse placements but live in isolated communities; they perceive themselves as being open to diversity when they actually "maintain conservative positions in the classroom" (p. 139).

Moving to self-actualization puts educators in uncomfortable positions, as they begin to see their lack of knowledge as a means of losing authority (hooks, 2014). Instead of being able to rely on "the comforting 'melting pot' idea of cultural diversity" (p. 30), educators must acknowledge that how the classroom functions must change, that relationships between students and educators must change (hooks, 2014). One primary concept that needed to shift was that ideal students were quiet and raise their hands—this concept of right conduct was typically used to describe a "safe space" (hooks, 2014, p. 35). While loud talking and interruptions may seem "threatening" to students with upper- and middle-class backgrounds, to students from working-

class backgrounds the behavior is related to "intense responses" stemming from the discussion (hooks, 2014, p. 187). hooks (2014) argued that educators must learn "cultural codes" as well as "learn to accept different ways of knowing…in the multicultural setting" (p. 41). The work of shifting conceptions of education causes some amount of pain, as it leads individuals to begin questioning relationships and situations around them which they previously blindly accepted; they may now see these to be implicitly "nonprogressive" or racist (hooks, 2014, p. 42).

hooks (2014) noted that while it seems more obvious to use engaged pedagogy in terms of race and/or sex, it can also be used to address class, which is not discussed to the same length. Traditional pedagogies assume that even if there is not a common class background, everyone in the classroom is determined to reach the top with the "unspoken understanding…that we will land somewhere in the middle, between top and bottom" (p. 177). What is missing in this assumption is the way that class shapes "values, attitudes, social relations, and the biases that informed the way knowledge would be given and received" (p. 178). hooks (2014) described clashes derived from differences in class hierarchy:

> As silence and obedience to authority were most rewarded, students learned that this was the appropriate demeanor in the classroom. Loudness, anger, emotional outbursts, and even something as seemingly innocent as unrestrained laughter were deemed unacceptable, vulgar disruptions of classroom social order. These traits were also associated with being a member of the lower classes. If one was not from a privileged class group, adopting a demeanor similar to that of the group could help one to advance. It is still necessary for students to assimilate bourgeois values in order to be deemed acceptable. (p.178)

To value who students are, with class being part of identity, educators must see how their own identity is reproduced in their pedagogy, recognizing that it is often shaped by values related to the middle-class (hooks, 2014).

Like social constructivism and Situated Learning Theory, engaged pedagogy emphasizes the importance of language. hooks (2014) wrote, "language disrupts, refuses to be contained within boundaries. It speaks itself against our will, in words and thoughts that intrude, even violate the most private spaces of mind and body" (p. 167). Language is intertwined with identity, and words that don't intend to extend certain dynamics, can. hooks (2014) noted that she emphasizes the importance of first languages of students, which caused problems with White students who complained, particularly when students used Black vernacular. This was an opportunity for students to view the struggle to understand as "a space to learn" (p. 171). hooks (2014) went on to say:

> Such a space provides not only the opportunity to listen without "mastery," without owning or possessing speech through interpretation, but also the experience of hearing non-English words. These lessons seem particularly crucial in a multicultural society that remains white supremacist, that uses standard English as a weapon to silence and censor. (p. 171)

Students are encouraged to listen to others in the classroom, ensuring that everyone has opportunity to give voice to their ideas. Students with privileged backgrounds generally work under the assumption that they have the right to be heard, not necessarily that they must listen, too. By allowing people the space to speak in their first language, the idea that "one is worthy of being heard only if one speaks in standard English" (hooks, 2014, p. 174). Incorporating strategies that give value to individual voice can help with engaging in critical dialogue (hooks,

2014). Being mindful of positionality in terms of language, and the way language can be used to control, can help students see that the purpose of education is not to reproduce the instructor, instead to leave "with a sense of engagement, with a sense of themselves as critical thinkers, excited about intellectual activity" (hooks, 2014, p. 158).

Engaged pedagogy is a means of analyzing participant interaction with students, particularly if the aim of education is to teach all students, helping them gain skills to enrich their lives and escape poverty. While there is no direct teacher-student observation in this study, participants do discuss their interactions as well as their perspectives regarding their students.

Abolitionist Pedagogy. "What good is an education if you must shed who you are? (Love, 2019, p. 44)"

The second critical pedagogy underpinning this study is Bettina Love's abolitionist pedagogy (2019). Love (2019) based her pedagogy on the premise that culture "is a group's knowledge production process that occurs as they understand and respond to their reality and create ways of being to survive or thrive in their everyday lives" (p. 128). Culture, therefore, is created and reproduced through any group that has a shared knowledge, extending beyond racial considerations that generally seem to bound culture. Also important to abolitionist pedagogy is the idea that schools are directly linked to political realities. Love (2019) explained:

> The fact that schools are funded by local property taxes ensures that students who live in poor communities receive an education that will maintain, and, in fact, widen the gap between the über-rich, the rich, the rapidly shrinking middle class, the working poor, and the poor. This system renders schools ineffective in providing poor students any type of real social mobility. Schools in higher-income districts or rich enclaves are well-resourced, have high-quality teachers, and have low teacher turnover. (Love, 2019, p. 27)

It is important, then, that teachers know, understand, and acknowledge the role that schools play in the reproduction of some cultures, while diminishing and obstructing others. When teachers ignore the ways in which schools can subjugate students who do not match the culture represented in the school, they are forced to learn to "merely survive, learning how schools mimic the world they live in, thus making schools a training site for a life of exhaustion" (Love, 2019, p. 27). When students are not exhausted from trying to deny their own cultures, they act out against these mismatched cultural norms, a point Love (2019) related to a quote from Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. that "A riot is the language of the unheard" (p. 24).

While teachers may recognize that there is a certain toxic environment in the field of education, often from excessive bureaucracy and unrealistic curricular expectations, their tendency is to close their doors, blocking out what they perceive to be the problem. This action, Love (2019) argued, only benefits the teacher, removing the teacher from the stress—it does not change the pedagogical realities that are still negatively impacting students. These actions are derived largely from their own backgrounds, which were generally homogenous, in which future teachers learned tacit fear of difference; it is easier to continue with the status quo and remain comfortable than engage in productive, systemic change. Since teachers in struggling schools tend to not live in the communities in which they work in favor of familiar, homogenous communities, they often compare the two making it easier to maintain belief in stereotypes (Love, 2019). To illustrate this, Love (2019) described the experience of teaching future teachers:

> I have taught so many future educators and worked with hundreds of in-service teachers who profess to love all kids and have good intentions to be fair and just in their classrooms, yet they write, say, and partake in racist actions and posts online about dark

> children loosely masked in the language of low expectations, of judging low- income parents and dark children's behavior. Furthermore, there are so many White liberal teachers who think racism is something singular to the far right. Racism is not exclusive to one political party or a particular type of White person. White, well-meaning, liberal teachers can be racist too. Therefore, understanding how racism works and understanding how White privilege functions within our society does not bring us any closer to justice, and it certainly does not undo the educational survival complex. Knowing these truths is the first step to justice, but it's only a start. (p. 51)

The majority of the teachers Love (2019) educates are "White, middle-class young women between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one, which is the demographic of most teacher education programs in the US" (p. 126). She noted that a "Teacher Education Gap" exists—in their teacher preparation, potential teachers are required to take one diversity course which focuses on assigning negative adjectives to students ("at risk", "underprivileged") without discussing how this came to be, or critiquing the system that makes it possible (Love, 2019, p. 127). This allows teachers to enter classrooms without an understanding of the cultures of their students, turning to stereotypes to guide them (Love, 2019). Considering that Love (2019) developed this pedagogy from work with pre-service teachers who match the national teaching population, it is appropriate for use in viewing actions from participants in this study—all of whom are White, middle class females.

Abolitionist pedagogy asks us to critically consider character education, commonplace in schools, and the way it devalues certain students and their cultures. Character education, as it is generally presented, is directed at changing student behaviors to mirror the ones the dominant cultural values. Used in public schools across the country, culture education programs have "no

formal evaluation of their success rates" but assume that students different than the dominant culture "lacked good character" (Love, 2019, p.69). Love (2019) argued that character education is a means of getting students from different cultures to comply with culture values that deny parts of themselves. Some of these behaviors are directly related to conditions perpetuated by the White and wealthy. Children who live in poverty or face prolonged adversity face "neurobiological transformation" (p. 73) which directly relates to their behaviors and learning, yet our communities do not address those issues meaningfully (Love, 2019). Instead, conditions that devalue people living in poverty and people of color continue, and when children get to school, pedagogies further devalue them. Those in power could choose to disrupt the system that keeps them above others, but often instead engage in pedagogies that devalue other cultures and while making the assumption that the child's character must change. It is not enough to declare one's self an ally. Love (2019) explained that being an ally does not require one to question anything about their privilege, or put them in any place of risk, thus not changing anything systemically.

Rather than close their doors or engage in character education, teachers need to critically reflect on their own privilege, looking to see how they advertently or inadvertently act as an oppressor (Love, 2019). Love (2019) argued that only after going through this process can a teacher work for social change because it is then that a teacher can understand the injustice in "yelling of slogans at dark children, such as "knowledge is power," "work hard," "be nice," and "no excuses" because all you need is grit" (p.75). Grit is a buzzword in education used to reference the perseverance of disadvantaged children, and Love (2019) wrote why relying on grit does not work in reality:

> There are millions of people who work fifty to seventy hours a week, some at two or three jobs, but they cannot afford to pay their bills because the minimum wage does not cover the rising cost of living in the US. They keep getting up again and again, working, but they remain in poverty. This ceaseless cycle is no fault of theirs; the working poor are among the grittiest. They persevere for the long-term goal of their children's education. They hope that life can and will be better for the next generation. That is the grit of dark people. They work endlessly for the next generation and the next day with resolve, purpose, hope, faith, and a desire for their children to thrive one day off the labor of their grit. (p. 78)

If grit was all it took to escape poverty and injustice, millions across America would have already done so. In order to break the cycle, teachers need to understand deeply how their own beliefs, their own privileges, and the history of the country impact their realities and the realities of their students—a tenant of abolitionist teaching Love named freedom dreaming (2019). Freedom dreaming requires teachers to teach "from a place of love and sharp criticism of the United States of America", specifically looking at "the root cause of the educational survival complex" (Love, 2019, p. 103-104).

Like engaged pedagogy, abolitionist pedagogy asks that teachers are reflective about their own privileges and biases. Also, like engaged pedagogy, abolitionist pedagogy is used to view participant interactions with students. Both pedagogies provide a lens for analyzing these interactions for teacher self-reflection, paying attention to not only action but language as well. Social constructivism and Situated Learning Theory place heavy emphasis on the importance of language for not only knowledge creation, but also for knowledge transfer. The purpose of transferring knowledge of reading instruction through the teaching community is to teach

students how to read, though disadvantaged students have not met reading proficiency standards as White, middle to upper class students. Critical pedagogies such as engaged pedagogy and abolitionist pedagogy help us see how that knowledge is then used in relation to students, and if that knowledge seeks to value all students.

Positionality

As Moustakas (1994) and Holstein and Gubrium (1994) stated, it is important for researchers engaged in phenomenological research to acknowledge their own positionality regarding the phenomenon. There are different types of positionality which need to be addressed. General positioning relates to the subjective responses of the researcher, fixed positioning includes factors which are relatively unchanged (age, race, gender, class), subjective positioning is the researcher's personal history, and textual positioning relates to the record of what the researcher sees (Sunstein & Chiseri-Strater, 2012). Creswell and Poth (2014) recommended beginning the study with a complete description of personal experience with the phenomenon in question. In this section, I will give an account of my positioning—fixed and subjective—which will affect my interpretation of the central phenomenon of this study.

I am a White, middle-class female, in my eighth year of teaching. My entire teaching career has been in Title I elementary schools, all with large ELL populations, though my student teaching placement was in an affluent elementary school in the same district with a small ELL population. My career has been situated in a large, urban school district. I grew up with a stable home life in a middle-class suburb, attending public schools from kindergarten through high school, and my public schools were situated in more affluent areas than the public schools in which I've taught; I did not personally have much interaction with poverty, nor did I have much interaction with anyone who was different from me. This would become an issue later on when I

did encounter people with different backgrounds because, as Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, and Miller (2003) noted, "In a monocultural environment culture remains mostly invisible" (p. 15), in some ways inviting the assumption that everyone shares a background. Though the school I attended and the community in which I lived tended to have a politically conservative majority, I have always had more liberal leanings, especially toward social policy and education due in part to my family's beliefs.

I attended an accredited private university for my undergraduate degree, majoring in elementary education and learning/behavior disorders. The university population overall was comprised of students who looked like me and had a similar background. Likewise, my TEP included many students who looked and had similar experiences as me. All elementary education majors were White females, and I did not encounter male education majors until elementary and secondary education majors shared coursework; there were no PSTs of any other race, and the majority of us were solidly middle-class.

During my TEP, I took a reading methods course, a linguistics course, and a children's literature course, and I had a vague idea of what phonemic awareness was, with more concrete understandings of phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Overall, I felt most prepared to teach comprehension skills, graduating my TEP with strategies for teaching comprehension. I do not recall learning any explicit strategies for helping students with phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, or fluency. I had field experience throughout the first three years of my TEP, though it was largely observations in a variety of Catholic private schools, and elementary schools in a larger urban district. I also completed field work in special education placements. I heard stories from classmates about engaging in actual teaching during their practicum work and having engaging conversations with their placement teachers. This

was not my experience. I watched teachers, I asked questions of the more welcoming ones, and they signed the forms to document my hours.

During my student teaching placement in the final year of my TEP, I was placed in a more affluent, higher-achieving elementary school in the same urban district in which I completed field work. Half of the semester I was in a second/third grade split classroom with a teacher who recently transferred to the school. I do not recall witnessing any work regarding phonics, vocabulary, or fluency, though there was work on metacognition and reading content directly related to the standards of the time. The majority of reading instruction was whole-group and teacher-directed. The only reading assessment conducted was the Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA), which includes a reading engagement, fluency, and comprehension measure, but that did not occur with all students. It was never clear to me why all students were not assessed. The second half of the semester, I completed a placement with a special education resource teacher in the same school. In this placement, I did not work on any phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, or fluency, though there was some work on comprehension skills; the majority of instructional time was spent on social skills and worksheets. I did not see much assessment in that classroom.

When transitioning into the novice teacher phase, I was hired into a Title I elementary school in the same district, but on the opposite side of town. This part of the city is significantly less affluent than the area my student teaching placement was situated. I was teaching a kindergarten/first grade split and was overwhelmed by the need in the room. For the first time in my life, I was solely responsible for students living in poverty, who had parents in jail, who had parents working two or three jobs, who were being raised by grandparents, who looked different than me, and a whole host of different combinations of those factors. When addressing their

reading needs, I could confidently approach comprehension, but could not effectively address the remaining four pillars of reading which directly impact reading comprehension. I did not know how to address word work or implement guided reading. It became apparent to me in those moments that I did not receive everything I needed from my undergraduate experience, leading me to become increasing frustrated. Eventually, I would come into my doctoral work knowing I wanted to focus on teacher preparation, as I felt particularly let down by my own. I had a strong mentor teacher and observed the Reading Recovery teacher, both of whom helped me better understand how to approach guided reading. It was not until I participated in a joint district/university reading project with focus on graduate level reading coursework that I learned in clarity what each pillar of reading was, how to assess them, and how to instruct them.

At the same time I was expanding my academic understandings, I worked to expand my cultural competence. I reflected and realized I needed to be able to understand my students' contexts to best teach them; I could not assume they had the same lived experiences as me. I spent more time engaged in conversation, reading about poverty, race, and gender, and reflecting on and becoming aware of my presuppositions, biases, and judgments. During my first few years of teaching, I viewed myself as the savior of these students, that with my privilege I could "save them", not realizing that mindset denied the value and experiences my students had. Over the course of my reading and discussions with other educators, I realized that while my awareness of the realities of my students had grown, my awareness of how my own privilege impacted the choices I made in my classroom needed to grow as well.

Research Questions

With this study, I am exploring the phenomenon of knowledge transfer of pre-service teachers as they become novice teachers. I am seeking to answer one large question, with several sub-questions. Specifically, I seek to answer:

How do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from their TEPs to their own classrooms?

1. How do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from aspects of their teacher preparation program (coursework and student teaching) to their own classroom?
2. How do elementary novice teachers perceive the role of different mechanisms of knowledge transfer in their lived experience?

Setting

This study takes place utilizing novice elementary teachers from the same small, rural school district, who went to a TEP located in the same state as the district. In the 2018-2019 school year, 92% of elementary students in the school district were White, 3% of students were Hispanic, 3% of students were two or more races, and 1% of students were Black; less than 1% of the elementary student population were considered limited English proficient (LEP) (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Regarding gender composition of the elementary student population, 51% were male, and 49% were female (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). During the same year, 43% of elementary students qualified for free lunch, while 4% qualified for reduced lunch, and 388 elementary students were considered homeless (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). The majority of the teachers in the district match the national norm and are a less diverse population than the students. Currently, the district employs 936

teachers, 79% of whom were women. Of those same 936 teachers, 99% were White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2020).

Participants

Moustakas (1994) suggested there are two types of considerations when selecting participants for a phenomenological study: general and essential. He wrote:

> General considerations include: age, race, religion, ethnic and cultural factors, gender, and political and economic factors. Essential criteria include: the research participant has experienced the phenomenon, is intensely interested in understanding its nature and meanings, is willing to participate in a lengthy interview. (Moustakas, 1994, p. 107)

In this study, the general considerations are negligible, as the essential criteria take precedence. Participants in this study are novice teachers (meaning they are within their first three years of teaching), they teach in an elementary school within the district of focus, and they completed their preparation in a certified, traditional TEP in the same state as the district of focus; this can include MAT teachers, as they receive reading coursework in a more concentrated amount of time. Participants all come from Title I elementary schools, which are some of the most diverse schools in the district. Additionally, they are academically struggling. As the literature suggests, schools that are diverse and academically struggling generally have more novice teachers than veteran teachers. Teachers who completed alternative certification programs are not included, as their programs contain variables not within the scope of the study.

It is important to note that the majority of elementary teachers share similar demographics, so while general considerations were not sought in this study, participants could share race, gender, and socioeconomic factors.

Sampling

A mixture of sampling techniques was used to recruit participants to this study. First, purposive sampling was utilized, as there was intentionality on which schools were included in this study (Creswell & Poth, 2014); only Title I elementary schools were included. Then, criterion sampling narrowed participants further. Creswell and Poth (2014) suggested it is a good method when "all individuals studied represent people who have experienced the phenomenon" (p. 157). All the participants had to meet certain criteria to participate in this study. The assistant superintendent of the study compiled a list of teachers who taught in Title I elementary schools within the district, and then filtered for the criteria. Introductory emails were sent to everyone who met the criteria, in which the scope and requirements of the study were described. Information was presented in meetings for new teachers, fliers were handed out, and follow-up emails were sent. Eight participants elected to be in this study, which is suitable for a phenomenology as the suggested sample size for a phenomenological study is 5-20 (Moustakas, 1994). All participants were White females.

Table 1

Participant Characteristics

	Years Teaching	*Grades Taught*	*Student Teaching Placement*
Cassandra	1	3rd	Urban
Megan	1	5th	Urban
Kara	3	1st, 3rd	Urban
Abigail	1	5th	Rural
Ellie	2	K, 3rd	Urban

Ava	1	2nd	Urban
Amber	2	K	None*
Rachel	2	K, 1st	Rural

Note: participant names are pseudonyms.

*Participant was allowed to waive student teaching while completing her MAT.

Data Collection

Of primary concern when collecting data is protecting the participants' privacy, keeping personal details confidential (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014; Punch, 1994). To protect participants' privacy, they were provided aliases and identifying information is omitted, and signed informed consent forms were obtained from all participants, meaning they were provided with all information about how their data will be used in the study before collection (Fontana & Frey, 1994; Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2020). Further, participants checked transcripts for accuracy, and interpretation of statements are subject to member-checking to ensure trustworthiness (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). This study relies on interview and document data.

Participants were interviewed one-on-one utilizing Otter Voice Notes to record and transcribe. The transcription was immediately read upon interview completion to ensure the transcription matched the audio recording, and the transcript was sent to the participant as a means of member-checking the data, which is a strategy useful for validation (Moustakas, 1994). An interview protocol, with space to record observations to aid in the interpretation of the data, will be used, though interviews will be considered semi-structured to allow for elaboration and clarification (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Moustakas, 1994). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) described semi-structured interviews as attempting "to understand themes of the lived everyday world from

the subjects' own perspectives" (p. 27). Moustakas (1994) suggested beginning the interview with a personal conversation to set the participant at ease and create "a relaxed and trusting atmosphere" (p. 114). Sunstein and Chiseri-Strater (2012) added that to get an accurate depiction of what the participant really thinks and feels, the researcher should avoid interruptions, but encourage the participant to try and respond while still focusing on body language the participant presents. The interviewer must also approach the interview with a certain amount of naiveté so the focus is truly on the perception of reality from the participants' perspectives (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

An online focus group was also used to help participants clarify their experiences. The participants were presented with the option of an in-person or online focus group, with all but one participant voting to hold the focus group online. The online platform, GroupMe, was used to open access to all participants. At the agreed upon date, we all met online. I started the group with a clarifying question noted throughout most individual interviews and allowed the group to follow the direction in which the participant conversation led, asking other clarifying questions when the needed.

In conjunction with interviews, I utilized documents in the form of lesson plans. Hodder (1994) wrote there is an assumption when using documents as data that they reflect the intention of practice. I requested participants supply lesson plans that reflect their reading instruction as a means of demonstrating knowledge transfer to compare with their interviews. Hodder (1994) indicated that documents are still personal to the participant and will "require more contextualized interpretation" (p. 393), cautioning that documents can reveal patterns in "unexpected ways" (p. 398). It is important, then, for the researcher to obtain as much information about the context of the document creation as well.

Guba (1981) asserted that qualitative research must ensure credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability in order to be trustworthy studies. Credibility can be met through data triangulation and member checks, both of which are present in the data collection and analysis in this study (Guba, 1981; Guba & Lincoln, 1982; Creswell & Poth, 2014; Fontana & Frey, 1994).

Transferability is ensured in this study as purposive sampling was utilized, meaning commonalities could be seen across individual experiences. Trustworthiness was further ensured in the form of rich descriptions to help the reader better understand the ways connections were made (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Guba, 1981). Part of these descriptions include observational notes made during the interview, which help shape interpretation, as Creswell and Poth (2014) noted, “Detail can emerge through physical description, movement description, and activity description. It can also involve describing from the general ideas to the narrow, interconnecting the details, using strong action verbs, and quotes” (p. 263).

Dependability is also present in this study, meaning the data is relatively stable. This is achieved through overlapping data collection methods, a component of triangulation. Guba (1981) noted, “two or more methods are teamed in such a way that the weakness of one is compensated by the strengths of another” (p. 86). If strengths of data collections methods overlap, then the data overall is strengthened (Guba & Lincoln, 1982). An audit trail is also established, making sure my documentation of data collection processes and analyses encircle the study (Guba, 1981).

Finally, confirmability, or the idea of the data and later interpretation can be confirmed by an outsider, is seen in this study through the presence of data triangulation because it utilizes multiples data points to reveal perspective. Confirmability is also present in the researcher’s use

of reflexivity. By revealing positionality that can color interpretation, the researcher helps the reader understand how interpretations were made. By engaging in data collection that engages in social interaction and collecting data in a way which ensures trustworthiness, the experience of reading knowledge transfer will be easier to understand so as to generate the essence of the experience.

Data Analysis

In interpreting the data, transcripts were read to determine "significant statements" (Creswell & Poth, 2014, p. 201), or what Moustakas (1994) called horizontalization. These significant statements start as codes, which Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2020) stated are "used to retrieve and categorize similar data units so the researcher can quickly find, pull out, and cluster the segments relating to a particular research question, hypothesis, concept, or theme" (p. 63). In Vivo coding is present in this study, as social constructivists emphasize the importance of language in knowledge creation. In Vivo coding "uses words or short phrases from the participant's own language in the data record as codes" (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2020, p. 65). Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2020) suggested that the researcher create jottings during the first cycle of analysis. Jottings consist of personal reactions, doubts, notes about next steps, cross-references between cases, or possible subtext of the participant (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2020). Memoing was also used as a means of organizing and extending one's thinking when interpreting the data (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2020). Charmaz (2014) wrote that engaging in memoing can later provide clarity on themes, as the researcher will begin to see which codes are standing out. Lesson plans were used to corroborate participants' comments from their interviews and focus group.

