

## **Instruction Through the Lens of Socio-Economic Status: Reflections for Teacher Educators**

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### **Abstract**

In six third grade classrooms located in schools that ranged from high to low socio-economic status in an urban area of Texas, teacher educators observed social processes as the school year began. Schools were chosen based on Texas Education School Report Card ratings of "acceptable," and teachers were selected from principal recommendations regarding effective teaching and positive classroom culture. Social processes included ways of discourse and instruction that benefited student learning and classroom culture. Language use included curricular and informal talk, behavior management, philosophical inquiry, shared verbal governance, and specific talk regarding state-mandated tests. Data were collected over six months of observations with follow up interviews with teachers and principals. Descriptive analysis revealed high frequencies of time devoted to teachers asking students questions and expecting answers, generous amounts of time for work on assignments, and talk that provided classroom management process across all socio-economic status categories. Significant differences were found in social interactions that demonstrated humor, information given, sharing of classroom and curriculum governance, inquiry talk, teacher modeling and student-to-student informal talk in the three SES categories.

Low SES classrooms particularly did not show evidence of humor, information given, sharing of classroom and curriculum governance, or inquiry. Even though all six teachers were rated highly effective by their principals, findings from the data raised questions regarding social processes in various SES environments, regarding instructional directionality. Further research may answer the following questions: Do high SES students receive greater amounts of in-depth information, more time for inquiry and choice, because the teacher perceives that such modes of learning are more appropriate to these students, and indirectly, their parents? Do teachers in low SES schools follow curriculum mandates more closely, which may limit time for information, governance, or choice? Finally, are teachers aware of the subtle differences that SES may play in instruction and social processes?

### **Introduction**

How does an effective teacher create a classroom community where thorough instruction in curriculum must occur, yet social processes such as problem-posing, conversing informally, and story telling are allowed to enter the daily routine? Are teachers' instructional strategies similar or different across a range of SES schools as they effectively juggle the social processes that humanize the classroom alongside the necessary work of academic achievement? What can we learn from observing effective teaching in action?

The purpose of our study was to conduct a follow-up inquiry regarding social processes observed in highly effective third grade classrooms across schools that ranged from high to

low socio-economic status. The study built upon the findings of our recent research project defining social processes that occur frequently, or not, in highly effective third grade classrooms (Miranda et al. 2011). In our previous study, we analyzed data from third grade classrooms in "recognized" Title I schools in an urban area of North Texas. We discovered that the effective teachers used high frequencies of talk centered on classroom management, keeping children on task and curricular focus, possibly due to the pressure of high-stakes testing in Texas. We found less evidence of verbal interactions that signaled student inquiry and the practice of problem-posing, story-telling, or teachers sharing control of learning with their students. Because all of our observations occurred in Title I schools, we questioned whether there were differences in social processes among effective classrooms across schools that ranged from low socio-economic status to high socio-economic status. How does effective instruction manifest in classrooms of varying socio-economic status?

In the current study, we focused our attention on six highly effective teachers in third grade classrooms whose schools ranged from low to high socio-economic status. The schools chosen were located in an urban area of North Texas. The socio-economic range of the schools (students were eligible for free and reduced lunch) was 13.2% - 94.3%. Four of the schools qualified for Title I funding, two did not. We asked each principal for permission to observe one of his or her most effective teachers in third grade. Principals based their selection on consistently high scores on the state-mandated tests, on rapport with students and parents, and on their observations of the teacher's instruction and their students' engagement in the classrooms. We then systematically coded our observations of social processes in the classrooms, and noted similarities and differences in the frequency and kinds of talk that we observed. Our data yielded some interesting photographs into the verbal interactions, discussions, and instruction modalities in the six effective classrooms across the range of socio-economic status.

### **Defining Effective Instruction**

What constitutes effective instruction? Effective instruction is both definable and intangible as described in the literature. For example, according to the Center for Teacher Quality, teachers are significantly more effective regarding student achievement if they are fully prepared when they enter teaching, are licensed in the field they teach, have high scores on a certifying examination, have graduated from a more competitive college, have at least two year's experience and are National Board certified (Berry, Daughtrey, and Wieder 2009). However, in a Rand Education report on teacher qualifications (McCaffrey et al. 2009), teacher certification test scores were found unrelated to student success in the classroom, and the same was true for teachers who had advanced degrees (Buddin and Zamarro 2009). Other studies highlight the personal connection to students, the ability to make learning tasks meaningful and engaging, and the expression of high academic expectations of students as the more important attributes for teacher effectiveness (Chester and Beaudin 1996; Guskey and Passaro 1994).