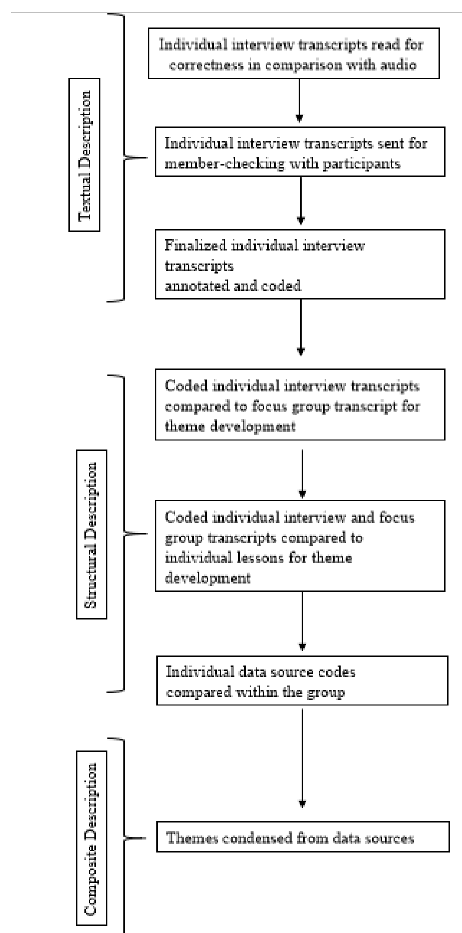
Relating to first cycle analysis, Creswell and Poth (2014) further note:

> Researchers build detailed descriptions, apply codes, develop themes or dimensions, and provide an interpretation in light of their own views or views of perspectives in the literature. *Detailed description* means that authors describe what they see. This detail is provided *in situ* –that is, within the context of the setting of the person, place, or event. (p. 189)

When Creswell and Poth (2014) reference codes, they mean that data is brought together and named. Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2020) advised analysts to generate definitions of codes to ensure codes are “applied consistently” (p. 77).

Figure 3

Data Analysis Pathway



These codes are further aggregated into themes during a second cycle of analysis (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2020). Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2020) noted that themes are "most applicable to phenomenology" (p. 73), describing themes as "an *extended phrase* or *sentence* that identifies what a unit of data is *about* and/or what it *means*" (p. 73). Condensing codes into themes allows the researcher to generate a "smaller number of analytic units", while also laying "the groundwork for cross-case analysis by surfacing common themes and directional process" (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2020, p. 79). It is important that the themes are "nonrepetitive, nonoverlapping statements" (Creswell & Poth, 2014, p. 201), as the goal is to develop a common essence of the experience. If the data is not condensed into streamlined themes, the analysis becomes scattered. During analysis, constant comparison was used within individual cases, and then across cases as more interviews and documents were collected. While generally considered an analytical method for grounded theory work, constant comparison was valuable in this study as well. During this analytical process, the researcher compared information within one case to gauge similarities and differences, and then compared this information to information present in other interviews (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This process helped facilitate the later generation of the essence of the phenomenon.

From these clusters of information, three different levels of description were generated. First, the textural description, which contains what the participants experienced (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Moustakas, 1994). Next, a structural description, outlining the setting, context, and "'how' the experience happened" (Creswell & Poth, 2014, p. 201; Moustakas, 1994). Finally, the textural and structural descriptions are brought together in a composite (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Moustakas, 1994).

In practical terms, the process of coding interview transcripts, a single participant interview was read with significant statements underlined. This process occurred with all interviews (including the focus group), comprising the textual description. Once all interviews had been read and significant statements relating to the research questions were underlined, the participants' own words were taken from the transcript and grouped into categories based on research question. For example, all significant statements that were spoken in relation to describing coursework were clustered together. Once the statements were clustered, they were read again and grouped based on the similarities in sentiment. For example, statements that referred to any sort of feeling of confusion were further clustered together. The lesson plans were used to corroborate information from the interviews and focus group. Comparing statements and the clustering of them helped begin to develop themes—the structural description. Finally, once this process was completed, the newly clustered statements were reread, with the statement that typified the overall group identified as the theme title. When there were small clusters within a theme that did not directly align, these clusters were made into subthemes within the theme to better reflect the experiences and perceptions of all participants in the study, resulting in the composite description

Summary

This study is a phenomenology, utilizing social constructivism, situated learning theory, and critical pedagogies as its theoretical underpinnings. Phenomenological studies explore the lived experiences of participants, with interview transcripts and documents (lesson plans and journals) coded and incorporated into themes to generate a composite description which will capture the "essence" of the phenomenon of knowledge transfer (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Moustakas, 1994). Social constructivists state that knowledge is situated socially and

historically, with language acting as a mediating factor in the development of knowledge (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Gergen, 1985; Holstein & Gubrium, 1994; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003; Moll, 2014; Schwandt, 1994; Shotter, 1993; Vygotsky, 1962, 1978). Situated Learning Theory posits how knowledge is created within a community and then transferred throughout its membership (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Engaged pedagogy (hooks, 2014) and abolitionist pedagogy (Love, 2019) provide a lens for how knowledge of reading instruction presents itself in interactions with students who are different than the community of teachers.

Using criterion and purposive sampling, participants were recruited to engage in semi-structured interviews. Data triangulation through the use of documents as a data source will help ensure validity in the study, as well as member-checking, the inclusion of data that may not fit the themes, and the use of rich descriptions (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Fontana & Frey, 1994; Moustakas, 1994). Furthermore, the researcher reported positionality to address concerns relating to interpretation of the data (Sunstein and Chiseri-Strater, 2012).

Results

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to further the understanding of novice teachers' experience transferring knowledge of reading instruction from their teacher education program (TEP) to their own classrooms. Further, this study sought to determine the role mechanisms of knowledge transfer novice teachers perceived in their experience. In this chapter, profiles of the participants are outlined to provide context with which the participants' experiences can be placed. Afterward, themes with support from the participants' interviews are presented. Support from lesson plans are used to corroborate or further illustrate comments from the participants.

Participant Profiles

All participants in this study came from Title I elementary schools in the same rural school district in a mid-southern state. While participants attended four different universities in the state, they related similar thoughts and feelings regarding their experience of transferring knowledge from their TEP into their classrooms. All participants identified as White females. No elementary schools, universities, or student teaching placements will be identified by name to provide participants with anonymity.

Cassandra

Cassandra is 24 years old, and in her first year of teaching. After completing her undergraduate degree in elementary education at an urban university, she opted to transition into a graduate program in literacy from the same university instead of immediately entering her own classroom. She completed her student teaching in an urban district. While completing her graduate degree, she subbed in elementary classrooms in the same district in which she now teaches. She wanted to make connections at different schools to make it easier when she applied

for jobs. She is teaching third grade on a team that departmentalized and ability-grouped their students. Cassandra and her partner on the four-teacher team teach reading to "the less-developed, lower students", which she noted poses "an additional challenge" (Cassandra, interview, February 18, 2020). The school in which she teaches has a 57.7% economically disadvantaged student population, and 86.5% of students are White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). In the pursuit of staying current, Cassandra participated in a state reading project to enhance her knowledge of reading instruction.

During her interview, Cassandra chose to sit in her swivel chair in an instructional position; she sat in her normal space at her small-group table, as though a student was sitting across from her. Her classroom had anchor charts, student schedules, and "I Can" statements posted. Her classroom was colorful and clean, with student desks in rows. Cassandra was the only participant to cry during her interview, becoming emotional when discussing the frustration of her first year of teaching. She spoke openly before, during, and after the interview about her preparation and her current classroom.

Kara

Kara is 36 years old, and in her third year of teaching. Teaching is a second career for her, and she completed a Master of Arts in teaching (MAT) degree at an urban university. She completed her student teaching in an urban school district local to the university. Her first year of teaching was in the third grade in the same urban district, though she notes that the environment of her first job was different than her student teaching placement despite being in the same district. She took time off teaching to have her twins. She chose to teach in her current district because of its proximity to her home. Last year, her first at her current school, she taught third grade. Now she teaches all reading for the entire first grade, as the grade is

departmentalized. The school in which she teaches has a 57.7% economically disadvantaged student population, and 86.5% of students are White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Kara is taking graduate level literacy courses offered through an agreement between her district and a university in an adjacent county; she is in her second year of participation.

Like Cassandra, Kara chose to sit in her swivel chair in an instructional position, with the researcher sitting across from her in a student chair. Her classroom was also colorful and clean, but her students had tables, common in many primary classrooms. She also had anchor charts, "I Can" statements, and student schedules posted. Unlike Cassandra, Kara's demeanor seemed to shift after her interview, her posture becoming more open and her discussion of perceived negative behavior more open as well.

Megan

Megan is 22 years old, and in her first full year of teaching. She graduated early from the urban university she attended, obtaining her undergraduate degree in elementary education with a concentration in math. She completed her student teaching in the urban school district local to her university; in fact, her reading methods coursework took place in conjunction with a school in this district. She was hired halfway through last year to teach fifth grade reading in the rural district central to this study, largely picking up where the former teacher left off instructionally. She noted, "Because when I started, you know, I didn't want to completely change everything that teacher done before me for the sake of the kids" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). The team on which she teaches departmentalizes, and they provide a specific intervention time for struggling students; they only ability-group students during the given intervention time. The school in which she teaches has a 57.7% economically disadvantaged student population, and 86.5% of students are White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Megan is also

taking part in the graduate level literacy courses offered to teachers in her district through a university in an adjacent county.

Megan's interview took place during her planning, introducing a harried element. She was interrupted by phone calls from the office and announcements directing teachers to an assembly. Like other participants, Megan chose to sit in her swivel chair in an instructional position with the researcher across from her in a student chair, and like Cassandra, Megan's discussion of preparation and the reality of teaching remained open before, during, and after the interview; she had a very welcoming presence, her posturing leaning forwards as she was engaged in the conversation.

Abigail

Abigail is 22 years old, and in her first year of teaching. She attended an urban university but completed her student teaching in the rural district in which she currently teaches. She requested this placement, as she also attended the district herself. She teaches fifth grade, and the team decided to ability-group their students. She and her partner on the team teach the struggling readers. The school adopted a reading curriculum she had to learn; they are the only school in the district to use it. During the interview, she appeared to be the most confident of all the participants and came across as the least frustrated, though there were still things she noted about her experience that has left her wanting. She noted, "Um so, I guess, all of the students I've seen have been eager to read" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). This could contribute to what seemed to be less frustration and higher confidence. The school in which she teaches has a population that is 64.6% economically disadvantaged and 90.1% White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Abigail also takes part in the graduate level literacy courses offered through a university adjacent to the county in which her district resides.

Abigail also chose to sit in her swivel chair in an instructional position during her interview with the researcher sitting at a student desk. Unlike other teachers, Abigail did not have a kidney-shaped table for small groups. Rather, she had her own desk and students had traditional desks. As previously stated, Abigail seemed to exude confidence; she leaned back in a relaxed position for the majority of the interview. While her classroom was clean, it did not have the amount of anchor charts and was not as colorful as other participants' classrooms. Her students' desks were arranged in neat rows. Unlike other participants, Abigail did not seem inclined to talk further after the interview was officially over. Abigail was the only participant not to submit a lesson plan despite multiple attempts at reaching out to her. This is largely due to the fact that Abigail's was one of the last interviews to be conducted and happened right before she was to be married and school districts began to close in-person instruction due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Ellie

Ellie is 28 years old and is in her second year of teaching. She completed her undergraduate degree at an urban university and completed her student teaching in the local school district. The last part of her student teaching took place with a departmentalized fifth grade teacher who only taught math. During her first year of teaching, she taught kindergarten; this year she is teaching third grade. Over the past year, her school underwent a change in leadership, which made things more difficult for her. She shared:

> A lot of changes have been made and I feel like that in education we do so many changes before we are able to really hone in on if something is really working because it's always, like, 'We'll do this. Oh, no.' Next year, 'No, no. You shouldn't have done that. You

> need to do this.' You know, so that's been…professionally, can be a little overwhelming (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

The school in which she teaches has a 74.8% economically disadvantaged population, and is 86.5% White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Ellie, like most participants in this study, also takes part in the graduate literacy courses offered through a university in an adjacent county per an arrangement with her district.

Ellie's interview was conducted during her planning. She was a little flustered to start because she was late getting her students to their special area, her room reflecting her internal state with student materials left in medias res. It took her a few seconds to calm and focus on the topic of the interview, but when she did, she spoke more passionately and more urgently than the majority of the participants. Like other participants, she chose to sit in her swivel chair in an instructional position with the researcher sitting across from her in a student chair. She leaned forward throughout the entire interview, using her hands to aid in her expression.

Ava

Ava is 23 years old and in her first year of teaching. She attended an urban university and completed her student teaching in the local school district. She requested to complete her student teaching in the district in which she currently teaches but was not permitted by her university. She attended the district in which she teaches prior to completing her undergraduate degree. She currently teaches second grade and has found the year very challenging. She explained, "I really wish we would have had more experience with actually how to teach kids to read. I was not prepared for that at all. I've just been surviving this year" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). The school in which she teaches has a population that is 68.2% economically disadvantaged and 89.4% White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Ava

also takes part in the graduate level literacy courses offered through a university in an adjacent county.

Ava was the only participant who elected to complete her interview not in her classroom. She preferred to meet at a Starbucks close to her house. She smiled and exuded warmth as she settled with her coffee. She focused on the interview despite the noise in the sitting area, leaning forward and engaging the entire time. Out of all the participants, she continued talking the most after her interview was officially over, reiterating the points she made previously. While she admitted to frustration and confusion, the emotions were less evident in her demeanor than with other participants.

Amber

Amber is 27 years old and in her second year of teaching; she has taught kindergarten both years. She completed both undergraduate and graduate degrees in psychology before she went back to school to complete her MAT. Unlike other participants, she completed her MAT online. Also, unlike other participants, she was permitted to begin teaching while still working on her degree; she did not have to complete student teaching because she had her own classroom. She started teaching three weeks into the start of a new school year. She shared:

> I've worked in daycare before, so I came from preschool-age students so that was a—it was a good transition for me. I knew at least enough about the age group itself and what they needed. I did not have a lot of content knowledge (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

The school in which she teaches has a student population that is 61% economically disadvantaged and 89.9% White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Amber takes

graduate level literacy courses through a university in an adjacent county in conjunction with her district.

Amber, like Ava, was incredibly personable. She came off as confident and self-assured, and even proud as she described the measures she took to fill gaps in her practice. Her classroom was colorful, leaning towards primary colors, and clean. She had tables for her kindergarteners. Like the majority of participants, she chose to sit in her swivel chair in an instructional position at her small group table, with the researcher sitting across from her in student chair. She leaned forward throughout her interview and remained calm even when describing her frustrations.

Rachel

Rachel is 48 years old and in her third year of teaching. She completed her undergraduate degree at a rural university and completed her student teaching in a rural school district local to the university. She taught kindergarten for a year in that same district before she took time off to raise her children. Twenty-five years later, she took a job teaching kindergarten in her current rural district, having chosen the district because of its proximity to her home. She currently teaches first grade. She noted differences in her classroom experiences:

> It was, 'Here's what you do, and we don't have a lot of time for hands-on things because we have so much to cover, so many standards to cover, but if you do your time right you can make time for that also' (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020).

The school in which she teaches has a population that is 64.6% economically disadvantaged and 90.1% White (Kentucky Department of Education, 2019). Rachel is currently taking graduate level literacy courses through a university in an adjacent county per the agreement with her district.

Rachel was the only participant who opted to sit at a student table during her interview, in a way equalizing the positions of the interviewer and interviewee. Her classroom was clean and organized, with fewer anchor charts than other participants. She had more neutral colors in her décor than the bright colors of the majority of other participants' classrooms. She spoke with a detachment through most of the interview but opened up to discuss her frustrations with student behavior when the interview was officially over.

Themes

Presented in this section are the themes culled from analysis of individual interviews and the focus group interview, with support from lesson plans supplied by participants. Themes are presented in association with the research question they address, and themes contain subthemes to better encapsulate the overall experience of the participants. For example, when discussing their perception of reading knowledge transfer from their TEPs to their classrooms, participants described means of transfer, but some also mentioned feelings of being overwhelmed while recognizing the importance of the content during coursework, while others mentioned feelings of finding work pointless.

Overview of Themes from Research Question One

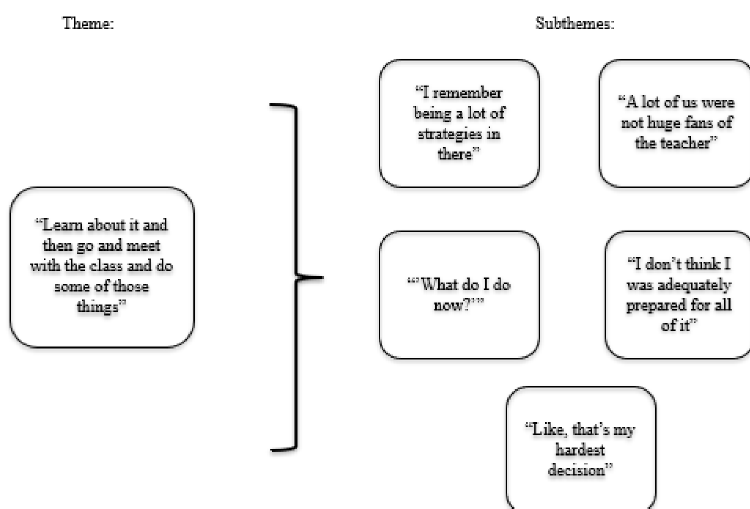
The first research question in this study was: How do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from aspects of their program (coursework and student teaching) to their own classrooms? Participants were asked to describe coursework and student teaching from their TEP, and their first classrooms in individual interviews and in a focus group. They were also asked to provide a reading lesson plan they already taught to corroborate information shared in their individual interviews and focus group. Overarching themes relating to this research question include:

- "Learn about it and then go and meet with the class and do some of those things",
- "Why didn't I know about that before I started student teaching?",
- "I feel like I was making it up as I was actually doing it",
- "How do you teach where there's so many behaviors?",
- "I feel like I had a lot of support that year".

These themes are organized to mirror the progression of the participants from newcomers in their Teacher Education Programs (TEPs) to apprentices in their own classrooms (more formally known as the novice teaching phase). This was done to show how participants adopted cultural norms as they moved closer to the center of the teaching community as posited by Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Subthemes were used throughout these themes to more accurately reflect the experiences of the participants. The themes and subthemes presented in the following sections are supported with quotations from each participant. After each theme, codes used in generating the theme and subthemes are presented.

Figure 4

Theme One and Related Subthemes



"Learn about it and then go and meet with the class and do some of those things". This theme reflects participants' recollections of how their coursework operated in their TEPs. The language for this theme was chosen because it serves as an umbrella for the majority of the remarks shared by the participants relating to interview questions associated with the first research question. Subthemes are organized to follow the progression of coursework from the content and actual delivery to the developing thoughts and feelings of participants as their reflections become colored by their experiences in context, most often in their own classrooms. This theme and related subthemes hold important implications to the overall research question because they directly reflect how the participants perceive a major aspect of their TEP—their experiences with their coursework.

When asking participants to describe their perceptions of transferring reading knowledge from their programs to their classrooms, all eight participants described learning about reading instruction through a combination of lecture, texts, and field placements. Again, this theme focuses specifically on their experiences with their coursework. Megan described these courses as being part of the "professional program" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020) while Abigail described the program as divided into "block one, block two, and then student teaching" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Megan further described her class:

> We would learn something, go see it done in a classroom, come back and reflect on it. Like, granted, what we were learning wasn't always exactly what they were doing in that specific classroom, but we had a lot of interaction with students where our professor was right there with us, we were right there with everybody. And I felt like that was super useful, but then taking that, and then that's, you know, just a small snippet where I was told exactly what I needed to do with this group, taking that and then making a full lesson

> to do in my field placement that was somewhere else most the time. Like, taking that and just seeing how it fits in a little bit—you're learning fit into the big picture of their learning is hard, and, and then taking that and now I'm somewhere completely different and doing completely different things (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Abigail noted that, "So on the days that we were in class, we're able to discuss and then while we were in the schools, we were able to implement lessons that we had worked on with the research-based strategies", but that one of their literacy classes was not associated with any field placement (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Ellie shared, "Okay, it was lecture-based, but it was also research-based, you had to do research live in a classroom so we would go out in the field, and we would collect data and we had to write reports on that" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). The problem for Ellie, however, was the amount of content put into her reading course, "The struggle was, was that, was, it was one course, one semester, all crammed into, you know, all of reading knowledge was crammed in that one course" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Megan agreed that her reading course was "lecture-style" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020), as did Cassandra. Cassandra explained:

> Okay, so the concept that we're about to go over whatever it was, was presented to us, and then there was time to put that into practice and see what that would look like in your reading classroom or how you could then translate that knowledge to your future classroom (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Rachel also noted there were lectures in her reading course, but that "they let us go observe, work with children maybe a lecture—lectures, but not every week. It was mostly working or bringing teachers in to, you know, tell us more" (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020).

Within the context of their TEPs, Megan and Abigail both brought up once aspect each which no other participant recalled. Megan noted that "reflecting on our teaching" was a major facet of her methods courses (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020), and Abigail shared that she took a "diversity class" within the scope of her coursework (Abigail, personal communication, February 25, 2020).

Participants shared that their coursework largely followed the same framework: the professor would teach a concept, they would discuss the concept, and finally they would practice the concept. Interspersed in their coursework were textbook readings, specifically referenced by Ava (personal interview, February 26, 2020) and Amber (personal interview, February 28, 2020). They recalled being asked to theoretically determine how they would address a certain concept. Through this framework and additional means, the professors in their TEPs attempted to pass knowledge considered valuable by the teaching culture, bringing PSTs into the community. This was accomplished, however, with various degrees of success.

"I remember being a lot of strategies in there". The words chosen to describe this theme come from Amber. This was chosen as a subtheme because many participants specifically described the content of their reading courses as being strategy-driven, not speaking generally a about the structure of their coursework. Participants described learning about instructional strategies for reading in a few different ways from readings to demonstration and application. These strategies were not, however, taught in association with knowledge of how facets of reading develop.

Amber described having a textbook guide her reading course, stating, "It was just a sort of a, I guess, an overview of things we can use" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). While an emphasis on strategies may have shifted focus from other reading content, Amber

explained, "'Oh, why do I have to know ten different?' Well, because every kid is different and maybe the one strategy that you chose not to learn? Maybe that's what could have helped this kid" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). Cassandra noted she remembered strategies the most stating, "Well, I brought the knowledge, I mean, knowledge of practices, different reading practices" (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020). Abigail concurred, sharing that her coursework was "more your reading strategies", that "we talked about the five pillars and so—but it was, it was mostly just how to teach those". Abigail added, "it really didn't talk about the differentiation of those [strategies] based on your special learners", however she went on to say, "but I'm sure there was a lot of 'this is what's developmentally appropriate for this age'" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Ava also noted the extensive teaching of strategies in her coursework, sharing:

> And then the read aloud—I mean, I use those strategies: the turn and talks, and the discussion questions, and all that. But as far as decoding skills and all that, I don't feel like I took very much away from that (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

While Ava had strategies, she noted gaps in her learning. Cassandra had a similar experience, specifically regarding assessment. She explained,

> "I mean, I didn't spend time then and looking at some more, like, I created it. Okay, it's done. It's not like we looked at, you know, broke down the assessment and then said, 'Well, is that, you know, that standard? Is that actually—does it measure—yeah, is it actually?' (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Megan generally pointed out that she did not take much regarding reading from her coursework, that "we got so many more, like, practical things to use for math" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Ellie's experience was a little different from other participants in that her reading course was heavy on content beyond instructional strategies, so much that it was "information overload". She shared that "the only thing I saw that I did was from the one thing that I was like, 'Oh, I know how to do this' was running records from that literacy class" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Participants shared that they focused on pedagogical strategies in coursework rather than reading concepts and how they develop, and then exploring how to teach them. Some participants like Megan left with some practical things to use, but most participants shared the view that they graduated feeling unprepared to effectively teach reading because they felt like they were lacking in areas that were necessary in their classrooms, such as breaking down standards and assessing.

"A lot of us were not huge fans of the teacher". Three participants extensively discussed their specific reading professors, raising the question of professor effectiveness across university education programs. This subtheme reflects how some of the participants identified their experiences in their coursework as being heavily influenced by the affect of their professors and their subsequent interactions with them. Ava loved her professor for her children's literature class, but in her reading methods course, she found herself shutting down in class. She explained:

> It wasn't the greatest environment just because a lot of us were not huge fans of the teacher, so that made the class kind of miserable…I don't think she meant to give it off, but the way that she—it's almost like she was teaching elementary, like seating charts and, like, yeah—it was really a lot of control (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

The classroom environment enabled Ava and her classmates to unite in their disdain for the professor. She continued:

> It was just kind of one of those classes you go to twice a week and you suffer through and you leave. Which is bad. You shouldn't do that, I guess, but there was not a lot of motivation. There was a lot of zoning out (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Megan had a similar frustration with a professor in that her professor seemed more focused on her own research topic rather than the entire scope of reading development and instruction. Her professor did research on language, specifically African American Vernacular (AAV), to which Megan stated, "and that's all she taught…everything else we barely touched" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Regarding this professor's instruction, Megan shared, "We just got nothing from it." Further, she noted

> She, like, at one point, gave us assessments to do and then we were actually at an elementary school where our classmates—so we would, like, learn about it and then go meet with the class and so some of those things but a lot it…we didn't always get to meet with the kids that we were supposed to meet with, and a lot of it was, like, very, like gray-area confusing for most of the class. So, like, we gave an assessment and then really weren't sure what, like, what to do with it. I mean, now I know how to do it, like, know all these things but I feel like I kind of, like, learned through student teaching and learning along the way (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

While Ellie respected the professor of her reading methods course, she pointed out the discrepancies in reading professors within her program. Peers within her program warned her and other students not to take this specific professor's course because it was more intense, but she took it because it fit within her schedule. She described that, "It was overwhelming because

it was so much information, then you go over to, you know, Professor So and So's class and they weren't doing any of that" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Several participants noted that professors' approach to their classes caused the participants to feel overwhelmed or uninspired. These feelings, while different, led to the same results—these participants were left feeling underprepared for their classrooms; they struggled to transfer knowledge of reading instruction because they did not fully develop it.

"'What do I do now?'". When responding to interview questions relating to the first research questions, the majority of participants described their experiences in their coursework and ended their comments by addressing a sense of bewilderment and confusion they face as they moved beyond their coursework. Participants left their coursework and programs (student teaching is discussed separately in the next theme), and became more aware of gaps in their knowledge, specifically in how to address needs of all readers, as they interacted with, and were responsible for, their own students. Abigail's comment perfectly sums up the issue she (and the rest of the participants) faced upon graduation:

> So, I knew, like, how to teach it, like, at level. But then, you know, the differentiation of 'Well, what if they're above? What do I do now? And what if they're, you know, three grades below from where they should be? What do I do now?' So that was kind of where it was lacking (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Abigail was not certain how to differentiate aspects of reading because her work seemed to focus on developing reading skills at grade level; she did not seem comfortable teaching reading skills at different developmental points.

Likewise, Kara explained how she taught skills at grade level, using a reading program. Kara shared:

> It was actually, it was Journeys, but I didn't really have anything I felt like to teach these kids again. The basic parts of learning how to read and decode, so I didn't really even though I had learned some of that from second grade student teaching, and the third grade—even though these kids, you know, needed it. We just followed along that Journeys template, so they didn't get it (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Kara also described the "sacrifice" of arranging her time to attempt to best meet the needs of all her students, stating in the focus group that:

> having so many diverse needs in each class, and not finding enough time to meet with my lower students in order to get them where they need to be and at the same time having to sacrifice time spent with my advanced students because I'm meeting more often with my struggling students (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

The struggle of differentiating instruction, particularly in differentiating the amount of instructional time given to groups of students, was not isolated to just Kara's experience. Rachel described a similar situation in her classroom:

> You know, I felt like one of the most challenge for me this year is getting my higher students where I want them to be as well. Just because they're high doesn't mean they can go do on their own, you know. They still need me, you know (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020).

While Rachel seemed concerned about what she felt was not an equitable amount of instructional time for all types of readers in her classroom, Ava came across as more pragmatic. Ava concisely summed up the situation in her own classroom, "You know, if I don't get to them, I don't get to them which is terrible, but I have so many lower readers that I struggle with" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Participants noted that they addressed differentiation to some extent in their coursework, mainly in the form of reports. Ava, for instance, shared that they would write a report using data from an inventory they gave a student, "Like, we gave the inventory—what would you do with this kid? And I would write what I was supposedly to do with this kid, but at the same time, I'm like, 'I really don't know'. You know?" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Abigail had an entire reading class where "we were targeting one student, specifically a low student" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Kara shared:

> Well, we did have to do a lot of differentiation especially because of making lesson plans. I was a part of it. But I feel like when I put 'differentiation', I would—it was more about understanding how to level the kids, but then I would understand more about how to help the struggling kids versus how to help the kids that were gifted and needed that extra push (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

While participants had some experiences where they were addressing differentiation, it did not always take the form of direct experience, nor did it include a spectrum of readers, nor did they leave their programs with a consistent understanding of what differentiation is.

Megan, Cassandra, and Abigail work in grades that are departmentalized and ability-grouped, and they still face struggles with differentiation. Cassandra noted that perceived negative behaviors are exacerbated in the ability-grouped class she teaches (which will be discussed in a later theme). Abigail shared struggles to adapt a set curriculum to meet the needs of her struggling readers (set curriculum to be discussed in a later subtheme). Regarding ability grouping and differentiation, Megan explained:

> So, like, I think it's easier this year with ability groups because I can use a completely different text for each of my three groups, and so that helps me differentiate some, but I

> mean, it's so hard to teach kids who can't read a fifth grade passage how to comprehend…So I usually, I say with, with, with lower groups, I always have co-teachers with me so that helps to support our struggling learners, but I mean, I feel like I'm giving them texts that are easier so that they can be successful and then when I give them things that are harder they just still struggle (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Participants had some exposure to differentiation in their TEPs but found themselves confused about how to fully meet the needs of a spectrum of readers in their own classrooms. Some graduated and became aware that the term "differentiation" was used in their TEPs, but the participants misunderstood what it meant. Others became aware that they knew about the concept abstractly but could not transfer it to their classroom in reality.

"I don't think I was adequately prepared for all of it". This subtheme reflects general feelings of participants when reflecting on their experience in their coursework. Participants talked in-depth about a struggling with differentiation (as noted in the previous subtheme), but they also spoke broadly about feelings of discomfort in teaching reading. For Megan, her discomfort was apparent at the interview stage. She shared, "Like, literally in my interview, they asked me what balanced literacy was, how I would incorporate balanced literacy, and I asked them to define balanced literacy for me" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Kara noted, "There's just so much to teaching reading and I don't think I was adequately prepared for all of it" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020). Participating in the graduate literacy courses through a university in an adjacent county per an agreement with her district helped Kara in her reflection. It was through this addition learning in conjunction with

her experience as novice teacher that helped her realize specific gaps she had in her understanding of reading development and instruction. She explained:

> I felt like I wasn't an effective teacher, and definitely not as effective as I feel now from what I've learned more about the phonics. I feel like I was all, obviously, did a decent job as far as reading comprehension, it just continues to go back to I was not very good at teaching kids that were struggling to read how to learn to read (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Kara identified that she did not think she had a strong understanding of phonics and phonics instruction upon exiting her TEP, but framed these gaps in relation to teaching struggling readers, not readers in general.

Ellie felt that the reading coursework in her undergraduate program was overwhelming, but that "we weren't learning it anywhere else" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Ellie was the only participant to describe the amount of content as being too much. Most other participants described the delivery of coursework content in their undergraduate program causing them to become confused. Megan described coursework content as being "thrown at you for the first time" making it difficult to learn (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020), while Cassandra noted "I feel like a lot of it I just had to begin to figure out myself" (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Cassandra (personal interview, February 18, 2020) clarified that, "I mean, that's not—I don't, I don't want it to seem like I didn't, like, it wasn't a good experience. Like, it was a good experience, but I don't have the experience I needed." The experience she needed should have been more streamlined, as she stated:

> That, that paper, that, that book was useless because it was so much information. It's just physically impossible to have to sift through it all, it's not like I'm using a lot of things that I learned in undergrad….Just not—I mean, not necessarily because they weren't helpful at the time, just because where I am right now, I don't have time to go back and look at it (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

The information she was exposed to during her program was not transferred, since she finds herself in the predicament of needing information she believes to be in her textbooks, but without the time to find it. Cassandra also described how her understanding of reading standards was not fully developed during her program. She shared:

> I mean, I don't feel like I grasped what those standards meant when I was in, you know, courses that were preparing me for, to be a teacher. I feel like that's something that comes, like, that's what I'm working on now (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Participants described overall feelings of discomfort and unpreparedness regarding reading instruction. While they described being presented with a concept in earlier, they felt the information was "thrown at" them; the information was not explained in such a way that participants felt they understood what they were learning.

"Like, that's my hardest decision". Upon concluding their remarks about their experiences with their coursework, many participants described the uncertainty and struggle of finding resources to help with their reading instruction. Most participants described this struggle, adding that they wanted a "set curriculum" to follow. By "set curriculum", participants were referring to pre-package reading programs with all necessary texts included, as well as elements such as scripts or step-by-step guides for teachers to help with implementation. These

curricula generally take the burden of finding texts, developing lesson plans, and developing assessments out of the teacher's hands. Ellie, for example, does not have a set curriculum at her school, relying on other teachers in the building for guidance. She shared, "I always ask another senior teacher" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Likewise, Megan does not have a set curriculum either. She explained:

> There's nothing that anybody taught me in school was, like, finding a good text to start with and here, we don't have a curriculum. Like, so, I have to, like, pull stuff and it's so hard. Like, that's my hardest decision. Like, I know what I want to teach and how I want to teach it, but I don't know what I'm going to use. Even the selection of materials of something that there was where I thought there was a there was a lot more to pull from, so it was, like 'okay, we're teaching this skill, the standard. Like, here's how it's taught in this, here's how it's taught in this. Like, let's look at what we want actually' (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Ava also does not have a set curriculum at her school. She expressed similar views to Ellie and Megan. She said:

> I've seen what other schools use and I wish that we had those resources. Sometimes the books that we do have are old and the kids find them boring. It's hard to teach when the resources aren't great. I wish we had some sort of set curriculum to follow (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

She went on to add, "I think I would feel a lot better with Literacy Footprints or a set curriculum. Even having the sight words to work on would make a difference" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Ava's lesson plan bears this out. She submitted a guided reading lesson plan in which she chose "stems", "bricks", and "stilts" as sight words to teach, when they are not

sight words. She determined that her group needed work on isolating the first sound when decoding, but word work involved breaking compound words to decode. She did, however, demonstrate that she could write thoughtful discussion questions for her group, writing, "What do you notice about these houses? How are they similar and how are they different?" (Ava, personal communication, February 26, 2020).

Amber's school does not have a set curriculum for whole group reading instruction either, but they do have Literacy Footprints for guided reading, a system of guided reading books with pre-made lessons. She noted:

> Our Literacy Footprints has made things so much easier for me. Last year I had to pull all my own books and match them up to what needed to be done, what level the kids were on, what sight words they needed to work on, and I don't feel like I did a great job. The framework was simple and easy to follow, but I didn't feel like my book selection was as beneficial as it should have been. This year, there isn't that guesswork involved. I just start them on a number and build from there. It's so much easier for me and I have time to focus on the actual teaching rather than trying to decide if I chose the right book (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Starting with a number, however, can be problematic when there are gaps in students' reading knowledge that are not addressed in lessons that build upon one other. This may not be as prevalent in kindergarten (the grade Amber teaches) but becomes an increasingly important consideration with older students.

Rachel is one of two participants who is using a set curriculum this year for whole group reading instruction. She said, "Last year was rough, so much easier with curriculum [this year]. I had no idea what I was doing last year with no set curriculum" (Rachel, personal interview,

March 2, 2020). Abigail also uses a set curriculum for her whole group reading instruction, but this is the first time anyone in the school and anyone in district has been exposed to it. She noted that "it was difficult because the program is so extensive" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). The program is based on mastery at the end, which was different from Abigail's experience during her student teaching. She explained, "I guess just from my past experience, um, you teach a skill and you practice and you master it, and then you move on to the next skill" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

The program Abigail's school uses does not differentiate text for students' instructional levels, and she does not conduct guided reading instruction in her room. When discussing how students in her room are progressing with the new curriculum, she stated:

> Now, their reading comprehension since we're reading more and we're in a chapter book the entire time and I'm reading it aloud to them, and I feel like that's probably progressing as well because we're they're continuously reading. Now, their reading skill might not be as progressive as it should be because they're not getting that practice to read it every day because I'm reading it to them and they're following along, if they're doing what they're supposed to be doing (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Abigail's feeling rather than reference to assessments appears connected to her overall struggle with assessment. She said, "One thing that I've struggled with, like, at the beginning, or so far, is that the program that we have doesn't really have a lot of assessment, and so it's been very difficult" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Participants described the struggle to find resources to best teach reading concepts to their students, partly from an unanticipated lack of resources in their own buildings and partly

because of unanticipated time constraints. These factors, combined with wanting quality, interesting texts for students, led multiple participants to desire a set curriculum, in their view eliminating the need to look for resources. Programs, however, have their downfalls. Abigail, for example, noted that there was a need for more frequent assessment than the program prescribed. These gaps in knowledge that were supposed to be filled with the teaching community's knowledge, transmitted through interactions with experts in the community, were left open as novice teachers began their teaching careers.

Table 2

Codes Relating to "Learn about it and then go and meet with the class and do some of those things"

*Theme/Subtheme**	*Codes*
"Learn about it and then go and meet with the class and do some of those things"*	Pre-professional; professional program; field placement; reading methods; learning along the way; lecture-style; this is what I want you to do with the students and practice it; reflecting on our teaching; introductory courses; block one, block two, and then student teaching; diversity class; class specifically on research-based strategies; in the field two of the five days the whole semester; we're able to discuss and then while we were in the schools, we were able to implement lessons that we had worked on with the research-based strategies (social studies); we took a literacy class as well—that wasn't tied with block, but it was just taken aside; we were targeting one student, specifically a low student; There was one course in my college career that was geared towards reading specifically; all of reading knowledge was crammed in that one course; They let us go observe, work with children maybe a lecture; It was mostly working or bringing teachers; the concept that we're about to go over whatever it was, was presented to us, and then there was time to put that into practice and see what that would look like in your reading classroom or how you could then translate that knowledge to your future classroom

"I remember being a lot of strategies in there"	I think I brought a lot of questioning strategies when we, you know, encountered a new text because that was something that they really dug into; And then the read aloud—I mean, I use those strategies: the turn and talks, and the discussion questions, and all that; So we got a standard textbook, and we basically went through that textbook; It was just sort of a, I guess, an overview of things we can use; I don't remember; it was more your reading strategies; we talked about the five pillars, and so—but it was, but it was mostly just how to teach those, it really didn't talk about the differentiation of those based on your special learners; I don't feel like we did a lot of that, but I'm sure there was a lot of "this is what's developmentally appropriate for this age"; "Oh, why do I have to know ten different?" Well, because every kid is different and maybe the one strategy that you chose not to learn? Maybe that's what could have helped this kid
"A lot of us were not huge fans of the teacher"	It wasn't the greatest environment just because a lot of us were not huge fans of the teacher so that made the class kind of miserable; I don't think she meant to give it off, but the way that she—it's almost like she was teaching elementary, like, seating charts and, like, yeah—it was really a lot of control; and that was all she taught; It was overwhelming because it was so much information, then you go over to, you know, Professor So and So's class and they weren't doing any of that
"What do I do now?"	ability groups; finding a starting point is something I struggle with; If I don't get to them, I don't get to them which is terrible, but I have so many lower readers that I struggle with; we got so many more, like, practical things to use for math; I had some experience with it but not as much; the only thing I saw that I did was from the one thing that I was like, "Oh, I know how to do this" was running records from that literacy class; I mean, I didn't spend time then and looking at some more, like, I created it. Okay, it's done. It's not like we looked at, you know, broke down the assessment and then said, "Well, is that, you know, that standard? Is that actually—does it

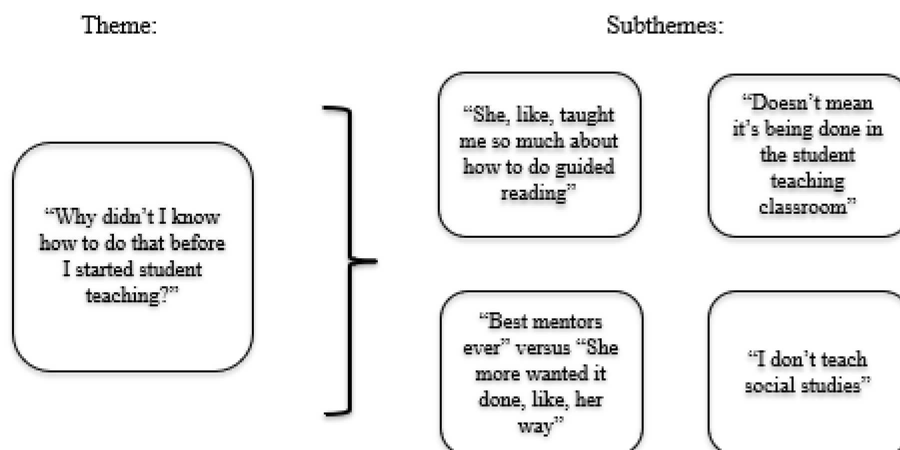
	measure—yeah, is it actually?; having so many diverse needs in each class; and not finding enough time to meet with my lower students in order to get them where they need to be and at the same time having to sacrifice time spent with my advanced students because I'm meeting more often with my struggling students; Just because they're high doesn't mean they can go do on their own, you know; guided reading instruction
"I don't think I was adequately prepared for all of it"	I don't feel like I took very much away from that; As far as, like, reading groups, I don't feel like I was prepared for those, really; It was overwhelming; we weren't learning it anywhere else; and that was all she taught; we just got nothing from it; gray-area confusing; thrown at you for the first time; I feel like I did not know how to do that as a teacher; I don't feel like it necessarily prepared me for then when I had my own classroom; I feel like a lot of it I just had to begin to figure out myself; but I don't have the experience I needed; that book was useless because it was so much information. It's just physically impossible to have to sift through it all; it's not like I'm using a lot of things that I learned in undergrad; just because where I am right now, I don't have time to go back and look at it; I mean, I don't feel like I grasped what those standards meant; I'm not very comfortable with it because I don't know, like, I know the formal ways of assessing, but the informal is where I'm not as comfortable; I didn't feel comfortable; I didn't feel prepared; I felt like that we are not exposed enough to what it, what it's like to understand what a full day of teaching is really like until you get to student teaching; And it's not just understanding what they, what they mean, but what does it mean in the classroom….and that was the biggest thing that I didn't, I didn't understand because you can know the definition of them, but what does that mean when you have these, these students back here at this table; I feel more comfortable teaching reading than I feel teaching anything else; And I'm like, I'm just kind of embarrassed….I mean, it just makes you feel that way. Yeah, I mean, it just kind of scares me though because I am passionate, you know? I wouldn't be here if I wasn't—if this isn't what I wanted to do

"Like, that's my hardest decision"	Set curriculum; Literacy Footprints; they didn't have any resources, and so they had to figure out what to do and how to teach a standard, but it was difficult because the program is so extensive; you teach a skill and you practice and you master it, and then you move on to the next skill; Now, their reading skill might not be as progressive as it should be because they're not getting that practice to read it every day because I'm reading it to them and they're following along, if they're doing what they're supposed to be doing; the program that we have doesn't really have a lot of assessment, and so it's been very difficult; Like, so I have to, like, pull stuff, and it's so hard

*Main Theme

Figure 5

Theme Two and Subthemes



"Why didn't I know how to do that before I started student teaching?". The second theme associated with the first research question relates to the participants' recollections of their student teaching experiences. This theme addresses how participants began to realize gaps in their knowledge, learning and accepting practices from their cooperating teachers (CTs), moving from the learning curriculum to the teaching curriculum as outlined by Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It also addresses participants' experiences and perceptions of mentors,

and aspects of their student teaching that did not prepare them for their reality as a novice teacher. This theme is important to the first research question as it directly reflects the participants' experiences with students teaching, highlighted as an important component of TEPs.

For the majority of participants, student teaching was a time of enlightenment. They were exposed to concepts they did not learn during their coursework and they gained clarification on how knowledge from their coursework translated into the classroom. When Kara described her experience in student teaching, she noted, "I felt like I was learning along with them" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020). She student taught in fourth grade and second grade, and she found that she was less prepared for concepts present in the second grade room, theoretically when students are developmentally strengthening foundational reading skills. She shared:

> Well, as far as, like, in the fourth grade, I understood better how to teach the reading to them because it was more of those comprehension strategies. But when it came to the second grade, I didn't have—I really wasn't really taught those phonics strategies. So, like, doing the Orton-Gillingham, like, hearing the phonemes and all that (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Her recollection revealed a common practice in elementary reading instruction: a divide in focus. Earlier elementary reading instruction tends to center on decoding and later elementary reading instruction tends to center on comprehension, a practice endorsed by researchers such as Fisher, Frey, and Ladd (2008) who suggests that intermediate students have an emphasis on comprehension, vocabulary, and text structure. This view in practice, however, oversimplifies the development of reading, especially among struggling readers. While skills like decoding are

emphasized in primary grades, they need to be continually assessed and addressed in intermediate grades for struggling readers; these readers will still need decoding instruction.

Ellie found that witnessing new concepts in the student teaching experience frustrating because “I didn’t know, you know, I didn’t have that schema to understand” (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). When participants did have the schema to understand, it helped them to better grasp what they learned in their coursework. Cassandra explained:

> See, it wasn’t like I was seeing new things when I went in the classroom. It was stuff that had been talked about, but when I got into the classroom what was, like felt like a lot of the first time was me truly understanding what that looked like put into practice (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Student teaching made the “talk” real for participants, relating to the idea of language acting as a bridge between the learning and teaching curricula proposed in Lave and Wenger’s (1991) Situated Learning Theory. Whereas before student teaching, they were learning concepts guided by textbooks and lectures with some application, now they were in an environment that was entirely application, the concepts brought to life.

Abigail found student teaching to be so valuable to her understanding of teaching that by the end she reflected on how she could have gotten more from it. She noted:

> And so I felt like I was more, I guess, acclimated to the, you know, being comfortable teaching on my own at that point because it was also my second placement and—but I wish that I had that more up front in my third grade placement rather than, you know, holding off and not really throwing myself out there, like I should have at the beginning (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Participants found student teaching to be valuable to their understanding of what teaching reading meant. They also found that they were learning many things that were not taught in their coursework, while also gaining clarity on concepts to which they were exposed prior to student teaching. These interactions with their CTs enhanced their knowledge, primarily of pedagogy. The participants learned from the periphery, moving further into the community at the end of their placements.