Student perception of effective instruction may be another defining, yet intangible, indicator of effective teaching (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy 2007). Recently, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation funded a research endeavor entitled "Measures of Effective Teaching" (2010). The researchers studied effective teachers, using 13,000 digital video lessons, students' perceptions of each teacher's classroom, value-added data from state-

mandated test scores and an additional testing assessment that supplemented the scores on the state test. From this wealth of information, the Foundation established five measures that indicated effective teaching: 1) Student achievement gains on assessments, 2) Classroom observations and teacher reflections, 3) Teachers' pedagogical content knowledge; 4) Student perceptions of the classroom instructional environment; and 5) Teachers' perceptions of working conditions and instructional support at their schools (p. 6-8). Particularly, the student ratings measure utilized a "7 Constructs" survey, which measured how students perceived their teacher's performance in the classroom with the following constructs: Care, Control, Clarify, Challenge, Captivate, Confer and Consolidate (2010). For the Foundation, high student ratings of teachers on the seven constructs were considered strong evidence for effective teaching. Similarly, Walker (2008) cited fifteen years of data that gathered student feedback on effective teachers. Students reported that an effective instructor was prepared, had a positive attitude, showed high expectations and creativity, was fair and personable, cultivated a sense of belonging in the course, was compassionate, showed a sense of humor, respected students, was forgiving, and admitted mistakes (Walker 2008).

Other measurements used to define effective instruction are principals' formal evaluations, analyses of classroom artifacts such as ratings of teacher assignments and student work, portfolios, teacher self-reports of his or her practice, interviews, and informal observations (Goe and Croft 2009). Recently, the value-added model has gained popularity for use by administrators in school districts. This is a statistical measure defined as the "use of multiple years of students' test score data to estimate the effects of individual schools or teachers [on student achievement]" (McCaffrey et al. 2003, xi). Despite the promise of statistically pinpointing the most effective teachers in a school or district, researchers have found that teachers vary in their contribution to a student's achievement, and it is difficult to determine exactly how much one teacher or another contributes to a student's academic growth over time (Goe, Bell, and Little 2008).

The most common tool for establishing instruction effectiveness continues to be the principal's observation. However, such observations may not provide a valid measure of student learning. Jacob and Lefgren (2006) found that "principals are quite good at identifying those teachers who produce the largest and smallest standardized achievement gains in their schools. They are less able to distinguish among teachers in the middle of this distribution" (p. 60). A formal or informal observation may become a better indicator of effectiveness, provided it is a high quality instrument, observers are trained, and multiple observations are conducted by several observers--all of which adds to the higher cost of determining quality instruction via observation (Goe and Croft 2009).

Finally, the prevalence of state-mandated tests provides an imperative to teachers, which is to instruct for student achievement on state tests. For many principals and top-level administrators, effective teachers are those whose students pass the state-mandated tests (Haney 2004; Nichols, Glass, and Berliner 2006). Several studies indicate that the pressure of students making passing scores on such tests has changed instruction to over-use of direct instruction, test-taking instruction, test question analysis, benchmarks and frequent curriculum based assessments, none of which receive high marks for high quality instructional practice (Kistner et al. 2010; Kitchen 2004).

### **Funding, Accountability and Effective Instruction**

Differences may be found regarding effective instruction and social processes in schools that serve large percentages of economically disadvantaged students. Unfortunately, recent research studies into schools with low socio-economic status (SES) indicate low expectations from teachers, lack of focused instruction and lack of student engagement as common observances (Kelly and Turner 2009; Lewis and Kim 2008; Lynn et al. 2010).

Much has been done via government intervention to provide low SES schools with funding to overcome the deficits of low economic status. Federal funding through Title 1 originated in 1965 with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The ESEA has been amended and reauthorized seven times since its passage into law (Howard University 2012; Whilden 2010). However, federal funds come with high expectations--reaching higher accountability measures is expected (Rouse and Barrow 2006).

Today, the U.S. federal government provides approximately 11% of the funding for public education, yet it exercises substantial influence over public education (U.S. Department of Education 2012b; Standerfer 2006). In 1994, against the backdrop of President Clinton's Goals 2000, Title 1 funding formulas were amended to provide additional flexibility in some areas with increased accountability in others. However, in order to continue to receive Title 1 funds, each state was required to establish standards and related assessments applicable to all students (Riddle 1994). When ESEA was reauthorized in 2001, President George W. Bush used the reauthorization to further expand the scope and influence of ESEA under a new nomenclature, No Child Left Behind (NCLB 2002).