"She, like, taught me so much about how to do guided reading". This was selected as a subtheme because it was the most commonly discussed concept described as new learning to participants in student teaching. Half of the participants spoke extensively about their work with guided reading groups and the benefit of it. Kara noted that she worked with "more of the kids that needed more practice, so they also got practice from me", but that "I know they met with her also" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020). While Kara did not mention support from her CT in navigating and improving her guided reading groups, Megan described a lot of support with guided reading from her cooperating teacher. She shared:

> "I did learn a lot, like, through student teaching because I had a really good mentor. When I was in first grade, she was, like, their literacy specialist in the school and she, like, taught me so much about how to do guided reading and that sort of thing…She's like, 'Okay, you're gonna spend a week watching me do, or spent some time watching me do guided reading and then you're gonna have these groups' and I did a lot. I feel like we had a lot of conversations about what I looked like and what it needed to look like for each of those kids and how to keep track of what it was, do, like, what I was doing…"(Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Ellie also found her first exposure to guided reading in her student teaching placement, though she did not describe supports from her CT in implementation. She shared:

> And in the first grade classroom was where I really learned about reading groups. That's where I really got to sit in and watch what reading groups really look like. I didn't get to do that when I was in the field before (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

It is important to note that this exposure and practice in guided reading was only a portion of half of their student teaching placements, and only in the primary grades. Kara, Megan, and Ellie did not see guided reading in their intermediate placements.

Ava also saw guided reading in her primary placement. She stated, "As far as, like, reading groups, I don't feel like I was prepared for those, really" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). She was given a reading group in her third grade placement but was not given as much guidance beyond questions, worksheets, and books from a program. She noted, "I was just kind of going with it at the time, but you know, I tried" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Unlike other participants, her other placement was not in an intermediate class, but in an emotional/behavior disorder (EBD) classroom. She also was given a reading group there, but still had little guidance. She explained:

> My other placement there was in an EBD classroom, which was definitely different and their reading groups didn't really function like your typical classroom—like, one or two kids per group. And I got some experience with that, too. I got to pull the kids and just read with them, but not—that one wasn't as structured though. It was kind of 'go with the flow' while you're in there. We'd read, like, National Geographic and different things with them. As far as, like, teaching them strategies and stuff though, like, I never

> really got to that point because it was just kind of like, 'Here's your book. Go read with this group of kids. Here's your question' (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Participants had no to minimal exposure to guided reading prior to students teaching and even within student teaching, they largely only saw reading groups in primary grades. Most cooperating teachers had the participants observe before taking over a group of their own, while some were sent off with books and worksheets from a program. Oversight of the participants while they taught their groups varied from classroom to classroom, with some participants left to their own devices and others checking in and reflecting with their cooperating teacher.

Ava's previous experience with guided reading in her student teaching placement may have placed her working with small groups, it did not imbue her with knowledge that made her guided reading better. As previously noted, she was unconfident in her teaching and her lesson plan confirmed that she lacked content knowledge to effectively teach from her uncertainty of what constitutes a sight word, to matching word work instruction to student needs (Ava, personal communication, February 26, 2020). Amber also submitted a guided reading lesson plan and while her plan shows a greater degree of content knowledge, it is important to note that lessons are provided through Literacy Footprints, which Amber uses. What is noted in her lesson plan is a lack of congruence with identified student need and pedagogy. Amber identified that her students need to work on inferring, but nowhere in her lesson plan is there instruction on inferring (Amber, personal communication, February 28, 2020). Kara sent a guided reading lesson plan as well, and like the others, it demonstrated a need for growth in content. For her first grade students, she left spaces for sight word instruction blank on the template, and marked "comprehending" as the strategy focus; comprehension is a reading concept, with strategies used to facilitate it (Kara, personal communication, February 24, 2020).

"Doesn't mean it's being done in the student teaching classroom". This subtheme reflects participants' reflections that they learned things in their coursework that they did not see in context while student teaching. Student teaching helped participants understand concepts they learned better and exposed them to concepts they were lacking, but it also showed them how things they learned were not always translating into the reality of teaching. Rachel completed her student teaching 25 years before the other participants in this study, but her experience appeared similar. About student teaching, she said:

> It was valuable because it let me see the way that I wanted to teach and let me…I enjoyed being in different schools and different classrooms, and I got to pick up ni [participant cut off]—you know, to get things here and there that I thought I would do the same or do different, and to get as many ideas from. So, I think it's valuable in that aspect, and to see how that just because we're taught something in a classroom doesn't mean, I mean, from our professors doesn't mean it's being done in the student teaching classroom (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020).

Within their coursework, participants learned about instructional strategies and some content related to the five pillars of reading, but some of them were not seeing them in practice. Ava noted that the school in which she student taught used a reading program, but:

> I don't remember what program they used. It—they had, like, questions and worksheets with all the books and stuff, I don't feel like I really knew what I was doing… It was kind of go-with-the-flow while you're in there…I don't feel like I really was teaching them how to read any better (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Ava had a prescribed program in student teaching but did not find it supportive in developing as a teacher. It is interesting to note that in the previous theme, Ava shared her wish to have a "set

curriculum". When she did have one and was chronologically closer to the learning curriculum of her TEP, she was unable to see reading content knowledge or pedagogical content knowledge within the program she used; she did not know what she was doing and she did not feel effective.

Abigail and Megan found that coursework did not transfer easily to student teaching because of issues with resources. In Abigail's experience, "They didn't have any resources, and so they had to figure out what to do and how to teach a standard" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Megan found that she did not see or practice dynamic instructional strategies in her fifth grade placement because of the cooperating teacher's practice as well as resources. She said, "Reading with fifth grade, I did more, like, of what she had been doing, like, with the textbook and stuff because it's hard to find, like, I feel like finding texts is so hard" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Participants found discrepancies between what they were taught in coursework and what they saw in the student teaching classroom. While some of it was beneficial as discussed in earlier subthemes, sometimes participants learned something positive in their coursework and found it missing in the context of their student teaching placement.

"Best mentors ever" versus "She more wanted it done, like, her way". Student teaching across TEPs has the common purpose of practical experience and application in the classroom environment, but through content subthemes it appears the experience is inconsistent. The participants' experiences with their cooperating teachers were just as inconsistent. When asked about her student teaching, the first thing Megan said was "best mentors ever", followed quickly by, "she let me have so much freedom" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Rachel described the warmth and welcome from one of her cooperating teachers, "She said, 'Hey, this is

your room also.' So, from day one she let me have my own reading group or my own group of kids to work with daily and I would just report back to her" (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020). These impressions, however, were not universal across their entire student teaching experiences. While one of Megan's cooperating teachers made her feel positivity first, she did describe one of her cooperating teachers as "she more wanted it done, like, her way" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Likewise, Rachel had a negative experience with her first student teaching placement. She shared, "it was her classroom and she let it be known it was her classroom" (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020). In turn, this feeling colored her experience with the instruction in the room. She added:

> Just because back then, it was that teacher's classroom and I was just—I felt like a volunteer in the room, really. I didn't feel like I was really a teacher, so to speak, but I think times have changed since then. Also, it's totally different now. But back then, I just felt like the other, other college class—and I was just going out volunteering, you know? (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020).

Unfortunately, it appears Rachel's experience was not relegated to the past. Cassandra had a similar experience. She explained:

> I mean, I would try to apply what I had learned in my previous classes, my previous reading classes, but it was more me working with my placement teacher and talking about things, rather than me feeling like I had all these ideas to pull from as far as for reading…I didn't want to just, like, take, you know, take over….Like, I didn't feel very prepared to apply what we learned in the course (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Both Rachel and Cassandra did not feel supported and invited enough by at least one of their CTs, isolating from even the periphery of the teaching community; they were blocked from the community in these rooms.

Abigail did not speak negatively of her cooperating teachers, but she did critique her experience. She mentioned that, "I wish that I was thrown into uncomfortable situations and not necessarily sheltered as much" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). She also mentioned that, "So, it wasn't necessarily—I feel like it was more so leaning towards the lesson plan itself rather than the carrying out of it" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). She had support in her student teaching, but not in the most beneficial ways. She was shielded from situations that could benefit her when she now deals with them in her own classroom, and her feedback centered on written lesson plans rather than the actual delivery.

"I don't teach social studies". Some participants noted diminished benefit from their student teaching in transferring reading knowledge to their first classrooms because they were paired with departmentalized cooperating teachers, so they did not see or practice reading instruction consistently across all student teaching placements. This problem is exacerbated when participants like Ellie were also far removed from reading coursework. While participants largely noted that student teaching was the most beneficial part of their TEP—despite some witnessing a disconnect between their coursework and student teaching experience—two participants shared another problematic feature of their student teaching: a misalignment between their student teaching placement and their areas of certification. When discussing her student teaching experience, Abigail shared, "That's difficult because my student teaching, I was in social studies the whole time, and I don't teach social studies [in my current classroom]"

(Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). She ended her student teaching with less practice in reading instruction than other participants in the study.

Ellie had a similar experience. Like Abigail, part of Ellie's student teaching took place on a departmentalized fifth grade team. Ellie's cooperating teacher for the last half of her student teaching taught exclusively math. She explained, "So my second placement was math, and math is when I was fresh and when I graduated, there wasn't reading coursework because I'd already had that literacy class, like, a semester or two before that" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). By the time she had her own classroom, she was as removed from literacy coursework as her peers, but further removed from practicing reading instruction because the last half of her student teaching focused on math.

Abigail and Ellie completed TEPs that allowed them to obtain elementary certifications. These certifications are for general elementary education, comprising all subjects. While Abigail needed to know how to teach social studies and Ellie needed to know how to teach math, these placements reflected subject specialties—not general education. In Ellie's case, she saw instruction of all subjects in her primary placement (including reading), but seeing only math in her intermediate placement makes it more difficult for her to enact reading instruction in these grade levels should she one day take a job in an intermediate room. Abigail got a job in a fifth grade room, exactly like in her student teaching placement. However, she does not exclusively teach social studies in her current job. It would have been more beneficial to her to see and experience teaching fifth grade reading in her student teaching placement to help frame the instruction in her job as a novice teacher.

Table 3

Codes Relating to "Why didn't I know how to do that before I started student teaching?"

Theme/Subtheme	*Codes*
"Why didn't I know how to do that before I started student teaching?"*	I felt like I was learning along with them; I wish that I was thrown into uncomfortable situations and not necessarily sheltered as much, I really didn't do any one-on-one lessons up until, like, the week before my solo week., Okay, so I kind of wish that she saw me more, So, it wasn't necessarily—I feel like it was more so leaning towards the lesson plan itself rather than the carrying out of it; See, it wasn't like I was seeing new things when I went in the classroom. It was stuff that had been talked about, but when I got into the classroom what was, like felt like a lot of the first time was me truly understanding what that looked like put into practice; I really wasn't really taught those phonics strategies
"She, like, taught me so much about how to do guided reading"	And in the first grade classroom was where I really learned about reading groups; I didn't know, you know, I didn't have that schema to understand; teaching them strategies and stuff though, like, I never really got to that point; reading groups, I don't feel like I was prepared for those; She's like, 'Okay, you're gonna spend a week watching me do, or spent some time watching me do guided reading and then you're gonna have these groups' and I did a lot
"Doesn't meant it's being done in the student teaching classroom"	Everyone had the same book; I don't remember what program they used. It—they had, like, questions and worksheets with all the books and stuff, I don't feel like I really knew what I was doing; It was kind of go-with-the-flow while you're in there….I don't feel like I really was teaching them how to read any better; so they had to figure out what to do and how to teach a standard; Reading with fifth grade, I did more, like, of what she had been doing, like, with the textbook and stuff because it's hard to find, like, I feel like finding texts is so hard
"Best mentors ever" versus "She more wanted it done, like, her way"	it was great; best mentors ever; she let me have so much freedom; give me feedback; my university supervisor was tough, but she prepared us; she said, "Hey, this is your room also." So, from day one she let me have my own reading group or my own group of kids to work with daily

	and I would just report back to her; she more wanted it done, like, her way; I mean, I would try to apply what I had learned in my previous classes, my previous reading classes, but it was more me working with my placement teacher and talking about things, rather than me feeling like I had all these ideas to pull from as far as for reading; I didn't want to just, like, take, you know, take over….Like, I didn't feel very prepared to apply what we learned in the course; it was her classroom and she let it be known it was her classroom;
"I don't teach social studies"	That's difficult because my student teaching, I was in social studies the whole time; so my second placement was math, and math is when I was fresh and when I graduated, there wasn't reading coursework because I'd already had that literacy class, like, a semester or two before that

*Main Theme

"I feel like I was making it up as I was actually doing it". This theme reflects the participants' experiences transitioning into their own classrooms, thereby becoming novice teachers—a move further into the teaching community. Within this theme, participants shared their feelings while teaching on their own. This theme is important to the first research question because it addresses the participants' perceptions of their transitions from their TEPs into their own classrooms.

When the participants described their experience trying to bring what they learned from the totality of their TEP experience, they all described a sense of being unanchored. Regarding the knowledge from her TEP, Ellie answered, "No, because it wasn't enough. It was an, it was an overload for me, so I didn't, I didn't, I didn't really, I didn't really carry too much, like, specific things from there" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Ava described the difficulty bringing hypothetical situations from her TEP into her own classroom:

> Like, we gave the inventory—what would you do with this kid? And I would write what I was supposedly to do with this kid, but at the same time, I'm like, I really don't—you know?...You get it done, but it's, like, is that really what I would do in the real situation? I don't know (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Abigail described a sense of imposter syndrome when sharing a conversation she had with her mother shortly after she started her teaching career:

> It was very overwhelming, and whenever I went home those first couple of days, talking to my mom, she was like, 'I can imagine that it's like going home after having your first baby and them sending you the baby and you're like, 'I don't know what I'm doing! Why did they think this was a good idea to send me home with this newborn? Like, who thought this was a good idea?' And I, and, and so she compared that to me walking into a class of twenty-five 10-year-olds, like, who thought this was a good idea to leave me in charge of these kids? (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

While Abigail had hundreds of observation hours plus her months of student teaching, she started in her own classroom feeling like she did not know what she was doing. Megan shared that, "I felt like I was just, like, making stuff up…it was a little overwhelming" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Likewise, Amber stated, "I had no idea what I was supposed to do" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). Cassandra agreed, saying, "I feel like I'm just trying to figure out what's going on" (Cassandra, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

These feelings of confusion and inadequacy appear to stem from realizing gaps in their preparation, only now they bore the sole weight of responsibility. Ellie shared:

> I didn't feel comfortable. I didn't feel prepared. I felt like that we are not exposed enough to what it, what it's like to understand what a full day of teaching is really like until you get to student teaching (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

She went on to add:

> And it's not just understanding what they, what they mean, but what does it mean in the classroom….and that was the biggest thing that I didn't, I didn't understand because you can know the definition of them, but what does that mean when you have these, these students back here at this table? (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Ellie had some grasp of knowledge, but not how she could apply it to the learners sitting in front of her.

To fill these gaps, the participants resorted to learning on the job or other research. Megan, when realizing that she did not feel prepared for her classroom, declared, "I feel like I have learned so much on the fly…People say, like, 'You never use what you learned in undergrad" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Ellie described the process of re-educating herself as "trial by fire" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Ava was so overwhelmed by her classroom, she could not recall information from her TEP, "To be honest, I haven't thought much about the 'teaching kids to read' class" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Abigail pinpointing assessment specifically as an area of weakness in her teaching, which is problematic as her team has also pinpointed assessment as being a component lacking from their current reading curriculum. She said, "I'm not very comfortable with it because I don't know, like, I know the formal ways of assessing, but the informal is where I'm not as

comfortable" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Amber was on a team of completely new teachers and she described trying to fill gaps in their professional knowledge:

> At one point, I mean, we were looking at everything, like, if it didn't work, if what I had with the book, what my textbook said didn't work or what the people from last year said didn't work, then I went to there—now, what does the internet say? Like, I was looking, I was just taking in as much information as I could just because I didn't, I don't know if you truly feel like you got it 100%. It can always be better (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Amber would use what she gained from her coursework as a starting point, and if her actions did not yield positive results, she used that information as a building point for further research. As a result of her research, she stated that "I feel more comfortable teaching reading than I feel teaching anything else" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Not all participants felt comfortable with learning on the job or learning through their own subsequent research. Cassandra also learned on the job and relied on information from those around her, but she shared:

> And I'm like, I'm just kind of embarrassed….I mean, it just makes you feel that way. Yeah, I mean, it just kind of scares me though because I am passionate, you know? I wouldn't be here if I wasn't—if this isn't what I wanted to do (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Participants, upon entering their own classrooms, transferred what they could about reading instruction, but noted gaps in their practice. They went from feeling unprepared to feeling confused and unanchored, shifting into embarrassment. They lived with theoretical

situations which did not imbibe them with confidence. In response, most participants turned to learning on the job and their own research to become more confident.

Table 4

Codes Relating to "I feel like I was making it up as I was actually doing it."

Theme	*Codes*
"I feel like I was making it up as I was actually doing it."	making stuff up; little overwhelming; very overwhelming, who thought this was a good idea to leave me in charge of these kids?; taking everything personally; It's more like me feeling like I have to do things that are different than what I did un undergrad; I feel like I'm just trying to figure out what's going on; I really don't feel like much of it came from my coursework; No, because it wasn't enough; I'm like I really don't—you know?; kind of embarrassed; more comfortable teaching reading; now, what does the internet say?; I'm not very comfortable; on the fly; trial by fire; I haven't thought much about; you can know the definition of them, but what does that mean when you have these, these students back here at this table?

"I felt like I had a lot of support that year". Just as support in student teaching was inconsistent, the participants found that support in the novice years of their career to be inconsistent as well. This theme addresses mentorship and support structures (or lack thereof) participants experienced as they began their novice teaching phase. These mentors served as experts who engaged the participants in the teaching curriculum of the community as described by Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This theme is important to the research question as it was an aspect of their experience in their own classrooms the majority of the participants described.

Many of the participants mentioned instructional coaches specifically as sources of early support, a lighthouse. Megan said, "The coach that we had here last year worked with me a lot"

(Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020), and Ava shared that “My coach is currently working with me right now” (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Amber, who did not have a student teaching experience, relied on her instructional coach to help support her in guided reading. She explained:

> I had a great instructional coach and she would come in and did a guided reading, like, a coaching cycle with me, obviously, everybody wants to do their best for themselves and for the kids of their teaching, so I was really nervous my first year that I wasn’t doing enough, and I was doing what I had been told to do, and what people—they said it was fine, but I didn’t feel confident in, I guess, the teaching that I was doing (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

While Amber feels comfortable teaching reading and participated in a coaching cycle about guided reading she viewed as beneficial, she shared during the focus group that:

> I have done running records, but I don’t feel like they help me understand a kid’s ability to read a text. I don’t know if that’s because I haven’t been trained properly on how to look at them or what…I can tell which kids can handle a text on my own without a running record. The running record for me is more of a distraction. I don’t feel like I focus on them [the students] if I have a running record out. That’s why I don’t use them hardly at all (Amber, personal interview, March 9, 2020).

The administration and analysis of a running record can be highly complex, but the benefit to instruction, specifically guided reading instruction, is widely accepted and promoted in the teaching community as it helps to determine the instructional level of the student as well as what types of errors the student makes, which helps tailor instruction. Whether running records were part of Amber’s coaching cycle was not shared, so it is unclear if this knowledge from the

teaching community was transferred to Amber. Other participants, specifically Ellie and Megan, described learning how to administer and give running records in their literacy courses (personal interview, March 9, 2020).

Cassandra also relied on her instructional coach to help support her reading instruction. She noted that talking with my instructional coach and other people in the building for ideas of how to teach that, not necessarily thinking back to what I did in undergrad and preparation" helped her to gain clarity in her instruction. She described their work together as:

> This was breaking everything down and not being just, like, breaking it down and taking it step by step and seeing that, you know, you can take steps to, you know, whatever it is, figure it out. Just basically helping me break things down and look at, like, the first thing that we focus on. So—and then right now, we're working on assessment. That's the next thing (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Cassandra submitted a lesson plan for whole group reading, outlining what she was going to teach Monday through Friday one week at the end of August, prior to her coaching cycle. For one week, she was addressing eight standards and in one day, she had nine learning targets, indicating that she did need assistance with standards (Cassandra, personal communication, August 26, 2019). Her instructional coach is a continual source of support to Cassandra as she works through various aspects of instruction in order to make sense of what instruction should look like.

Kara did not recall the support of an instructional coach, but she did have support of other teachers. In describing her first year teaching third grade, she noted:

> I had an amazing mentor who was on my team, so we were always together…and I had the interventionist, like to be in my classroom, so she helped out with, like, if I was, had a

> question, I'll just ask her like, 'what do you think I should do?' So I felt like I had a lot of support that year, I had a great--especially at the beginning of the year (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Abigail also relied, and continues to rely on, mentors in her building. She stated:

> Mentor teachers helped me the most as well as team teachers being there to help answer any questions I had. So, um, through just asking around other teachers and learn--and you know, during PLCs, asking what to do to, to, to help kids learn to read and understand how that works (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Megan recalled support from mentors in her building, as well as supports from her coursework. During methods courses, she created instructional resources she revisited when she started her teaching job. She noted that she had "more practical things for math", as her concentration was in math, which were not helpful when she was responsible for the reading instruction of all fifth graders in her building (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). With what she had, she described:

> I'm looking at the topic I need to teach, like, I'm talking to…more tools, like teaching inferencing and student teaching, I already had, like, a PowerPoint resource that I had made of, like, what it looks like in an organizer. I'd use different texts because they had textbooks because they had textbooks and stuff and I didn't have that here. Pulling texts of my own, trying to pull it together. I had a teammate last year that—I had a mentor last year that was the fourth grade reading teacher. She helped me a lot with what resources to have, kind of what we had. But I just feel like I---and there's not a huge connection there because I, like, did a lot of just trial and error, pulling for resources from different people, seeing what works here (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Not all participants had a mentor in the building or an instructional coach to support them. Ellie started teaching the year the state ended their statewide internship program, which sought to provide first year teachers with mentors and structured support to help ensure success in the classroom. Ellie was isolated:

> And last year when they took (the state mentorship program) away, I felt like we didn't have anybody to mentor and I got stuck on a team where one was pregnant, one was left because she wanted, she wanted to go to a different school, and the other one left for maternity leave, and I was with a new teacher myself and a substitute last year with tier three behaviors (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Ellie did not have an instructional coach or senior teachers on her team to assist her and spent a portion of the school year with a substitute. If she needed support, she had to find someone else in the building. Despite not having a specific mentor in close proximity to her, Ellie submitted a lesson plan that was well-developed. It incorporated the model of gradual release, focus on important standards, student self-reflection, and all five pillars of reading instruction. She did, however, show a need for clarification on means of differentiating reading instruction, as she had a few pieces of instruction where all students were doing the same thing in the same way. She also seemed to have some confusion on vocabulary, as she tied academic vocabulary ("theme", "plot", "setting", "character", and "story element") with other vocabulary ("damp", "mysterious", "veil", "forbid", etc.). In total, she had 22 vocabulary words for the week (Ellie, personal communication, March 9, 2020).

The participants found that while it was comforting to have a mentor of some kind on whom to rely, they did not always hear the same thing about reading concepts and instruction from everyone. During the focus group when the participants were discussing resources, Ellie

shared, “No, I don’t! I always ask another senior teacher” (Ellie, personal interview, March 9, 2020). Rachel responded, “Yes me too! Seems when I go ask others I get different answers” (Rachel, personal interview, March 9, 2020). Amber stated that she “pulled things from other teachers and professionals that I saw” (Amber, personal interview, March 9, 2020), and Ava said that “I also pull from other teachers” (Ava, personal interview, March 9, 2020). Participants relied on various mentors to help gain clarity and fill gaps in their reading knowledge, however it can be more confusing to receive different answers from people the participants trusted as experts.

Participants turned to instructional coaches and other mentors to support them, teaching them how reading instruction looks in practice as well as the various necessary processes to be an effective reading teacher. Some turned to their teammates or other senior teachers, but not all participants had this benefit. Some, like Ellie and Amber, were the most stable members of their teams.

Table 5

Codes Relating to “I felt like I had a lot of support that year.”

Theme	*Codes*
“I felt like I had a lot of support that year.”	the coach that we had here last year worked with me a lot; a lot of support; I had a great instructional coach; what people—they said it was fine, but I didn’t feel confident in; My coach is currently working with me right now; I’m looking at the topic I need to teach, talking with my instructional coach and other people in the building; This was breaking everything down and not being just, like, breaking it down and taking it step by step; mentor teacher; another senior teacher; when I go ask others I get different answers; an amazing mentor; And last year when they took KTIP away

"How do you teach where there's so many behaviors?". Though this study focused on reading knowledge transfer and mechanisms of transfer, participants spent a large amount of their interview times (and the time after the interview officially ended) talking about student behaviors, mainly when asked to tell about their first teaching job, but some spoke openly of student behavior throughout their interviews. At face value, it does not seem that behavior should relate to the transfer of knowledge between TEPs and the participants' classrooms. Perceived negative behaviors, always referred to as "behaviors" by the participants, played a complex role in how they transferred what they knew about reading instruction. Participants found that controlling student behavior took precedent over reading knowledge transfer when they had no prior experience with such behaviors. Abigail explained:

> The only thing that I feel like my coursework didn't prepare me for was the classroom environment…I had one course on classroom management and I wish that we had more because, you know, the kids that we have nowadays in our schools, you know, aren't like how we were in school and so it's a lot (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Kara labeled the students in her first teaching job as "tough students". She shared:

> A lot of students' parents were in prison, so that would affect their students' behavior in class, so I did have a lot of challenges with student behavior. And then motivation. Like, some of the kids, it just wasn't important to them because they weren't taught this is important (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Kara described how the dissonance between her expectations of student behavior and the reality in her classroom took precedent over instruction, "I didn't really have anything I felt like to teach these kids, and I think the biggest thing for me was—I hate to say it, but the biggest thing for me was understanding how to control behavior" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Cassandra shared how negative behaviors are exacerbated in her current classroom, which she believes to be a product of struggling students being in classes together all day. She explained:

> So, being prepared to teach, you know, to that aspect of it is very hard when a lot of these students probably just aren't meant to be together in a class all day together…I mean, with it being group where these already—the low, less-developed students. It's a lot of—these students must, need someone with them, you know, they really are very dependent on other people, and dependent on the teacher, so it's been hard in building their stamina with reading and writing (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Cassandra was already overwhelmed with feeling underprepared, and the perceived negative behaviors in her classroom add to her emotional state. She added, "Yeah, well, some very challenging—I feel like I'm gonna cry. I'm sorry. It's an emotional thing. It's been a really frustrating year" (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Like the other participants, Megan extensively discussed perceived negative behaviors in her classroom. Her discussion of behavior started with how her field placements were different from her student teaching placement, about which she said, "West End and different, I mean, different, different, different, the different demographics. I mean, but there were still challenges in teaching" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). She conducted observation hours in the West End, while her student teaching took place in a high performing elementary school in the southern part of the district. When talking about her current classroom she noted, "We have some behaviors this year…extreme behavior" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Megan's interview was conducted during her planning, which was the first hour of the school

day. She described the instances of perceived negative behaviors she faced prior to our interview:

> I've got an email about a protest and another email about another kid who got kicked, so now I've got an incident report laying over there, like, and just all the extra things I feel like make everything so much harder too (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

She also had struggles with perceived misbehavior the previous school year during her first half-year of teaching. She said, "How do you teach where there's so many behaviors? It was really hard to build relationships with those kids because it all had to happen so fast" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Her comments reveal that she believes relationships to relate to the behaviors she does not like.

Rachel also discussed perceived negative behaviors. She recollected:

> I just remember thinking I had a lot of behavior issues last year in my classroom, and I just remember when I was reading even those behavior kids were sitting still. I could take that book and those kids that were my worst behavior kids would sit still and listen, and that just blessed my heart so much (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020).

She connected reading and behavior, but not how instruction took place; reading was depicted as a behavior management tool.

Amber found that she needed to be flexible with perceived negative behaviors in her classroom. She commented:

> Oh, we had a lot of behavior that interrupted class on a multi-level daily basis, so we missed a lot of content because we had to stop and, you know, redirect or stop and clear the room, so I think it really hindered, I guess, the amount that we can teach. I had to be

> super flexible. I did guided reading in front of the door a lot of times just to keep them from, like, running out. I think we missed—I think it was difficult. I mean, as an adult, it was difficult to focus and teach in that moment being new, while dealing with the behavior issues we had. And so then on top of it, I knew that it was difficult for my kids (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Ava also struggles with perceived misbehavior but has not found a way to address it. She mentioned, “And with this particular class I have it’s just hard to get anything done” (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). When asked why, she explained, “A lot of behavior issues and immaturity. There are days when we can make it through and then there’s days when there’s yelling while I’m teaching” (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Of all the participants, Abigail was the only one who student taught and was subsequently hired in the same district. She, too, mentioned perceived negative behaviors in her classroom, but noted how exposure to a similar population during student teaching helped:

> So, but classroom management-wise I had a lot of behavioral issues in the fifth grade placement I was in because it’s the same district and it’s the same, you know, environment, and, and so, bringing some experiences from that was definitely helpful, you know, stepping into this environment (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Ellie did not have a similar student teaching context to help her with perceived negative behaviors in her classroom. Regarding the difference in context (student teaching in a high-performing school whose behavior norms matched her own versus actually teaching in a Title I school whose behavior norms did not match her own), Ellie said:

I just think that we need to really prepare teachers for the reality that we're going to be sending, or setting into when we walk into these classrooms and I feel like, that the program, the way it was set up with a school at the university I was at didn't prepare me for that, didn't prepare, prepare me for if you're going to teach at a school that has a demographic that's going to be a rough area, what do you do? How do you handle this? And I just feel like, I think that universities need to really start understanding what we're talking into today…And in looking at the social issues that we are, we are starting to deal with as educators because that's making learning and teaching kids how to read very difficult—very, very difficult (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

While participants were not expressly asked about behavior in their classrooms, all participants described frustration with behaviors they perceived as unacceptable. Participants became so focused on the perceived negative behaviors in their classroom, their attention was not on reading instruction, and whether it was being transferred effectively to meet the needs of their students.

Table 6

Codes Relating to "How do you teach where there's so many behaviors?"

Theme	*Codes*
"How do you teach where there's so many behaviors?"	we have some behaviors this year; extreme behavior; how do you teach where there's so many behaviors?; It was really hard to build relationships; Tough students; it just wasn't important to them because they weren't taught this is important; I didn't really have anything I felt like to teach these kids; control behavior; a lot of these students probably just aren't meant to be together in a class all day together; the low, less-developed students; I had a lot of behavior issues last year in my classroom; those behavior kids were sitting still. I could take that book and those kids that were my worst behavior kids would sit still and listen; tier three behaviors; I feel like I'm gonna cry; West End and different

	demographics; a lot of behavioral issues; a lot of behavior that interrupted class; just all the extra things I feel like make everything so much harder too; the kids that we have nowadays in our schools

Overview of Themes from Research Question Two

The second research question in this study was: How do elementary novice teachers perceive the role of knowledge transfer in their lived experience? During the interview and focus group, participants were directly asked about how they perceived the roles of prior knowledge, motivation, context, and culture in their experience transferring knowledge to their classrooms. Overarching themes regarding this question include

- "No, it wasn't enough just to have the knowledge",
- "I don't want to say 'reading people', but that's what we, I guess, kind of excel at",
- "It was a close-knit, a close-knit group, supportive of one another",
- "Different places have different values",
- "Me? Not the same".

These themes were determined through coded transcripts, with the lesson plans used to corroborate comments from the participants. The themes are organized to mirror the order in which participants were asked to share their perceptions of each mechanism. Culture as a mechanism was divided into two distinct themes as participants discussed the shared culture of their TEP and the cultures of their students separately. Subthemes are used within the themes to best describe the experience of the participants. After each theme, codes used in generating the theme and subthemes are presented.

"No, it wasn't enough just to have the knowledge". This theme refers to having prior knowledge of reading instruction before entering teaching situations as a mechanism for knowledge transfer. This is important to the second research question as it directly connects to how participants perceived that specific knowledge transfer mechanism. Having prior knowledge of reading instruction when entering the classroom should help novice teachers as they enter their first classrooms. The participants, however, did not perceive benefit from prior knowledge largely because they believed they did not have enough prior knowledge to transfer to help them with all aspects of reading instruction. Rachel, who completed her degree 25 years prior to our interview, noted "Um, I had a very, I had very little background, I had a little prior knowledge from my college years that, of course, also with all the new curriculums and things, sometimes I doubted that prior knowledge" (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020). It is important that though other participants expressed similar views, Rachel had the added variable of decades between her TEP experience and her current classroom.

Ava also felt like she had little prior knowledge, sharing that she could connect to her children's literature class, but "haven't thought much about the 'teaching kids to read' class" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). She recalled a time the professor of that particular class asked students to write questions on their exit slips. She said, "And one of the questions all of us would write down is 'When are we going to teach kids how to read?' because it just—I don't know. I don't feel like it ever connected there" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Megan declared that "my group had a bad experience with reading" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). The language for the name of this theme comes from her. She explained:

> So, I didn't have nearly as much prior knowledge as I wish that I would have had. The knowledge that I did have it was easy to transfer, like, the things that I had done. It's just that I didn't do a lot. I didn't have a lot of prior knowledge. I guess what I did have I was able to transfer. I do feel like—but I didn't have a lot (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Megan transferred what she could, but she felt like she did not leave her TEP with the requisite amount of knowledge to be truly effective.

While Megan felt like she did not get enough knowledge, Ellie felt like she got so much, she could not possibly retain it all. She shared:

> Um, I had a very, I had very little background. Other than that overwhelming exposure that I got in my education program to the actual classroom, if that's what you're asking. Yeah, I was very—it was not, it wasn't, like I said, mainly the biggest thing where I was like 'Oh, I know that' is running records, so perhaps too much knowledge. It was just, it was, it wasn't—it was too much. It was just that it, it should not be condensed into one literacy class. It's so much more than one class and that's what I got in my education program. I got one class that explicitly kind of taught literacy and it was just that—because it was only one class, it was overwhelming. I think that it needs to be, you know, different. I feel like the most beneficial would be having different types of classes that focus on a different avenue, different sections of literacy because I feel like that would be so much more of a 'bang for our buck' when we're coming into these classroom as new teachers because then I can really understand what phonemic awareness really means… (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Ellie had a professor who felt they were not going to get everything they needed anywhere else, justifying her decision to include so much content in one course. The downside, however, was that feeling overwhelmed interfered with Ellie's ability to retain information.

Amber described using resources from her TEP, not necessarily knowledge she learned, in conjunction with what she observed around her. She said:

> There are some books, you know—you read some, you keep them…And I kind of tried to marry that with what I saw your other, other kindergarten teachers doing, or other people that had taught kindergarten—what did they do last year, or what works (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

She added that, "I felt like the best experience I got was not from school [TEP] but from my previous job, which was managing a classroom full of kids" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). Amber's experience at a daycare in conjunction with support from other teachers held more value for her than knowledge from her TEP. Cassandra expressed similarly, that experience was more beneficial to her than prior knowledge. She shared, "I think I took more prior knowledge from experience that I had rather than just things that were explained to me or, you know, just shown to me" (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Abigail and Kara were the only participants to not speak with a largely negative view of the role of prior knowledge. Abigail commented that "it is kind of tricky talking about, like, a specific idea like prior knowledge having really helped me" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Kara shared what she was able to transfer including strategies and the gradual release model. On gradual release, she specifically said:

> we were taught that, so I feel like I use that in my teaching, and still use that and that's a great thing because how much it helps, like, the kids. The focus is on them. So, I use—I

> learned that and definitely use that the first year somewhat because of that being a program. You know, I feel like I use it more because now we don't use a specific reading program to make you feel less boxed-in (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

She did not comment on deficits until the end of her interview when she spoke about what she was learning through the graduate literacy courses she is taking through a university in an adjacent county. She shared, "I just feel like I wish what I'm learning and this had been part of my teaching program I would have been a much stronger teacher and more prepared" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

The lesson plans submitted by the participants demonstrated gaps in content knowledge, as well as gaps in their understanding of how to connect content to pedagogical choices. Guided reading plans discussed previously largely showed a lack of congruence between student need and instructional practice. Megan submitted a whole group lesson focused on comprehension, specifically characters' perspectives. While she felt uncomfortable trying to find appropriate resources for her lessons, the lesson plan she submitted included a book appropriate for fifth grade (*How to Steal a Dog* by Barbara O'Connor) and she incorporated the model of gradual release to help teach the concept and incorporate fluency instruction. Her lesson plan, however, lacked specific differentiation based on student needs in relation to the content (Megan, personal communication, March 2, 2020). Rachel submitted a copy of a lesson from the reading program she is expected to teach. It contains underlines she made as notes to herself, but she did not make notes of anything she would need to incorporate, alter, or differentiate for her students based on their needs (Rachel, personal communication, March 2, 2020). This suggests the potential damage of a reading program—teachers become reliant on a script they do not feel they can deviate.

Overall, prior knowledge was not largely beneficial in helping participants transfer reading knowledge from their TEPs to their first classrooms. While participants were able to transfer some strategies they learned, the majority of participants agree they entered their first job without enough knowledge. Participants referred to experiences which they reflected upon to help them, which aligns more with context than prior knowledge.

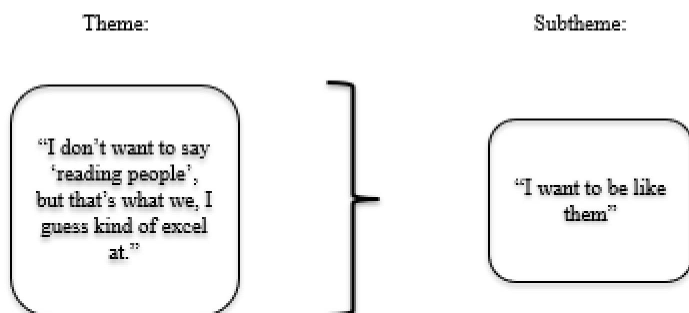
Table 7

Codes Relating to "No, it wasn't enough just to have the knowledge."

Theme	*Codes*
"No, it wasn't enough just to have the knowledge."	No, it wasn't enough to just have the knowledge; my group had a bad experience with reading; I might not even look at the fact that; I had a little prior knowledge from my college years; I felt like the best experience I got was not from school but from my previous job; I think I took more prior knowledge from experience; There are some books, you know—you read some, you keep them; I just feel like I wish what I'm learning and this had been part of my teaching program; I learned that and definitely use that the first year somewhat because of that being a program; I feel like the most beneficial would be having different types of classes that focus on a different avenue; So, I didn't have nearly as much prior knowledge as I wish that I would have had; When are we going to teach kids how to read?

Figure 6

Theme Seven and Subtheme



"I don't want to say 'reading people', but that's what we, I guess kind of excel at." This theme reflects the participants' perceptions of how motivation acted as a mechanism of knowledge transfer. It connects directly to the second research question as it addresses a distinct knowledge transfer mechanism, and they discussed intrinsic factors such as a love of reading, but they also discussed extrinsic factors such as wanting to be like specific professors. Some, however, found aspects of their TEP to decrease their motivation, thereby negatively impacting what they were able to transfer.

Participants were asked directly about how they perceived motivation in their experience transferring reading knowledge. They spoke of intrinsic motivation and a love of reading that helped them transfer and expand their instructional practice. Kara explained how love for a subject enhances motivation to learn about and teach it effectively:

> So, I had great support, and we had the same kind of understanding about—she seemed to have, like, probably came from the same teaching culture as me and my other two teammates are a little bit different about especially reading instruction and I think sometimes teachers, it's like, it's what you love. Like, your subject—like, I love reading. I'm glad that I'm just doing reading, where, like, the teacher next door loves math and

> that's her best subject, so I don't feel like the other teachers on the team were as into reading (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Amber, whose language was used for the title of this theme, concurred that outlook on a subject is connected to performance. She said, "So, I think the team that I had, and even the team that I currently have, we're, I guess we're—I don't want to say 'reading people', but that what we, I guess, kind of excel at" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Intrinsic motivation and love for reading also moved participants to learn more on their own in order to address gaps they noticed in their practice. Ellie explained:

> Um, I really wanted to, I really wanted to know, I really wanted to learn what that , what that meant and because I felt like that was such a big part of being a teacher…, the teachers will talk about, you know, there might be writing but they'll talk about different, different people that they use to get some of their, you know, reading instruction from and I'm like, 'Who's that?' You know? And I haven't even heard of those people before and I only learned from being a teacher in that, in that professional setting, sharing with other people and not having a mentor really makes that a little difficult because I'm—that requires me to walk over and pass, which I do and I'm eager and I'm determined to do that and because I'm not that individual (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Amber, who was in the position of completing her degree while already teaching, was also motivated by gaps she noticed. She broadly noted:

> I was definitely motivated to do it and, you know, when you're motivated to do something you certainly are willing to do it more independently. So, it also, I guess, affects the amount of time I was willing to put in certain things (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

She then reflected on participating in her coursework while she was teaching:

> It made me—talking about motivation—it made me, I guess, I know I didn't pay as much attention in school as I gave to, like, my kids. And when I did, when I went to, like, professional developments, those I paid attention to, those I was very motivated to learn about. When I did research on my own because I knew that those things were going to directly relate to these kids. When I was in school, a lot of times if somebody was talking about their fifth grade class and giving me strategies about their fifth grade class, I didn't listen to those because I had kindergarteners, so that did not help. I guess, just knowing that some of—and, you know, usually when you hear something that you think 'Oh, that really relates to my kids', then I pipe in, you know, that I'm, like, listening and really paying attention, but other than that it was kind of, it was one more thing to do on top of I was teaching at the time…if I had to do lesson plans or I wanted to look for things I was doing that while I was in class because they were winning out (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Amber was motivated to transfer reading knowledge into her classroom, but there was a cost. She ignored information unless it directly related to her grade level and spent her own class time working on things for her students.

"I want to be like them". Several participants mentioned the role of their professors in their motivation. This is presented as a subtheme because it relates to the idea of being 'reading people', but connected to extrinsic factors. This was the case for Rachel, who had a positive experience with her reading professors, and from whom the language for this subtheme came. She said:

> I just remember having a few reading professors who were on fire for teaching kids to read, and they're passionate about it, and I remember thinking, 'I want to be like them. I want to teach, I want to be a teacher like them' because they were—it was real, you know? (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020).

Like Rachel, Abigail found that her coursework energized her rather than deflated her motivation. In talking about trying to educate herself about the new reading curriculum her school adopted, Abigail shared, "Whenever I found out that we were having this program because I was really excited because my literacy classes really got me excited to teach reading" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

That was not the case, however, for Megan and Ava. While Megan (personal interview, February 21, 2020) described herself as intrinsically motivated ("I want to do the best I can all the time, almost to a fault"), she found this motivation diminished by an experience with her reading methods professor. She shared:

> This, I feel like I've, you know, people say, like, you never use what you learned in undergrad, like what you like to call it, you're never going to use. I've used some of it definitely, but I've not used a lot of reading (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Ava perceived a similar effect on her motivation. She commented, "I'm going to be honest, there was not a whole lot of motivation in that class, just because—I don't know, just the culture and just the environment and how it was set up" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). She added, "Which does connect, like, I was not motivated to remember a lot of it probably because it just seemed pointless at the time, I guess" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Participants described intrinsic motivation as important in their transfer of reading knowledge. They were motivated to transfer, so they transferred what they could. They also largely shared a love for reading and viewed themselves as successful as reading teachers. Participants also explained how professors helped or hindered their motivation; if the participant liked her professor, she was more motivated to emulate them and take what they offered, whereas if a participant did not like her professor, she was unmotivated to take what they offered, making it more difficult to transfer reading knowledge because they did not learn.

Table 8

Codes Relating to "I guess we're—I don't want to say 'reading people', but that's what we I guess kind of excel at."

Theme/Subtheme	*Codes*
"I guess we're—I don't want to say 'reading people', but that's what we I guess kind of excel at."*	I want to do the best that I can all the time; when you're motivated to do something you certainly are willing to do it more independently; Um, I really wanted to, I really wanted to know, I guess we're—I don't want to say "reading people"; probably my most favorite thing to teach is reading; I didn't listen to those because I had kindergarteners, so that did not help; it's like, it's what you love
"I want to be like them."	My literacy classes really got me excited to teach reading; I just remember having a few reading professors who were on fire for teaching kids to read, and they're passionate about it, and I remember thinking, "I want to be like them. I want to teach, I want to be a teacher like them" because they were—it was real, you know?; I'm going to be honest, there was not a whole lot of motivation in that class; you never use what you learned in undergrad

*Main Theme

"Different places have different values". This theme addresses how participants perceived context as a mechanism for their knowledge transfer, which directly relates to the second research question as context is a distinct knowledge transfer mechanism. As participants

discussed transitioning into their first classrooms from their TEPs, they addressed how they had to adjust to differences in contexts. While learning in context (largely student teaching as discussed in the themes associated with research question one) was viewed as the most beneficial part of their TEP by most of the participants, changes in context forced the participants to learn how their previously understandings would fit within their new context. Megan, for example, found that her student teaching context and first classrooms were similar so she able to do similar things, but added later that:

> Like, taking that and just seeing how it fits in a little bit you're learning fit into the big picture of their learning is hard, and, and then taking that and now I'm somewhere completely different and doing completely different things, I feel like each building does things a little bit differently and things that are more important, different places have different values, different values (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Regarding her own building, she found that sometimes it does not matter what she wants to do in her room because "it's really just whatever they want us to use" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Abigail, Ellie, and Ava found that differences in their observation placements, their student teaching contexts, and their first classrooms did not help them in transferring what they knew about reading instruction. Abigail shared:

> Um, so my, like, observation environment in [name of university] was very different than [name of district]. And so, I—it was very difficult for me at first whenever I was starting my student teaching because the classroom environment was so different (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020).

Abigail struggled to transfer what she learned from observing because the context of her more urban observation placement was different from her rural student teaching placement. Ellie, when talking about her student teaching placement commented specifically on grade level differences, "Was it the same? Not necessarily because it was a different grade and you need, you might do things differently" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). However, when commenting on the environment of her student teaching placement compared to her first classroom, she explained:

> They're very, you know, big on, on a lot of things, whereas they didn't put you in schools where you're going to have behavior problems, like, you know, when you're in your reading group and somebody's getting upset in the middle of reading group, they don't throw a chair across the room. How do you, you know, what do you do? (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Ava found that her student teaching placement context did not help her transfer much of her knowledge of reading instruction because how she taught was largely defined by her cooperating teacher. She said, "I'm thinking the structure and all that. I didn't take so much of that away, I guess. The questions were good and all that, but, just, we were out in the hallway, on the floor" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Because Ava did not have the experience of teaching like she is expected to teach now, she struggled to fully transfer from context.

Kara recalled that her student teaching placement was a different context than her own classroom but did not specifically state whether it helped or hindered her current work. She shared:

> Well, they were totally different schools. Okay, so I feel like the school that I student taught in was like, they just had better family support, and so I felt like that really, you

know, affected the kids and their motivation and wanting to learn, and then the teachers were just such great teachers that taught me so much, like, not even just the students—the ones that [I] was student teaching with, but other teachers on the team would, like, help me, like tell me stuff… (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

Amber was not as impacted by the role of context because she only had observation hours before she was in her own classroom; she was not subject to the influence of long-term context in another teacher's classroom. She noted, "I don't think I was affected as much by that just because I had, I had been around students and I had taught reading at various levels" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Participants viewed context as beneficial to their transfer of reading knowledge to their classrooms as explored earlier, but when asked directly about context the participants described how differences between contexts inhibited their transfer. When their classroom context was different from their student teaching context, they made attempts to adapt their reading knowledge to fit their new context.