The purpose of NCLB was "to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic standards and state academic assessments" (20 U.S.C. § 6301). NCLB required that all students in each sub-population, a) economically disadvantaged students, b) students with disabilities, c) student with limited English proficiency, d) major racial and ethnic groups, and e) both genders, achieve a proficiency rating by 2013-2014 (Wenning et al. 2003). Strict accountability measures accompanied the testing requirements. Failure to make adequate yearly progress (AYP) toward the proficiency standards in every testing category resulted in the imposition of a series of punitive measures culminating in the reconstitution of school staff and the restructuring the school's governance arrangement. This accountability structure produced several unintended and undesirable collateral consequences such as increased drop-out rates, a narrowing of the curriculum, and the standardization of individualized education plans for students with disabilities (Dryden 2007). As the 2013-14 deadline approaches, it has become clear that many schools, districts and states will not meet the proficiency mandates.

In 2011, the U. S. Department of Education substantially modified NCLB, by providing states the opportunity to apply for flexibility. Under the new ESEA regulations, the 2013-14 deadline has been modified and extended for a minimum of 6 years, AYP criteria will be replaced with Annual Measureable Objectives (AMOs), punitive sanctions will be eliminated and flexibility will be provided in the way Title 1 money is spent. States will be allowed to use growth measures for accountability purposes, and modify the manner in which teachers are evaluated. To enjoy this flexibility, states must incorporate college and career-ready standards, continue to assess and report on college-going rates for all student

subgroups, and use differentiated measures of recognition and accountability. As of the spring of 2012, 36 states had applied for flexibility (U.S. Department of Education 2012a). Time will tell if such modifications provide some “breathing room” for low performing schools.

Ironically, evidence regarding the effectiveness of Title 1 funding on student achievement is mixed. Several reports conducted in the 1990s showed that learning gaps between disadvantaged students and their more affluent counterparts were reduced, but the gains tended to be short term in nature (Rotberg and Harvey 1993). Results were achieved through the mastery of basic skills practiced through more of a direct instructional approach rather than a rigorous curriculum with opportunities for inquiry and indirect instructional practices (U.S. Dept of Education 1994). In 2008, the National Assessment of Title 1 Final Report found that the achievement gap between white, black and Hispanic students decreased between 1971 and 2004, according to average scale scores on the National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP). Yet, when the NAEP trend data between 1990 and 2005 was analyzed according to poverty levels and not race, the achievement gap between students attending high poverty versus low poverty schools increased (Stullich, Eisner, and McCreary 2007).

It would appear that strict accountability measures, particularly for low SES schools who need funds, have narrowed the definition of effective instruction to that which helps students pass mandated tests, and even then, scores on assessments and state tests are not reaching the desired level.

### **Another View of Effectiveness**

We would argue that a teacher’s effectiveness in instruction consists of practice that leads to his or her students passing state-mandated tests, yet the cultivation of social processes in a classroom community is equally important, because such processes help to develop reflective future citizens (Foote and Cook-Cottone 2004; Tucker et al. 2005). In addition, social processes contribute to higher order thinking and lead to academic growth and development over time (Skilton-Sylvester 2011; Tucker et al. 2005), which may or may not be evidenced in yearly mandated test results.

Acknowledging that the classroom’s social processes provide an indicator of effective instruction, researchers have observed the kinds of discourse that occur in classrooms (Burbules 1993; Catapano 2006). Talk that shows high expectations and positive teacher-student interactions increases opportunities for optimum learning situations (Lewis and Kim 2008; Pianta 2007; Tyson 2002), as well as growth in language and social competence for learners (Wilson, Pianta, and Stuhlman 2007). In places of social discourse where emotional support and evaluative talk are present, learners gain self control, learn how to listen and take turns in conversation, learn how to express opinions and questions and how to interact with peers and adults. Inquiry into topics of interest, story-telling, sharing and negotiating control over learning are also valuable social processes that occur within group dialogue and effective learning environments (Cazden 2001; Sawyer 2004), perhaps equally or more valuable than learning how to take mandated tests.

Participating frequently in formal and informal processes of communication give an advantage to the learner. By implementing these processes, teachers contribute to the development of learners who value diversity, civility, cooperative behavior and positive social outcomes (Goe et al. 2008). Indeed, the continuation of democratic governance may

depend on students learning how to inquire and deliberate together within the microcosm of the classroom (Parker 2010; Walker 2010). Effective teachers establish processes for students to listen, to hear all sides equally, to speak from reflection, and to build on another's comments. Students profit from teachers who express high expectations for both academic and social behavior, who converse with students about academic information, news events and students' personal experiences, who verbally acknowledge students' accomplishments, and who encourage articulation about and inquiry into relevant personal, local and global issues (Damon 2008; Parker 2010).