Table 9

Codes Relating to "Different places have different values"

Theme	*Codes*
"Different places have different values"	kind of similar; Like, taking that and just seeing how it fits;, I feel like each building does things a little bit differently and things that are more important, different places have different values, different values; But it's really just whatever they want us to use; I had to learn [county name]; whenever I was starting my student teaching because the classroom environment was so different; Was it the same? Not necessarily; I'm thinking the structure and all that. I didn't take so much of that away, I guess; it was that teacher's classroom; I don't think I was affected as much; totally different schools; they didn't put you in schools where you're going to have behavior problems;

"It was a close-knit, a close-knit group, supportive of one another." This theme centers on the final mechanism of knowledge transfer explored in this study: culture. Within this theme, which specifically addresses the second research question, participants described the cultures of their TEPs, which appeared to be difficult for them. Each participant needed further clarification on what was meant by "culture", which was defined for them as "shared beliefs and values". They then described their cultures as overwhelmingly positive. The language from this theme came from Cassandra, who added that she "felt very comfortable" (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020). Ellie said, "everybody was very supportive of each other, we were very, we were close" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Kara agreed, "everybody seemed to really be in it to help each other out" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020). Sometimes, as Amber pointed out, that help took the form of developing ideas. She shared, "[The demographic] was varied, but I felt like that really added to what we learned and, like, the discussions that I brought up" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

Megan noted that "we really shared a lot of the same ideas" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020), a sentiment shared by Rachel who shared, "I thought it was similar, and even years ago, I think it was something very similar" (Rachel, personal interview, March 2, 2020). Some of those similarities were attitudinal, as Kara remarked that "they were serious about [teaching]" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020), while some of the similarities were conceptual, as Abigail recollected, "I think we all felt strongly about student needs rather than the curriculum itself, so everyone was very passionate about what they were doing, so that was probably the overall feel" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Ellie reflected that "everybody was really focused on behavior—in analyzing behavior, analyzing that kind of

stuff" (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Megan remarked on another similarity in her TEP's culture—the shared pessimistic view of assignments. She recalled:

> Yeah, I mean I feel like we were all really optimistic and, but we also felt like some of the stuff we were doing in class was, like, 'we're not actually going to use this' or 'why am I doing this assignment right now?' Especially student teaching—'why am I doing this assignment right now when what I really need to do is, like, lesson plans for tomorrow' and that sort of thing….we all kind of thought there is a lot of extra stuff that wasn't really helping us… (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Members of Megan's TEP culture developed their prescribed worth of assignments together, which had implications for their collective attitude; there was still unity in skepticism.

Once participants conceptualized how their TEP had a culture, they spoke of unity among its members, how it was a support structure. They had a shared value of helping one another, and they developed shared views of their assignments. Participants felt comfortable in their TEPs.

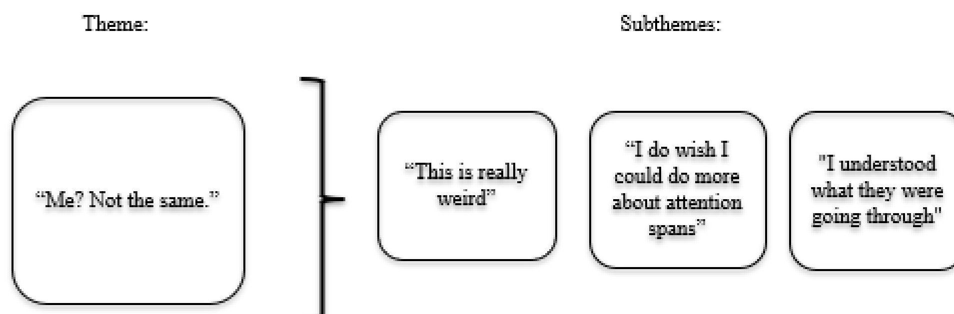
Table 10

Codes Relating to "It was a close-knit, a close-knit group, supportive of one another"

Theme	*Codes*
"It was a close-knit, a close-knit group, supportive of one another"	we really shared a lot of the same ideas; close-knit; very comfortable; I thought it was similar; we were with each other way too much; really optimistic; we're not actually going to use this; I think it was good we reflected as much as we did; they were serious about it; everybody seemed to really be in it to help each other out; So, everybody was really focused on behavior; very supportive of each other; we were close; student needs rather than the curriculum itself; very passionate; It was varied

Figure 7

Theme Ten and Subthemes



"Me? Not the same." Unlike describing the culture to which they belonged in their TEP, all participants could immediately describe the culture of their students. This theme reflects how participants described the cultures of their students, relating to the culture as a mechanism of knowledge transfer. Participants were asked directly about how they perceived culture playing a role in how they transferred knowledge of reading instruction, and all participants discussed the backgrounds of their students. Data for this theme is taken from their responses as well as comments from the focus group and throughout individual interviews that relate to students' cultures.

When asked to tell more about her students, Abigail responded as a matter of fact, "Um, very poor" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Megan described her students in a similar way, "we got a huge socioeconomic divide here" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). She added, "And their background, like, it's just so different" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Ellie said:

> I would say this is, we're a Title I school. We work with mainly, mainly children that are from poverty. We work with children with a lot of drug issues, parents with drug issues,

> kids that have a lot of short-term, long-term memory issues because of being drug babies and things like that (Ellie, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Poverty is one descriptor that was used to describe students, and the participants shared their views on how poverty impacts their students. Abigail commented, "Their needs were so much different than theirs here and so—but they definitely, they need structure and stability because at home, they might not have that at all because they're back and forth between homes" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). Megan explained:

> The ones who are for the most, for the most part the ones who are more well-off and have this higher socioeconomic status, whatever, however you want to put it, are typically some of our higher performing students….For the most part, my parents, my kids have parents that care, just caring looks different. But the value [of] their education? That's a little bit…and uh, well, you know it starts when they're young. Did their parents read to them when they were little?...I mean, I let kids take books home from my library and the school library, but parents who are taking their kids to a bookstore, to the library and saying 'hey, check this one out' are definitely going to be doing more and reading outside the classroom, so I think that plays a huge factor in which kids are more successful in the classroom. Not always, but like, for the most part (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020).

Megan's comment is seemingly laced with judgments of poverty and the values of people living in poverty, and she was not the only participant to talk similarly. Amber acknowledged that "they're not their demographics, but they're just—what, what their life was like was so very different from what I came from" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). She commented that, "They [the students] don't have guys—people that read with them, so I wanted

them to have that here and I wanted them to at least have a role model" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). This demonstrates an assumption that students living in poverty do not have role models instead of showing value for the role models in their lives already. Amber described her students coming to school craving a "safe place", that "'We've got a safe place to be. We've got somebody here who loves us.' That's what they come to school for" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). She also mentioned that "they didn't want to learn and they weren't confident learners", while she "was that kid that wanted to learn" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). She seemed to connect herself more to the children with whom she worked in daycare, who "came in with that confidence to learn and that willingness and excited—like, excited to learn" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). She recalled the transition from working in the daycare to working in her own classroom, "It was so, like, this beautiful, ideal year. And then I came here where, how about a lot of behavior issues? And they needed a lot of extra love, like, they just—they needed a lot of extra" (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020). She shared:

> So I think that's—I have to, I had to realize that, you know, they don't all have—they can't all have what I had, and they can't all be the same, so I had to figure out how do I help each and every one of them individually and as a group (Amber, personal interview, February 28, 2020).

While participants identified their students as living in poverty and commented on assumed values about their students, their language regarding their students reveal a disassociation between themselves and their students, current and potential. From the perspective of critical pedagogy, particularly engaged pedagogy and abolitionist pedagogy, it does not seem the

participants have reach self-actualization and it is not evident that they have created classrooms where their students can see themselves.

"This is really weird". When participants were talking about the cultures of their students, language was continually used to seemingly draw lines between themselves and their students. In these comments, participants seemed to place negative judgments on the cultures of their students or students with whom they once interacted; they were not isolated to discussion of the students in their rooms but covered their experiences with students throughout their TEP as well. This seems to indicate that participants did not engage in self-actualization work during their TEP, with their CTs, or in their current school buildings as novice teachers. Since they were reliant on expert members of the teaching community to help develop their knowledge and practice as they entered the community, it would also seem the practice of self-actualization is not prevalent throughout the community itself. Specific comments about the "weirdness" of students' cultures are presented as a subtheme of the larger conversation around culture.

One such example of a disassociation came from Megan, when she referred to coursework she completed in her reading methods on African American Vernacular (AAV), said, "This is really weird, I feel like, but kids code switching" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Ava shared that:

> I had a student who could barely speak English. So, we were basically just looking at the phonics and the phonemic awareness of words to try and get that barrier broken before we can actually look at reading, some of these kids have such a big gap (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

Ava's comment about "actually look[ing] at reading" negates the reading practices the student already had, and an unawareness of how reading skill in another language serves to build reading

capacity in English. She also mentioned, "So that was kind of weird because, you know, I don't speak Spanish….I kind of—he keeps sitting in this reading group, but I'm not really—I don't know what he's getting out of it really" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020). Like Megan, Ava used "weird" to describe aspects of culture that was different from her own, a means of disassociating herself from the student. Abigail described how her student teaching students helped her more with her classroom students rather than students she observed previously "because I know that the situation is so much similar compared to, you know, one of my refugee students who doesn't know, you know, how to spell her name" (Abigail, personal interview, February 25, 2020). The choice of example appears to illustrate refugee students as academically less.

Kara described how in her first classroom she altered reading practices. She said, "I love them, like, I don't mean this in a bad way, but I had to take what I knew how to teach and tweak it to be relatable to those kids" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020). The qualification "I don't mean this is a bad way" appears to imply on some level that Kara felt her adaptations of reading instruction to respond to her students' cultural needs may not be viewed as acceptable.

"I do wish I could do more about attention spans". Just as perceived negative behavior came up when participants discussed reading knowledge transfer, perceived negative behavior came up when participants discussed student culture. Comments around behaviors participants seemed to relate to students' cultures are presented as a subtheme around culture. The name of this subtheme came from Kara's contribution to the focus group, but she was not the only one to mention perceptions of behavior (Kara, personal communication, March 9, 2020). Ava described interacting with her students during guided reading instruction, "I really had to be like

"Sit in your chair!" Like, "Scoot up. Book on the table." They're very energetic" (Ava, personal interview, February 26, 2020).

While Kara and Ava named behaviors of which they did not approve, Megan described how her school addresses such behaviors. She said, "And I mean, we do the "Leader in Me", Seven Habits, which I really think helps with the social, emotional", but she noted, "but you can see it, like, their little cliques of kind of the 'haves and have-nots'" (Megan, personal interview, February 21, 2020). Megan believed that character education was helping with perceived social and emotional deficits, but it does not seem to have an impact on the cliques the students formed.

"I understood what they were going through". Two of the participants discussed empathizing with students, despite disparate backgrounds. The positioning of these two participants as understanding students' backgrounds is presented as a subtheme as it was not universal to the participants' experiences, and, in some ways, this positioning stands counter to other comments these participants made. The name for this subtheme came from Kara. She explained about her first teaching job:

> I liked it because in a way, the class that I taught my first year—teaching those students were more like what I grew up with, like, it was the same area I grew up in, so I felt like, even thought my parents, my parents, my, like, home life was different than those kids, and the kids I grew up with…I could relate to those kids because I just understood what they were going through, and so being able to tweak it [instruction]…and so, we would dance and learn our math facts, and that was just more engaging for them, and it was fun (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020).

While growing up in the same geographical area might give one awareness of challenges a population of people might face, Kara noted that many of her students that year had parents in

prison and that learning "wasn't important to them because they weren't taught this is important to them" (Kara, personal interview, February 24, 2020). She appears to be aware of challenges her students face, but labeling this awareness as understanding might be a stretch too far.

Cassandra, when asked to elaborate on her relation to her students' cultures, explained:

> Um, I would say we don't have similar backgrounds, but, I mean, I grew up being taught that you know, the golden rule—you treat everyone the way you want to be treated…So, I mean, I treat them with kindness, but I also hold them to maybe an expectation that they aren't held to in other aspects of their life. You know, maybe they're not, you know, maybe the stuff they get away with outside of school (Cassandra, personal interview, February 18, 2020).

Like Kara, Cassandra acknowledged that her background was different than her students' backgrounds, but made an assumption about her students' families' values, and ignored how that mindset might serve to separate herself from her students' cultures and lived experiences.

More so than the other three mechanisms of knowledge transfer explored in this study, culture was a bit of a wild card. Participants struggled to name their own cultures within their TEPs in which they learned about reading instruction, but found it easy to describe their students' cultures, centering them on poverty. Despite the disparity between the participants' cultures and that of their students, participants did not identify culture as helping or hindering their transfer of reading knowledge. Participants used language that disassociated themselves from their students and addressed perceived negative behaviors. Perhaps Ellie summed it up best, "I just---I felt unprepared for it professionally."

Table 11

Codes Relating to "Me? Not the same."

Theme/Subtheme	*Codes*
"Me? Not the same."*	I definitely saw my share of students similar to this; Title I school; we got a huge socioeconomic divide here; Um, very poor; Me? not the same; Their needs were so much different than theirs here; I felt unprepared for professionally; I wanted them to at least have a role model; they're not their demographic; It was so, like, this beautiful, ideal year, and then I came here where, how about a lot of behavior issues?; needed a lot of extra love; didn't want to learn and they weren't confident learners; their home lives is different; I was that kid that wanted to learn; 'We've got a safe place to be. We've got somebody here who loves us.'; they can't all have what I had; You know, they say "Build community!"
"This is really weird."	So that was kind of weird because, you know, I don't speak Spanish; really weird; get that barrier broken before we can actually look at reading; I don't mean this in a bad way, but…
"I do wish I could do more about attention spans."	I do wish I could do more about attention spans; And I mean, we do the "Leader in Me"; I really had to be like "Sit in your chair!"
"I understood what they were going through"	I understood what they were going through; Um, I would say we don't have similar backgrounds, but…

*Main theme

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the lived experience of elementary novice teachers in transferring reading instruction knowledge from their TEPs into their own classroom, specifically looking at the role of transfer mechanisms. The experiences presented in this study reflect the eight participants, with commonalities and variety seen between them. Their

recollections and reflections shed light on the joys and frustrations of transferring knowledge, providing a human side to what quantitative studies show: novice teachers struggle to transfer knowledge from their TEPs to their own classrooms.

The participants described the complex experience of learning about reading instruction, how professors, approaches, mentors and support systems, prior knowledge (or lack thereof), motivation, context, and culture ultimately work together and impact how effective and confident the participants felt in their own classrooms. The themes and subthemes were taken directly from the participants' own word choice.

Discussion

Overview

The purpose of this study was to share the lived experiences of transferring knowledge of reading instruction from teacher education programs (TEPs) to classrooms by elementary novice teachers. Published quantitative studies demonstrate that teachers do not have the requisite knowledge of reading concepts and how they develop (Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, & Chard, 2001; Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; Joshi, Binks, Houge, Dahlgren, Ocker-Dean, & Smith, 2009; McCutcheon, et al, 2002; Moats & Foorman, 2003; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2004), but no study existed to show what the experience of knowledge transfer is like for novice teachers. To share the experiences of the participants and their perceptions of the role mechanisms of knowledge transfer played in their experiences, this study was guided by two research questions:

1. How do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from aspects of their program (coursework and student teaching) to their own classrooms?
2. How do elementary novice teachers perceive the role of different mechanisms of knowledge transfer in their lived experience?

This study was grounded in existing literature. The topic of teacher preparation is complex, involving many parts that influence one another. The experiences described by the participants include their coursework and student teaching, but also involved literacy, professors' approaches, mentorship, support systems, student behavior, knowledge, motivation, context, and culture. All of these factors interplayed to shape the participants' experiences.

Data collected from individual interviews, a focus group, and reading lesson plans were coded into themes using In Vivo coding, a means of honoring the language the participants used

to share their experiences (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2020). The choice of In Vivo coding tied to the overarching commonalities in the conceptual framework. Social constructivism, Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and critical pedagogies (hooks, 2014; Love, 2019) are woven together through the shared culture of the participants, with language as a hallmark of shared culture. Using In Vivo coding to produce themes highlighted the participants' shared culture.

The conceptual framework was founded on social constructivism, which describes knowledge as being culturally conceived and situated (Schwandt, 1994). Language around these ideas is developed and shared within a community (Gergen, 1985; Holstein & Gubrium, 1994; Shotter, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). Situated Learning Theory is a means of describing how this knowing is disseminated within professional cultures. Novices in the community move towards the center of the learning community as they learn knowledge central to the community. Finally, critical pedagogies help frame important knowledge from the teaching community as it is transmitted to its students (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Rather than discussing each theme and subtheme individually, this chapter will discuss the results—bridging data, the conceptual framework, and existing literature—situated around the four mechanisms of knowledge transfer explored in this study (prior knowledge, motivation, context, and culture). The results are presented this way to provide a more synthesized view of the data, as there was crossover between participants' experiences relating to the research questions. Implications for TEPs, elementary novice teachers, and further research will also be addressed. Finally, a general conclusion to this study is presented.

Discussion of Findings

The findings from this study are a direct result of participants' discussions and reflections of their lived experiences, offering a glimpse into participants' thoughts and feelings as they journeyed from preservice teaching to novice teaching. A discussion of how each of these findings connect to the existing literature is presented through the lens of this study's conceptual framework.

Prior Knowledge

In this study, participants received their prior knowledge of reading development and pedagogy from their TEPs. Participants had their first experience with knowledge considered important to the teaching community in their coursework, though this knowledge was not consistent throughout all the participants' TEPs. All participants shared limited experiences of transferring reading knowledge based solely on the knowledge itself. The NRC (1999) found that without initial learning, transfer is unable to occur, but transfer suffers when too much information is presented at one time. Further, the NRC (1999) wrote that transfer suffers when isolated sets of facts are unconnected or introduced to principles the students of the TEP cannot group because they lack specific knowledge to make them meaningful. Participants found the way in which the knowledge was taught by their professors ranged from confusing to overwhelming, indicating that though they were taught the information in manners purported by researchers, it was too much at one time. Participants' reports of "gray-area confusing" information in their coursework indicated that they were exposed to information but either did not have the requisite prior knowledge to grasp the concepts professors taught, or that the professors did not help the participants group and connect the information to gain understanding and enhance retention. In reference to experiences in student teaching, participants described

being confronted with knowledge, concepts, and practices with which they had no previous experience. Ellie, for example, described how she did not have the "schema" to understand what she was seeing, directly relating to Piaget's (1968/1970) schèmes.

Macaulay and Cree (1999) found that when situations such as these are present, learning is reduced to surface features, with no depth to help with transfer. PSTs need to be able to know and understand a concept deeply in order for transfer to occur; relying on surface features could result in inappropriate transfer as Pea (1987) suggested. The participants in this study learned some concepts at a surface level, such as decoding concepts and differentiation concepts, resulting their inability to transfer them into practice in their classrooms.

Regarding decoding, researchers found that graduates of TEPs do not have enough knowledge of phonemic awareness and phonics to be effective (Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, & Chard, 2001; Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; Joshi, Binks, Houge, Dahlgren, Ocker-Dean, & Smith, 2009; McCutcheon, et al, 2002; Moats & Foorman, 2003; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2004), which holds true in this study. Participants discussed feeling uncertain about teaching these concepts particularly. Though the NRP (2000) emphasized the need to center reading instruction in TEPs on phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension strategies, participants reported feeling most confused about pillars of reading used specifically for decoding. The participants noted that they felt more comfortable with phonological awareness and phonics concepts as a result of their participation in the reading classes offered through a university in an adjacent county through an agreement with their district, not from their original experiences in their TEPs.

Further, Meijer, Verloop, and Beijaard (2001) wrote that teachers are less likely to incorporate knowledge they do not value either because it is not emphasized in their TEP, it is

not emphasized in their student teaching, or it is not encouraged. Participants reported struggling with teaching decoding skills. It is possible that since these skills were confusing in the TEP, they placed less value on them, therefore participants did not incorporate them into their classrooms. Through the joint project between their district and a university in an adjacent county, participants now discuss the importance of decoding development. This could be because perhaps participants recognize the value of these concepts as they are in their own classrooms; perhaps participants are better positioned to understand these concepts now.

Also, in terms of content, participants described an emphasis on strategies over concepts and reading development in their TEPs. Practice-based approaches in TEPs have been suggested as a means of improving TEP outcomes (Ball & Forzani, 2009; McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanagh, 2013), and participants expressed that their programs subscribed to this approach. As seen with the participants' experiences entering their own classrooms, however, they had weak content knowledge *and* weak pedagogical content knowledge. Pedagogical content knowledge continues to develop as teachers' careers unfold (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Kleickman, et al., 2013) and is facilitated by instructional coaches and other mentors. What does not grow much after graduating from their TEP is content knowledge. It does not appear that the practice-based approach in TEPs adequately addresses content or pedagogical content knowledge with the participants in this study, though there are structures in place post-TEP to address practice for participants, and these supports are afforded to other teachers in their schools as well. Participants engaged in the reading courses with a university in an adjacent county receive reading content knowledge as well, but it is important to note that these courses are voluntary, whereas the work of an instructional coach is not necessarily voluntary for the teachers with whom they work.

The participants in this study largely described their coursework experience as including modeling of strategies and discussion as documented by Francis, Olson, and Weinberg, Sterns-Pfeiffer (2018), while a few described added implementation and analysis, matching the format advocated by McDonald, Kazemi, and Kavanagh (2013). While participants were taught strategies, they were not taught them within a structure to learn how to engage and enact those strategies for diverse learners, as suggested by Hollins (2011). Participants also described their experiences as being fragmented. Participants did not consistently get to work with the kids they assessed for methods courses, literacy courses were taken aside from field placements, and they were not all taught by professors they trusted to teach them what they needed. This matches studies by Feiman-Nemser (2001), Hollins (2011), and Zeichner (2006, 2010) who found that when TEPs operate in this way, it is difficult to produce teachers who are ready for to be excellent teachers.

All participants described the struggled they feel to meet the spectrum of reading needs in their classrooms. Some participants recalled being exposed to the concept of differentiation, but it appeared to be at a conceptual rather than practical level. This reflects findings by Kane and Andrews (2013), who wrote that pre-service teachers (PSTs) learn about differentiation and diversity as concepts but are not prepared to teach them in reality. Relating to diversity, only one participant recalled a “diversity class”, suggesting the lack of emphasis placed on diversity in the participants’ TEPs or the lack of value the participants placed on the topic. As the literature suggests, if one does not find value in a concept, it will not translate into practice. This has dangerous implications for diversity.

Missing from the vast majority of participants’ experiences is reflection. While the literature emphasizes the importance of learning to reflect on instructional practice, only one

participant referenced such reflection in her TEP. Risko et al. (2008) found that TEPs do not provide guidance to their students on how to reflect, which connects to the findings of this study, while Lacina and Block (2011) wrote that TEPs should require assessment, use of data, and reflecting on practice. Only one participant recalled reflecting on instruction specifically, suggesting that reflection might not have been an important fixture in other participants' TEPs. Participants shared that assessment was an area of growth they identified for themselves, indicating that instruction centered on assessment was not strong enough to transfer. No participants shared reflecting on their own positionality, culture, or implicit bias in relation to the classrooms they observed, or in which they student taught.

While the literature suggested that novice teachers think they know more than they actually do, the participants in this study were largely unconfident and uncomfortable as they began to teach reading. They appeared to *know* they did not know enough to effectively teach their students. The participants struggled to use prior knowledge as a transfer mechanism, largely, it seems, because they did not fully form their knowledge about reading development and instruction while in their TEPs. Related to gaps in knowledge, Stotsky (2006) found that teachers cannot teach what they do not know well, a finding the participants found to be true in their experiences. They attempted to remedy this by seeking out mentors and other research. Darling-Hammond (2006) wrote that teachers were more likely to alter instructional approach based on student need when they felt well-prepared, which does not seem to hold in the experience of the novice teachers in this study. Participants initially felt well-prepared, but quickly felt uncomfortable and unconfident as reading instruction began in their own classrooms; they determined they did not know enough about pedagogy to change instructional approach.

This suggests that feeling well-prepared and the act of altering instructional approaches is more isolated to experienced teachers.

Gaps in reading knowledge led most participants to seek support from instructional coaches and other, more senior teachers. Fitzharris, Jones, and Crawford (2008) found that knowledge was impacted by experiences with coaches. The participants who completed (and continue to complete) coaching cycles with instructional coaches described feeling much more comfortable with reading instruction from conducting guided reading to breaking down standards, to analyzing assessments for alignment to instruction. This was not available to all participants, however. Some were limited by a lack of experienced teachers, matching the lack of teaching experience in struggling schools documented by the literature. It is important to reflect on how participants' reliance on senior teachers (including coaches in some instances) could negatively impact the participants' understandings of reading concepts and instruction when participants hear conflicting things about what do to in relation to assessments and resources as noted in this study. Hobson (2009) found that novice teachers value mentors who consider practicalities and their emotions and help them fit in the culture of school. Perhaps participants in this study were drawn to coaches and other more experienced teachers not entirely because of their knowledge, but because of the emotional support they provided during a time when the participants were feeling an increasing amount of stress and frustration derived from the dissonance between expectation and reality, their discomfort in teaching reading, and the differences between themselves and their students.

Motivation

Literature on motivation as a mechanism for knowledge transfer suggested that if the learner believed the knowledge was not meaningful, transfer was diminished (Knowles, Marlow,

& Muchmore, 1992; NRC 2010; Pea, 1987). This study confirms that finding, though the professor and assignments acted as a catalyst for decreased motivation rather than the knowledge itself. Participants knew the knowledge was important to their membership in the teaching community, as evidenced by their drive to seek mentors and resources within the teaching community from which to learn. They became unmotivated and thereby did not transfer the knowledge as a result of their perceptions of their professors' approaches and the value of certain assignments. This speaks to the importance of such considerations for TEPs. Participants sought to be treated like a member of the teaching community rather than as students themselves while in their TEPs, and professors who did not do so negatively impact motivation.

Context

Hillman, et al. (2000) and the NRC (2010) agreed that knowledge in context is key to learning. The participants found learning in their student teaching contexts to be illuminating, reaffirming and clarifying some concepts from their coursework. While context was important, it can also be isolating. The participants struggled to transfer reading knowledge when contexts were different, instead attempting to adapt their understandings when their foundations were already shaky. As the participants found, not all transfers are appropriate for all contexts, as outlined by Pea (1987). Day and Goldstone (2012) wrote that when experiences are overly bound to one context, "Educators may reasonably feel faced with the unappealing task of choosing between comprehensibility and applicability" (p. 158). Almost all participants student taught in contexts that were different than those of their first classrooms. Many taught in urban contexts, and almost all participants student taught in higher performing schools than the ones in which they began their teaching careers. Participants attempted to transfer what they did in their different student teaching contexts to their own classrooms with varying degrees of success; the

transfer was not entirely appropriate. The literature presented conflicting ideas on the subject of student teaching contexts. Some found that being in a school with low teacher turnover and high collaboration raises success in the novice phase of teaching (Ronfeldt, 2015; Ronfeldt, Reininger, & Kwok, 2013), but Duffy and Atkinson (2001) suggested that preservice teachers need exposure to diverse classrooms because their first classrooms are less likely to be like the higher performing schools that have the lower teacher turnover, the ones that are typically used for student teaching. While most of the participants were in the schools with lower teacher turnover, they still started their careers feeling unsuccessful. They had less experience with students from backgrounds different than their own and appeared to lack the ability to critically reflect on how their own positionality comes into their own teaching.

Ronfeldt (2012) wrote that the student population with whom teachers worked in their student teaching did not have a difference on outcomes, but this does not seem to be the case with the participants of this study. Participants noted a difference between the populations they student taught and the population they taught in their own classrooms. Ellie, in particular, wished that she had student taught in a school that more closely matched the school in which she now teaches because she believed it would have helped prepare her better, suggesting a difference of outcomes. There is some grounding for this speculation in existing literature as Kanauka (2010) and Kasworm (2008) both found that when context match, transfer is enhanced. To address this issue, Phelps and Schilling (2004) found that knowledge needs to be flexible because the environment influences the use of knowledge. The participants in this study did not appear to have flexible knowledge, the changes in context shifting the focus from reading instruction to frustrations with perceived negative behaviors.

In this study, participants consistently stated that student teaching was the most beneficial portion of their TEP, which aligns with the existing literature (Berridge & Goebel, 2013; NRC, 2010; Zeichner, 2012). Like Choy, Wang, Goh, and Ling Low (2014) found, participants expressed that they learned things they did not learn in their coursework, in their cases spending much time talking about their first exposure to guided reading groups. Being in the student teaching classroom provided clarification on concepts and strategies the participants had learned during their coursework, as well as a time for practice; this aligns with findings from Anderson and Radenich (2001), Beck and Kosnik (2002), Chen and Fortune (2017), Darling-Hammond (2000), Hillman, Bottomley, Reisner, and Malin (2000), and Zeichner (2012). The knowledge was demonstrated to be true in the context (Creswell & Poth, 2014; Gergen, 1985; Holstein & Gubrium, 1994; Kozulin, Gindis, Agevey, & Miller, 2003; Moll, 2014; Schwandt, 1994), though this could, as Ellis (2007) posited, reflect the culture involving the cooperating teacher (CT) and participant, as knowledge is proven true in the context of culture; it was during student teaching that participants became entrenched in the community of teachers.

Few participants discussed feedback from their CTs. One participant remarked that she wished she had more feedback, and several others mentioned "checking in" with their CTs. Klayman (1988) wrote that feedback is difficult to get, though no participants spoke about being unable to get feedback. Feedback needs to be concrete (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Shulman, 2002; Risko, et al., 2008), and the one participant to discuss feedback in-depth found that her feedback pertained more to the writing of the lesson plan rather than the execution of instruction. No participants shared about conversations with CTs revolving around their own effectiveness, confirming findings from Soslau, Gallo-Fox, and Scantlebury (2019).

Borko and Mayfield (1995) wrote that PSTs were ill-prepared by CTs, but participants reported feeling more prepared after leaving their student teaching than by other components of their TEPs. This could be because the participants had at least one CT who they regarded positively, and Beck and Kosnik (2002) found that student teaching was considered successful when PSTs felt they had emotional support from their CT. Also, PSTs adopt what they see in action (Hammon, et al., 2009), and participants all reported that they took practices of their CTs into their own classrooms. The combination of emotional support and practical application could act as anchors for participants, helping them to feel more prepared for their own classrooms than coursework and other fieldwork. Regardless, participants left their student teaching impacted by their CTs, matching findings in existing literature (Hammon, et al., 2006; Ronfeldt, 2015; Zeichner & Gore, 1990)

Valencia, Martine, Place, and Grossman (2009) stated that weak connections between coursework and the field, as well as unclear expectations for what the PST is to do in the field impacts the learning of the PST in student teaching. The experience of participants appears to confirm this. Participants described an incongruence between their coursework and their student teaching placement, either seeing concepts they never learned about in coursework or not seeing concepts they learned, and some participants described being uncertain how much to “push” CTs in their placements, viewing themselves, in some ways, as outsiders.

Participants also found that their experience in student teaching was controlled by CTs, matching existing literature (Hammon, et al., 2006; Hollingsworth, 1989). Multiple participants described how their CTs provided them with a small group with whom to work and how this experience was largely positive, which aligns with Putnam’s (2012) finding that PSTs might engage more effectively with small groups. However, participants reported varying degrees of

support from their CTs regarding their small group instruction, ranging from conversations to giving them excerpts from a program and sending them off to teach, and the participants did not accept responsibility for all reading until their solo week. The literature described the best student teaching placements as ones with more structure and more feedback, as they helped preservice teachers become more successful in their first classrooms (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2009; Brannon & Fiene, 2013; Sivan & Chan, 2009). While participants reported feeling supported and learning from at least one of their cooperating teachers, they started the novice phase of their teaching career *feeling* unsuccessful. Whether they were actually unsuccessful is uncertain.

Regardless of the variation, CTs were still viewed as the experts in the situation, confirming the findings of Hammon, et al. (2006) which found that PSTs do not provide much support in overall reading instruction in their student teaching placements, and the CTs remain the experts. Many of the participants described a cycle of observing their CTs in the beginning of their student teaching, followed by mimicry of the CTs as the placement progressed. This seems to confirm Hoffman, et al. (2019) who wrote that PSTs are put in situations where they see replication of status quo. This replication becomes ingrained in the participants as they adopt practices they see as more practical and concrete to them than concepts from coursework. In this way, the culture of the teaching community is continued as suggested by Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and social constructivism.

The participants shared how CTs either made it known that their classroom was theirs or opened completely, how they provided resources and groups with whom the PSTs would work. These variations in exercising of power within the teaching community left the newcomers (PSTs) in varied positions within the community; more open CTs who shared their rooms helped

moved PSTs closer to the center of the teaching community, while more authoritarian CTs appeared to relegate PSTs to the outskirts of the community. Within Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), CTs are one of the first members of the teaching community with the capacity to shift PSTs inward in the teaching community, as they are the last step before PSTs have their own classrooms.

Participants carried with them expectations into their novice classrooms based on their student teaching. The expectations they had of their own classroom developed through student teaching did not meet reality, which reflect findings from Choy, Wong, Goh, and Ling Low (2014) and Horitos (2014). When they realized the dissonance between their expectations and their realities, their outlooks took a hit. Participants shared their deep-seeded feelings of frustration, one reduced to tears when discussing how difficult her first year of teaching had been. Hirschkorn (2009) found a similar result with a case study involving a novice teacher. The novice teacher in the case study based his expectations on his student teaching (which was largely in control of his CT), and found a divide between those expectations and the sheer amount of responsibility he had in his own classroom. Further, participants described their feelings of confusion and frustration with their knowledge gaps, which aligns with Huisman, Singer, and Catapano's (2011) study which found that stress was heightened when the divide between expectations and reality.

Culture

> While implicit bias is always at play because all humans have bias, inequity can occur simply through homogeneity; if I am not aware of the barriers you face, then I won't see them, much less be motivated to remove them. Nor will I be motivated to remove the barriers if they provide an advantage to which I feel entitled. (DiAngelo, 2018, p. xiii)

Though DiAngelo (2018) wrote specifically on racial prejudice, her work on implicit bias and prejudice holds value to discussion of implicit bias in other spheres as well. While implicit bias was noted throughout participant interviews in how they talked about their students and their families, the participants *could* identify the barriers their students faced, particularly barriers constructed by poverty. The participants seemed to dismiss these barriers in favor of individualism and objectivity, “two key Western ideologies” described by DiAngelo (2018, p. 9). DiAngelo (2018) defined individualism as the belief that “we are each unique and stand apart from others, even those within our social groups” and objectivity as the belief that “it is possible to be free of all bias” (p. 9). Participants seemed to believe that even though their students faced barriers inflicted on their social class, they should be able to individually rise above these obstacles.

As a contrast, the participants eventually reported belonging to a culture where they felt comfortable and supported. However, they struggled to define their own culture. This suggests a lack of introspection, which can be damaging. It is unsurprising that this would be difficult when considering DiAngelo’s (2018) argument that “many of us are unskilled at reflecting on our group memberships” (p.11) because of socialization that emphasizes individuality, but even this socialization is happening across the White middle-class group. Members of this dominant group know that there are differences among characteristics (“old is different from being viewed as young, rich is different from poor, able-bodied different from having a disability, gay different from heterosexual, and so on” (DiAngelo, 2018, p. 10), and the perception of these differences are determined through verbal and nonverbal messages and comparisons of the self to the different group. DiAngelo (2018) concluded that “we also know that it is “better” to be in one of these groups than to be in its opposite—for example, to be young rather than old, able-bodied

rather than have a disability, rich rather than poor" (p. 10). These determinations are not openly examined by the dominant group, but they shape the lens through which the members of the dominant group view the world and how the members of the dominant group positions themselves to other groups.

No participants mentioned work reflecting on their own identity, their students' identities, and their practices. Hughes (2010) and Risko, et al. (2008) found that unexamined teacher beliefs are dangerous. While this study cannot confirm that finding because students were not interviewed, the language used to describe students (from nuanced to outright), the sense of total control they sought to harbor in the classrooms, and the lack of awareness of the participants in relation to the actions they described in their classrooms creates a space where students, particularly students from lower socioeconomic statuses, face the undue burden of conformity. Participants expressed how they treat their students with respect, with one participant specifically stating that she treats her students the way she would want to be treated, speaking to the value of objectivity posited by DiAngelo (2018). The idea of equal treatment, however, is impossible because humans cannot be truly objective. Not only that, but equal treatment denies individual experience. DiAngelo (2018) explained, "Further, we wouldn't want to treat everyone the same because people have different needs and different relationships with us" (p. 79). It would appear the participants have been socialized "not to admit prejudice" when those around them "sincerely hoped and believed that they were raising their children not to be prejudiced" (DiAngelo, 2018, p. 84). Love (2019) wrote that when students "merely survive, learning how schools mimic the world they live in, thus making schools a training site for a life of exhaustion" (p. 27). For students living in poverty who face constant focus on their behaviors over their individual voices and stories, this seems to be the case.

These unexamined positionalities are not improved by the lack of participants' discussion of diversity in their TEPs. While participants could identify differences between the student populations they student taught and the student populations of their own classrooms, only one participant commented on exposure to a diversity class; it was no more than a brief statement of fact when describing her coursework in her TEP. This study cannot confirm or refute findings that diversity classes focus on diversity and multiculturalism as concepts rather than how to teach multicultural and diverse students (O'Neal, Ringler, & Rodriguez, 2008) or that diversity classes tend to focus on race and/or ability not poverty (Hughes, 2010), this study can demonstrate how detrimental lack of awareness of the role of diversity is to classrooms. Participants' continual focus on perceived student misbehavior and their frustration in trying to manage these behaviors took precedent over reading instruction as they understood it in their classrooms, when self-reflection should be a first step. As Ellis (2007) found, teachers must bring their own cultural identity into account because it "provides the grounds for the cultural identity of the system –of the Practice and the Agents…Thus the process of knowledge creation is connected to the development of a particular form of prospective identity" (p. 457). Participants in this study did not appear to have much experience with reflection in general, and even less with self-reflection and implicit bias.

The participants in this study struggled to verbalize the culture of their TEPs, even though TEPs are a tremendous influencer of teachers' personal practice (Levin & He, 2008), with practice being associated with cultural ideals. Participants eventually described the cultures of their TEPs as being supportive, comprised of people who took teaching seriously, with one participant noting student behavior was already a topic of discussion. Participants adopted instructional practices from their CTs, and it appears they adopted understandings of student

behavior from their CTs as well. This confirms what Kozulin, Gindis, Agevey, and Miller (2003) found concerning the goals of learning, one of which is the transmission of culture from generation to generation. This goal, however, neglects diversity among all lines, including socioeconomics, and in the case of schools with majority White populations, the dominant White teaching force appears to have tacit approval to believe that their students have the same beliefs and values that they do. Schools, regardless of the population they serve, "accept and promote the same standards regarding cultural repertoires" and these standards "privileged the cultural practices of middle-class families over those of their working-class and poor counterparts" (Lareau, 2011, p. 28). Lareau (2011) also noted that, "whereas middle-class children often are treated as a project to be developed, working-class and poor children are given boundaries for their behavior and then allowed to grow" (Lareau, 2011, p. 67). The participants in this study seemed to act in similar ways as the teachers with whom Lareau (2011) interacted.

In a study of White pre-service teachers, Fasching-Varner (2012) found that White educators were more resistant to analyze themselves in relation to environment. This study cannot completely confirm that finding, but the participants' struggle to define their culture suggests an underlying belief that their pedagogy and interpretation of right behavior were universal for all students, and if they were not universal, students should conform to them. Participants had not analyzed and reflected on themselves in relation to their different environments because it had not been demanded of them prior to coursework, during coursework, during student teaching, or as they became novice teachers. DiAngelo (2018) wrote that:

> Once we understand the power of implicit bias, for example, we know that we must deepen rather than close off further reflection. Although deeper reflection won't free us

> of unconscious inequitable treatment of others, it will get us closer than will outright denial. (p. 81)

It appears that the participants in this study do not yet understand their own implicit biases, and the power those biases hold in their practice.

This lack of understanding of implicit bias is present through the replication of the teaching community from initial education in TEPs to the novice teaching phase to the center of the community where teachers are considered experts. Kumi-Yeboah and James (2012) wrote that it is assumed that TEPs prepare teachers for differences in cultures, but Imig and Imig (2006) stated that teaching is made more difficult because TEPs lack focus on teaching diverse populations. hooks (2014) wrote that class shapes “values, attitudes, social relations, and the biases that informed the way knowledge would be given and received” (p. 178). Within the participants’ schools, socioeconomic class is a major presence, and hooks’ explanation of socioeconomic class’ impact describes a culture. The participants are not from the same socioeconomic class as their students and when there is dissonance in culture, transfer of knowledge in inhibited (NRC, 2010; Ventura, Pattamodilok, Fernandes, Klein, Morais, & Kolinsky, 2008). However, Lareau (2011) determined that institutions “create important advantages for some groups and not others” (p. 286). In line with Lareau, Heath (1983) described schools as:

> not a neutral objective arena; it is an institution which has the goal of changing people’s values, skills, and knowledge bases. Yet some portions of the population, such as the townspeople, bring with them to school linguistic and cultural capital accumulated through hundreds of thousands of occasions for practicing the skills and espousing the values the schools transmit. (p. 367)

These advantages could be consciously conferred, as Heath (1983) found that the townspeople in her study "wanted to transmit their own values to the mill people, removing their "country" attitudes, unacceptable speech habits, and slovenly ways" (p. 22). Though, Heath (1983) also reported that at the onset of compulsory education in the state at the center of her study, teachers were tasked with teaching "everything from manners to morals" (Heath, 1983, p. 23). The replication of this system combined with a lack of self-reflection and examination of implicit bias could render the function and expectations of schools unconsciously done at this point.

Specifically regarding literacy, Heath (1983) noted that the literacies families living in poverty utilized were generally attached to an action and centered on oral language, usually letters and notes. The "forms, occasions, content, and functions" of their literacies varied among race, and varied from the more middle-class townspeople (Heath, 1983, p. 231). There may not be as many letters written today, but families living in poverty still use and access plenty of reading in a day—it just may not be as much novel or informational text reading as families living in the middle-class. The participants in this study were not prepared to teach diverse populations. While the science behind reading development is fairly universal, pedagogical practice is not. Participants, with a focus on pedagogical strategies in their TEPs, did not come to the novice teaching phase with pedagogies that honored and incorporated the various literacies of diverse cultures. They came with pedagogies and understandings of the function of school that provided advantages to students living in the middle-class. These understandings were first presented in the TEP coursework, with support and revisions made from members of the teaching community during the participants' student teaching experiences. When participants became novice teachers, they replicated the norms they experienced, and likely these norms were comfortable for the participants as they mirrored the participants' socialization.

Participants quickly noted that they are not like the students they teach, which aligns with the research on teacher demographics (Huisman, Singer, & Catapano 2010). Teachers are majority White, majority female, and majority middle class (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). All participants in this study fit that profile. The students they teach, while the majority are racially similar to them, are vastly different from them socioeconomically. In their study, Burton, Brown, & Johnson (2013) found that teachers in rural schools did not complete their TEP in rural settings, had little understanding of culture within rural settings, and perceived students to have “limited life experiences” and limited motivation (p. 5). Those findings were true in this study, with most participants not student teaching in rural districts. Additionally, participants commented on the perceived deficit in motivation and life experiences of their students. Participants had negative views on students’ value of education, blaming families for not reinforcing the value of education, while assuming that the value was absent. Lareau (2011) wrote that, “Working-class and poor parents are no less eager than middle-class parents to see their children succeed in school” (p. 198). Further, Lareau (2011) added:

> They tend to be much more respectful of educators’ professional expertise than are their middle-class counterparts. Thus, working-class and poor parents typically are deferential rather than demanding toward school personnel; they seek guidance from educators rather than giving advice to them; and they try to maintain a separation between school and home rather than foster an interconnectedness. (p. 198)

In an earlier, separate study of language, socioeconomics, and race conducted by Shirley Brice Heath (1983), Heath concluded that the “townspeople”, the middle-class of the area, “began to characterize mill people as uninterested in schooling” (p. 22). Whether it is a cultural judgment as a teacher, as a member of the middle-class, or as an intersection of the two, the participants

seem to have replicated the bias that education is undervalued in families living in poverty. To this point, several participants positioned themselves as a form of a savior, labeling themselves as their students' positive role model, negating the backgrounds of their students in the process.

Generally, as hooks (2014) explained, all students are expected to obey the teacher's authority, and loud talking and interruptions were "threatening" to students with upper and mid-class backgrounds, while to working class the behavior is related to "intense responses stemming from the situation" (p. 187). From her study of socioeconomics and race, Lareau (2011) found that schools serving students from working-class and families living in poverty found "their students' life problems" to be "academically disruptive" (p. 19). Participants frequently complained about lack of obedience and students' disruptive behaviors, neglecting to analyze the situation itself, their positionality, and that of their students. The participants lack self-actualization, as outlined by hooks (2014), unaware of their own biases and how they reproduced power dynamics in their classrooms. They were not implementing a pedagogy that valued their students' individual voices or honored that there are "different ways of knowing" (hooks, 2014, p. 41). Neither are they teaching "from a place of love and sharp criticism of the United States of America" (Love, 2019, p. 103), a country that perpetuates systems that reinforce stark socioeconomic classes.

When discussing transferring reading knowledge into their classrooms, all participants veered the conversation to student behavior. All participants used "behavior" to indicate behaviors they perceived as negative or inappropriate, demonstrating commonality in language indicative of a shared culture. Using the word "behavior" to refer to behaviors the participants deem inappropriate is something that is learned and reproduced in the teaching community, a means of reflecting the group (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Howard (2006) wrote that humans are

"predisposed to categorize and negatively discriminate against perceived out-groups, even when the basis for the differentiation is trivial and meaningless" (p. 33). In the experiences expressed by the participants, they labeled "behavior" students as different from others, thereby relegating them to an out-group, but it is done in a coded way as a means of expressing an aversive prejudice (DiAngelo, 2018).

In response to these "behaviors", schools like Megan's instituted character education, which Love (2019) voiced as making student behavior mirror the cultural values of dominant culture of the school, minimizing the lived experiences and realities of the students who are not members of the dominant culture. Implementation of character education demonstrates a lack of self-awareness and reflection. Furthermore, Phillippo, Brown, and Bosser (2018) wrote that PSTs are told by their CTs that they need to form relationships with their students, but this behavior is not always modeled and the value of it is unexplained to PSTs. The participants in this study grounded many of their practices in those of their former CTs. While this study cannot confirm that knowledge of CTs explicitly and it cannot confirm the amount of self-reflection in which CTs were engaged, it is possible that CTs did not understand the value of the relationships themselves and simply replicated what they themselves saw because that was tradition; it was the replication of the teaching community.

Implications

The following section outlines implications for TEPs, school districts, and future research based on this study. While this qualitative study is not generalizable, it offers insights that could be transferrable and help shape the way TEPs and school districts prepare and support novice teachers in reading instruction.

TEPs

TEPs are tasked with helping prepare pre-service teachers (PSTs) for the novice teaching phase. There are multiple implications for the practice of TEPs as a result of this study. These implications include shifting to a critical educator model, the role of professors, content of reading courses, and structure of student teaching. Each will be discussed further below.

Critical Teacher Education. The participants in this study unknowingly struggled with their self-awareness. While they expressed that they loved their students, they also expressed opinions and talked about their students that revealed their own implicit bias against families from lower socioeconomic realities than their own. They upheld the traditional, unspoken political structure of the school, believing part of their role to "tame and control" students (Kincheloe, 2008, p. 8). This harm, while unintentional, is very much real. If TEPs and educators alike want to proclaim that education is the great equalizer, then the approach to teacher preparation needs to change to begin a change in the approach to school.

Kincheloe (2008) argued that "Teacher education students and practicing teachers need to gain a more complex conceptual understanding of the multiple contexts in which education takes places and the plethora of forces shaping the process" (p. 111). When considering how to best prepare PSTs, TEPs need to address the different ways we come to knowledge. One of these ways is normative, or relating to morals and ethics, which relates to "vision, power relations, and cultural/historical contexts" (Kincheloe, 2008, p. 114). Knowledge is also empirical, resulting from research which takes the "situatedness of the researcher and the researched" into account (Kincheloe, 2008, p. 114). Kincheloe (2008) also asserted that knowledge is political (with focus on power and how it presents itself), ontological (the way in which the teacher views herself), experiential (about practice in the classroom) and reflective-synthetic ("bringing all forms of

knowledge of teaching together so they can be employed in the critical pedagogical act") (p. 116). Looking at knowledge in this way acknowledges the complexity in knowledge itself and creates a space where "the assumptions teacher candidates bring to the classroom about teaching are challenged, analyzed, and debated" (p. 112). While this work may be uncomfortable for PSTs, the discomfort is necessary if they are to enter teaching prepared to think critically and even begin to help all students truly succeed.

Internal Review of Implicit Bias. Before TEPs can begin to prepare PSTs to be critical educators, they must analyze their own biases. Everyone has implicit bias, and it seems implicit bias in the teaching community has been continually replicated for generations, indicating that TEPs have not reflected on their own practice. The participants in this study came from four different TEPs in the same state, and all seemed to possess a level of unexamined implicit bias towards groups of their students. If teachers are to provide equitable education to all students, unexamined implicit bias is particularly dangerous. TEPs should critically analyze their curricula for aspects that may replicate beliefs and practices that are actually exclusionary and do not honor student cultures. This may mean that professors within the TEP need to engage in implicit bias work if they have not already, for they are the gatekeepers of knowledge important to the teaching community.

Diversity Courses. The inclusion and intentionality of diversity courses should be considered by TEPs as well. In this study, a diversity course was only mentioned by one participant. Diversity courses should be the norm in TEPs, with content reflecting all forms of diversity. TEPs should ask themselves if they are teaching what diversity *is* or *how* to teach diverse students? Many TEPs focus on defining multiculturalism, but do not go into exploring different reading practices and structures of different cultures. Beyond reading, these courses

need to help PSTs begin to realize their positionality to different cultures, working on recognizing, analyzing, and counteracting their own implicit biases. This work holds important implications for how PSTs later interact with children with different backgrounds than their own as they participate in observation hours, student teaching, and eventually become novice teachers.

Approaching diversity as more than just a concept will help address culture as a mechanism for knowledge transfer as well. By keeping their own culture and implicit biases in mind as they approach instruction, teachers will begin to teach from a place of self-actualization as proposed by hooks (2014), and they will be more apt to notice the replication of power dynamics that do not always benefit their students; they can begin to empower their students' voices.

Role of Professors. Professors can inspire passion for reading instruction and they can decrease PST motivation to the point that PSTs "tune out". TEPs need professors to consider and reflect on their demeanors, as well as the way they conduct their classes. For example, the participants in this study responded more favorably and recalled content better from professors whom they perceived to be knowledgeable but approachable, who made them feel like they were professionals. These professors started to push the newcomers (PSTs) towards being apprentices in Situated Learning Theory, while professors the participants perceived as being solely focused on their own research or treated them like "little kids" unknowingly kept the newcomers on the outskirts of the teaching community.

The perception of professors powerfully plays into motivation as a mechanism for knowledge transfer. When PSTs view their professors negatively, they "tune out" the important conceptual knowledge, demonstrating only surface level understandings in order to pass the

course, rendering them unable to develop deep feature understandings to facilitate full transfer, thereby connecting motivation and prior knowledge as interdependent.

PSTs receiving their initial preparation in their undergraduate programs generally start when they are 18 years old, while PSTs in MAT programs are generally 22 years of age or older. To what extent PSTs should take responsibility for their learning even when enrolled in a course with a professor by whom they are unmotivated was not addressed in this study. This study found participants' motivation to be impacted to some degree by the demeanors of some of their professors, indicating it is an issue which needs consideration within the programs.

Content. TEPs are charged with preparing PSTs for novice teaching, and in many ways, that is what they do—they impart enough knowledge of reading to start teaching. Yet, PSTs seem to graduate TEPs with the expectation that they will possess expert-level knowledge. Therefore, TEPs need to dispel this myth and reiterate that continuous learning is crucial to membership in the teaching community. While adjusting this expectation, TEPs need to address the amount of reading content and how it is delivered. In a presumed effort to meet accreditation standards, some reading courses discussed by participants were crammed with so much information, the participants could only learn surface level features of a concept, rather than the deep features that would facilitate transfer into their classrooms. In other instances, courses were focused on content of particular interest to the professor, leaving important concepts minorly covered, if at all. Determining which content is essential for novice teachers to know to get started in the profession is key, and this content is likely already reflected in accreditation standards. Professors need to communicate content in ways that form explicit connections between concepts for PSTs. These connections will help develop a stronger base of prior

knowledge from which continued work in graduate programs or with districts can build, making this transfer mechanism far more effective than the participants' revealed it to be in this study.

Need for Reflection. Studies have shown the importance of explicit guidance in reflection for PSTs, however this reflection occurs inconsistently, and it is almost always centered on instructional practice. Local TEPs in this study produced teachers who did not seem to place a high value on reflection; only one participant discussed reflecting on instruction. TEPs should consider incorporating explicit reflection, but it cannot only focus on instruction and a positivist binary of correctness. Instead, this reflection needs to not only connect theory learned in coursework to practice within the field or student teaching, it needs to encourage PSTs to reflect through a lens that incorporates their "worldviews within social, cultural, historical, economic, and philosophical frameworks" (Kincheloe, 2008, p. 122). This work will also help address how PSTs come to be self-actualized (hooks, 2014). It is problematic that participants did not highlight diversity, and struggled to name their own culture, but could highlight their students' diversity in largely negative terms. Diversity courses that focus on the concept of diversity rather than addressing implicit bias are problematic. If teachers are to meet the needs of all their students and education is to serve as a means of helping break the cycle of poverty, TEPs need to address PSTs' understanding of culture and help them to incorporate reflection of their own positionality into their daily practice.

Pedagogy. Local TEPs appear to place emphasis on strategies within coursework. While this practice aligns with research, participants struggled to transfer these strategies into their classrooms. TEPs need to ensure that they are teaching PSTs pedagogical content knowledge that is responsive to all students. Adopting critical pedagogies is a first step. While the incorporation of instructional strategies in conjunction with field work places this knowledge in

context, participants did not seem to learn the “why” behind strategy implementation and they did not learn how to incorporate strategies in a way that honored all students. TEPs need to make solid connections between reading content knowledge and reading pedagogical content knowledge so PSTs are better equipped to know which strategy to use, why they should use a strategy, and how the strategy addresses a specific reading skill. In the advent of increased instructional coaching that serves to enhance pedagogical content knowledge, a knowledge type that studies showed continue to improve as teachers gain experience, focus by TEPs on reading content knowledge will help build PSTs’ prior knowledge to better connect to work done at the school level with instructional coaches and at the district level as well.

Structure of Student Teaching. Lastly, TEPs should consider addressing the structure of student teaching. The student teaching experiences shared in this study were not as effective as they could have been. While all participants were certified to be general classroom teachers, some participants were put into student teaching placements where they only saw one content area; instead of seeing all subjects (including reading) at two different grade levels. Though the state offers requirements for field work in general, it does not require TEPs to place PSTs in student teaching placements that will likely reflect the populations of their first teaching jobs. TEPs are responsible for ensuring 200 hours of observations *prior* to student teaching with a minimum of two different ethnic and/or cultural groups different from the PST’s own, across different socioeconomic levels, with experience with English learners (ELs) and students with disabilities, and across grade levels (EPSB, 2020). While these experiences in field observations are important, the level of engagement on the part of the PST in field work is considerably less than in student teaching. TEPs should consider placing PSTs in schools similar to those in which

they might first work as novice teachers for student teaching, offering support in helping them process and reflect on this work.

To help with this support, TEPs need to address the quality of cooperating teachers (CTs) and emphasize the need for concrete feedback that includes PSTs reflecting on their effectiveness in the placement using data to aid in their reflection. While CTs are required to take training through the state, TEPs need to take further steps to ensure that expectations for student teaching are explicit for PSTs and CTs, with the goal being for PSTs to be supported pedagogically and emotionally by their CTs while taking on more responsibility for reading instruction.

School District

This study also holds implications for school districts. Implications include addressing diversity, addressing mentors, and the role of graduate work. Each will be discussed in further detail.

Addressing Diversity. Just as TEPs should consider better addressing diversity in their preparation of PSTs, school districts should consider finding meaningful ways of addressing diversity within their districts. These efforts should include emphasis on approaching diversity with an open mind, as well as exploration of implicit bias. This work is important for the way teachers interact with their students and have implications for the professional culture within the district. Since teachers in the district have the potential of acting as CTs and mentors for PSTs and novice teachers, there is the opportunity to replicate a teaching culture that truly values diversity and knows how to teach diverse students in a way that honors their individual backgrounds and cultures. Provided TEPs shift to incorporate critical pedagogies, this work will become an extension of what TEPs do.

Addressing Mentors. Within this study, any experienced teacher served as a mentor for novice teachers. These impromptu mentors offered differing guidance related to multiple tenants of reading instruction from pedagogy to assessment. For novice teachers who entered the profession, this only added to their confusion and lack of confidence. The school district in which these participants worked offered a year-long induction for new teachers which embedded knowledge about reading instruction, but these novice teachers still went back to their buildings where they sought guidance from other, more experienced teachers. It would behoove districts to consider implementing mentorship programs with experienced teachers who are experts in content and pedagogical content knowledge. Also, instructional coaches have been added to many school districts to address gaps in practice. Long-term structured of student support to include assessment, planning, implementation, and reflection will also help reinforce work instructional coaches do with novice teachers. Within this study, there were inconsistencies in the approaches participants shared regarding their instructional coaches.

Whether working with a mentor teaching or an instructional coach, the district still has a vested interest in ensuring mentors and coaches are not perpetuating a teaching culture that does not always effectively teach diverse students. The interviews with participants in this study occurred in February and March, while most were two or three years into the novice teaching phase. By the time of the interviews, views about instruction and students had been reaffirmed or disproved as participants transitioned from their TEP further into the teaching community. If all students are to become proficient readers, instructional approaches need to be critically analyzed for inclusivity.

The Role of Graduate Work. While the state in which the district of focus ended the requirement of a completed master's degree within ten years of starting teaching (Associated

Press, 2018), novice teachers need to engage in continuous learning to help them better understanding reading content and reading pedagogy within the contexts of their own classrooms. While teaching in the context of student teaching is important to the development of PSTs, PSTs do not bear the entire responsibility for the students. To marry transfer mechanisms to bolster the understanding and performances of novice teachers, districts need to find ways to encourage teachers in their district to continue engaging in graduate work and/or develop professional development opportunities, possibly through partnerships with local universities. These professional development opportunities should engage teachers in work already happening in their rooms, and they need to be sustained throughout the year. The traditional professional development structure of sitting in a single session and theoretically learning a strategy to take back to classrooms will neglect the mechanism participants perceived as the most beneficial: context. Participants who were engaged in graduate work through the partnership between their district and a nearby university found the content more meaningful, but these classes were a semester in duration and required participants to marry reading content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge, place them into their own classrooms, and then reflect on the results. In these instances, novice teachers would have some amount of prior knowledge, motivation, and context to assist in effective transfer. Provided the district is also addressing diversity and implicit bias (as well as the TEP from which the novice teacher graduated), culture is also engaged as a mechanism for effective knowledge transfer. Engaging novice teachers in further reading content knowledge development after they leave their undergraduate programs will also address the issue found in the research of content knowledge remaining static after entry into the teaching community, moving novice teachers closer to being experts in the teaching community.

Research

Education is a complex system, and TEPs and school districts cannot fix all issues by themselves. Further research should be done to help support and facilitate improvements in TEPs and school districts. Below are two implications for future research based in the findings from this study.

"Near Peers". This study utilized Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) as part of the conceptual framework to specifically interpret the way PSTs move into the teaching profession. Near peers were described as important in the knowledge creation process for newcomers, and in this study, near peers were assumed to be the literal peers of the participants within their TEPs. Further research is needed to determine which roles different members of the community play in the socialization of PSTs. For instance, the role of the CT requires clarification. Are CTs experts or are they near peers in the community because of proximity? Are near peers defined by their age or their number of years of experience? Another role which needs clarification is that of the professors within the TEP. In this study, they were first considered to be experts in the field, with the label changed to "gatekeeper" after reflecting on participant interviews. Do participants view professors as aside from the teaching community because of their lack of participation in the elementary teaching context?

Importance of Transfer Mechanisms. Participants in this study emphasized the importance of context in their understanding of instruction. However, they responded in such a way when their prior knowledge was impacted by poor teaching practices, motivational factors, and lack of cultural awareness. It is evident from this study that one mechanism is not enough to help novice teachers become entirely effective. Further research should be done into the interaction of these four mechanisms for knowledge transfer to explore how they impact one

another. The literature on culture as a mechanism for knowledge transfer specifically related to content knowledge and cultural norms. While this study reflected the frustration participants felt regarding behavior norms that were not their own, pedagogy was not reflected. Research into how culture impacts the relationship between reading content knowledge and reading pedagogical knowledge would be beneficial.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to learn about the experiences of novice teachers as they transferred knowledge from their TEPs into their own classrooms, as well as their perceptions of mechanisms for knowledge transfer. Attempting to transfer knowledge was a frustrating experience for the participants as they were met with courses that did not facilitate their knowledge development, members of the teaching culture who were not supportive, gaps in their understanding of reading, and a disconnect between their own cultures and those of their students. Context emerged as the mechanism for knowledge transfer that was perceived most beneficial to participants. This perception is not entirely surprising considering their coursework, which would serve as the prior knowledge mechanism, was perceived as confusing and overwhelming in its delivery, participants' motivation was mixed, and they were seemingly unaware of their own implicit biases.

The value of reading knowledge and its delivery is determined by experts (often more experienced teachers) and these practices are replicated by novice teachers as they begin moving towards the center of the community, making room on the periphery. TEPs are, in many ways, the gatekeepers to this culture and community. TEPs determine the field placements, including student teaching, that eventual novice teachers will have; they have the power in some ways to

determine which members of the teaching community their PSTs will encounter, thus influencing which experts—and which practices—the PSTs will eventually adopt.

While this culture has already been replicated hundreds upon hundreds of times, it has not dramatically improved the reading ability of the most vulnerable students. School districts are often tacitly tasked with addressing societal problems they do not have the capacity to adequately address. They have a duty to address teacher culture already in their buildings, but TEPs have the responsibility for setting the cultural values of teachers moving forward. If those in education are serious about increasing the reading proficiency of students among society's vulnerable populations, based on the results of this study, school districts need to engage in critical work examining implicit bias and reading content knowledge, for the teachers in those buildings will be the future cooperating teachers and mentors of novice teachers. Likewise, to develop teachers with the capabilities to foster reading proficiency in all young readers, TEPs need to engage in critical work, addressing what reading knowledge they impart and how they communicate it, as well as how they teach and engage PSTs with diversity, with this work requiring that TEPs turn the mirror inward. Schools districts and TEPs are entwined in creating the professional culture of teachers. Based on the results of this study, both need to reflect and change in order for education to be the "great equalizer" it is touted to be.

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Appendix A

Reading Knowledge Transfer from Preservice Teaching to the Novice Teaching Phase: A Phenomenology

Subject Informed Consent

Introduction and Background Information

You are invited to participate in a research study. The study is being conducted by Dr. Winn Wheeler and co-investigator, Natalie Sajko. This study is being conducted by the Annsley Frazier Thornton School of Education at Bellarmine University. This is a multi-part study including participation in an individual interview, participation in an online or in-person focus group (depending on the parameters of the hosting district), and the sharing of lesson plan the participant already made for use in instruction. The study will take place at a site convenient to the participant (individual interview) and online (online focus group). Approximately 10-15 subjects will be invited to participate. Your total participation in this study will last for approximately one hour.

Purpose

The purpose of this research study is to describe the experience of reading knowledge transfer from preservice teaching (teacher preparation coursework and student teaching) to the first three years of teaching, known as the novice phase, specifically which mechanisms of knowledge transfer were used by teachers, and which potentially could have been leveraged to a greater extent. The information provided in this study will help refine our understandings of how teachers perceive knowledge transfer in the hopes of providing insight into possible improvements at teacher education programs.

Procedures

In this study, you will be invited to participate in an individual interview in which you will discuss your experience transferring knowledge about reading from your teacher education program (TEP) to your own classroom. You will only be invited to participate in one individual interview, and you will be provided your interview transcript to ensure accuracy of your statements. The interview will be recorded and initially transcribed using Otter Voice Notes, with the researcher comparing the initial transcription and audio recording to correct potential errors. The individual interview is projected to last approximately 30 minutes. You will also be invited to participate in an online or in-person focus group (depending on the district's parameters) in which you and other participants will further discuss and clarify your experiences with reading knowledge transfer. The online focus group will take place using the Group Me platform, which is accessible through the app or website. Participants will be asked to create their account using a pseudonym, recognizing that if they do not, a pseudonym will ultimately be used in the completed study. All responses in the online focus group will be typed, with the written record used for analysis. If an in-person focus is utilized, audio recording will be taken

using Otter Voice Notes. This will also only be done once, and is projected to last approximately 30 minutes. Both the individual interview and focus group will be semi-structured, using the same protocol while allowing for clarifying questions. If there are any questions you are uncomfortable answering, you can decline. Finally, you will be asked to provide an already made reading lesson plan for analysis. As mentioned previously, pseudonyms will be used in the final written dissertation, with no identifying information used that made compromise participant confidentiality. Audio recordings and transcriptions will be housed on a password protected computer; the Otter Voice Notes and Group Me accounts are also password protected. The audio recordings, and transcriptions will be deleted from the accounts at the conclusion of the study, and lesson plans and coded transcripts will be destroyed in the same time frame.

Potential Risks

There are minimal risks associated with individual interviews, online focus groups, and lesson plan analysis. While pseudonyms will be used and identifying information will be omitted, it is important to note that complete confidentiality is not guaranteed within focus groups; while the researcher will not divulge identifying information, it cannot be guaranteed that other participants will not. The subject matter of the study (reading knowledge transfer) is generally not controversial or triggering.

Benefits

The possible benefits of this study include adding to the research base on knowledge transfer in TEPs, giving greater insight into potential gaps in facilitating reading knowledge transfer in TEPs, as well as directly addressing gaps currently present in the district. The data collected in this study may not benefit you directly. However, the information learned from this research may be helpful to others in the future.

Confidentiality

As mentioned, although absolute confidentiality cannot be guaranteed, confidentiality will be protected to the extent permitted by law. The study sponsor or the Institutional Review Board may inspect your research records. Should the data collected in this research study be published, your identity will not be revealed.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw your consent at any time without penalty or losing benefit to which you are otherwise entitled. You can withdrawal by contacting Dr. Winn Wheeler, the principal investigator.

Your Rights as a Research Subject and Contact Persons

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the Institutional Review Board Office at 502.272.8032. You will be given the opportunity to discuss any questions, in confidence, with a member of the Board. This is an independent committee

composed of members of the University community and lay members of the community not connected with this institution. The Board has reviewed this study.

You acknowledge that all your present questions have been answered in language you can understand. If you have any questions about the study, please contact Dr. Winn Wheeler at 502.272.8049

Consent

You have discussed the above information and hereby consent to voluntarily participate in this study. You have been given a signed copy of this consent form.

___________________________________ ______________________
Signature of Subject or Legal Representative Date Signed

_____________________________________ ______________________
Signature of Investigator Date Signed

______________________________________ _____________________

Signature of Person Explaining Consent if other than Investigator Date Signed

Appendix B

Letter to Inform Principals

December 19th, 2019

Dear Principals,

My name is Natalie Sajko, and I am a doctoral student at Bellarmine University. I am presently working on my dissertation entitled "Reading Teacher Knowledge Transfer from Preservice Teaching to the Novice Teaching Phase: A Phenomenology", which is being chaired and supervised by Dr. Winn Wheeler of Bellarmine University's Annsley Frazier Thornton School of Education; Drs. Mary Ann Cahill, Rosie Young, and Will Wells serve on my committee. In this work, I am endeavoring to learn more about teacher's perceptions of how they transferred knowledge of reading from their teacher education programs to their own classrooms.

This study centers on teachers within their first three years teaching in the elementary level who completed traditional teacher education programs. If some of your teachers elect to participate, they will be asked to complete one individual interview, one group interview, and submit one reading lesson plan they have already implemented. During these interviews, teachers will be asked about their experiences bringing knowledge of reading instruction into their own classrooms from their initial teacher education programs. Participation in the Bellarmine Literacy Project will not negatively impact participation in the study; teachers will be asked to reflect on their experience immediately out of their program. I will meet with teachers at a convenient place to them to conduct individual interviews, and the group interview will either be in-person or remotely using the GroupMe app based on the overall preference of the participants. These interviews will be audio recorded for transcription purposes, and the transcripts will be sent to the teachers to review to ensure they reflect what they meant. Total time expectation for participation in this study is estimated to be an hour between the two interviews.

Potential participants will all receive informed consent documents to help them understand the scope, the expectations, and their rights within the study. Teachers can elect to leave the study at any time without any repercussion. Their identities will remain anonymous in the study, and all potentially identifying information from the study will be omitted to protect confidentiality. Upon completion of the study, all recordings and transcripts will be destroyed to further protect participants.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding the study, you may contact me by email (nsmith07@bellarmine.edu) or phone (502.762.4739) or my chair, Dr. Winn Wheeler, by email (wwheeler@bellarmine.edu) or phone (502.272.8049). I look forward to partnering with Bullitt County to expand our understanding of how elementary teachers bring knowledge from their programs.

Best,

Natalie Sajko

Appendix C

Individual Interview Protocol

Introduction

Greeting: Hello, my name is Natalie Sajko. Thank you for agreeing to talk with me today about your experience bringing knowledge of reading from your teacher educator program to your own classroom. I would like to take a minute to remind you that this interview will be used to collect data for my dissertation, which will end up being published through Bellarmine. You will not be personally identified in the writing. With this research, I am hoping to come up with a description of what it is like transferring reading knowledge to the elementary classroom, identifying what helps knowledge transfer and what inhibits it, transfer meaning the bringing of knowledge into practice. While I will be asking for some personal information just as basic demographics, this information is only used for context of analysis—your name will be unattached. I will only be asking questions about your own experience and your perceptions, so there is no right or wrong answer. If you are uncomfortable with a question, let me know and we will adjust as necessary. You may also stop the interview at any time if you do not wish to proceed. Do you have any questions before we begin? [pause] Do I have permission to begin recording?

Research Question 1: How do elementary novice teachers perceive reading knowledge transfer from aspects of their program (coursework and student teaching) to their own classrooms?

Research Question 2: How do elementary novice teachers perceive the role of different mechanisms of knowledge transfer in their lived experience?

*Clarifying/elaborating questions will include things like "Tell me more about ____" or "You said ______. What did you mean by that?" These will occur only as necessary based on participant responses.

Could you state your current age?

Could you state your gender?

Could you state your race and/or ethnicity?

How would you describe how your coursework was taught in your teacher preparation program? (RQ 1)

How would you describe the culture of your TEP? (RQ 2)

Tell me about your experience in your student teaching placement. (RQ 1)

How was it bringing knowledge from your coursework to your student teaching? (RQ 1)

Tell me about your experience with your first teaching job. (RQ 1)

What did you bring with your from your coursework and student teaching into your own classroom? (RQ 1)

How would you describe your comfort level with reading instruction after completing your teacher education preparation? (RQ 1)

How would you describe the role of prior knowledge in the transfer of your learning about reading instruction? (RQ 2)

How would you describe the role of motivation in how you transferred your learning about reading instruction? (RQ 2)

How do you think context impacted how you transferred what you learned about reading instruction? (RQ 2)

How would you describe the role of culture in how you transferred your knowledge about reading? (RQ 2)?

Appendix D

Focus Group Questions*

During this focus group, we're going to cover content that I interviewed you all about individually. This is an opportunity to clarify or build-off one another. I'll ask a question to start us off, but really I want this conversation to take any organic direction, so long as it centers on teacher preparation or reading instruction (past or current). Do you have any questions before we begin?

Talk a little bit about how you feel about reading instruction—what does well for you? What do you struggle with? Did you feel like you were ready?

Did you feel prepared to pull resources?**

Is there an aspect of reading you felt prepared to assess?**

What helped you bring what you learned from your reading classes to your job?**

Tell me about culture. Did you notice anything between the professional culture of your school and current job that made transfer of practice easier? Anything between your culture and the culture of your kids that made implementation easier?

Is there anything that you would like to add about your experience with reading or your teacher preparation?

*Questions were derived from commonalities across individual interviews on which the researcher wanted further discussion, and clarifying questions were asked as well. Questions without asterisks were planned from individual interviews.

**Qualifying question