Researchers have observed that communicative teachers also possess cultural awareness (Ladson-Billings 1995; Zeichner et al. 1998), are usually aware of their own personal biases and prejudices (Ilmer et al. 1997), are willing to take risks (Guyton and Hidalgo 1995), and possess a sense of self-efficacy (Chester and Beaudin 1996; Guskey and Passaro 1994). Such models of social process, the "oil" that makes society work, are valuable in effectively creating learning environments where all students are encouraged to develop academically and as citizens.

### **Methodology and Descriptive Data**

In order to more fully understand possible differences in instruction at the socio-economic status level, we were guided by the question, what similarities and differences in social processes and instruction are observed in a range of high to low socio-economic third grade classrooms? In our previous study, our observations occurred in Title I schools only, which primarily serve low SES students.

We chose six schools based on "acceptable" ratings and above, from the 2010-2011 Texas school report card documents resulting from the state-mandated test, Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). Four schools were Title I designated and two schools were non-Title I designated. In particular, we were interested in a range of socio-economic status in the schools. Our six schools fell into three categories—high SES, mid SES, and low SES. In each school, the principal selected a third grade teacher, whom he or she deemed highly effective, to participate in the study.

Approximately seven hours of observations in each teacher's classroom were conducted as the school year began, until February, when state-mandated tests were given. Researchers gathered data using a systematic approach: observations were coded such that the prevalent talk and classroom communication was recorded by code every three minutes during the observation periods. Researchers used observation notes to elaborate and describe the context of the classroom situation as they coded. The frequency of the codes then were analyzed and placed into the three categories of socio-economic status of schools: high, mid and low SES. In addition to coding observations and elaborations, researchers interviewed principals and the observed teachers.

Codes for the various social processes were defined, clustered, and refined from our previous study (Author, 2010). Table 1 lists the social processes codes and their descriptions, which we subsequently used as a research group. We conducted several focus sessions and coded videos of active classrooms, in order to ensure inter-rater reliability. We established which codes indicated which social processes were observed. Explanatory descriptions and notes from the observations aided in this process.

### **Description of Teachers and Schools**

Each of the six teachers demonstrated similar characteristics in pedagogy and style. All teachers were female and were experienced third grade teachers. Principals based their selection on the teacher's consistently high scores on the state-mandated tests, on the teacher's rapport with students and parents, and on their observations of the teacher's instruction and student engagement in the classrooms. Summaries of each school's characteristics are shown in Table 2. The six schools were clustered into three categories – high, mid and low socio-economic status. Student population ranged from 344 students in the charter school (School C) to 820 students in School S. Limited English Proficiency, mobility, and at-risk sub-populations varied; in general, these sub-populations moved from greater percentages at low socio-economic status schools to lower percentages at high socio-economic status schools. Subject areas commended on the Texas state-mandated testing ranged from no commendations at the two low SES schools (School S and School J) to a longer list of commended areas at the two high SES schools (School B and School T). (See Table 2)

Observations were conducted for approximately seven hours in each teacher's classroom, and each researcher used a systematic coding of social processes that were observed. The codes, frequencies, and percentages for each are displayed in Table 3.

### **Display of Data and Discussion**

The purpose of our study was to conduct a follow-up inquiry regarding similarities and differences in social processes observed in highly effective third grade classrooms particularly in schools that ranged from high to low socio-economic status. First, we found strong evidence of several social processes that occurred across all levels of SES. The six effective teachers dedicated large amounts of time to orally asking students questions and expecting answers, they gave time for in-class work on assignments and the quiet talk that accompanies such work, and all six teachers modeled for students various ways of approaching assignments. Classroom management communications and talk that built rapport with students were observed frequently in all SES schools. All SES classrooms in our observations demonstrated a similar approach to instruction, that of teachers asking students questions and expecting answers, that of giving generous amounts of time to work on assignments and allowing quiet talk to accompany such work, and finally using rapport and classroom management talk to provide students with encouragement, clear directions and routine procedures. We may question whether these are indicators of effective instruction or not; however, we do understand how these particular social processes signal to students and today's societal expectations that "school is in session." Over time, students may come to understand that school has its own particular "social process," which is primarily one of teachers' questions, answers, working on assignments, and receiving feedback in the form of verbal or written encouragement, grades, or test results.

However, across all SES levels, we observed little evidence of culturally conscious talk, little evidence of governance sharing by the teacher or learning choices given to the students, little evidence of informal talk between teachers and students, little evidence of students managing classroom (which we expected), and little evidence of students telling personal stories. Surprisingly, we observed little explanatory or descriptive talk observed about the upcoming state-mandated tests. Table 4 displays all of observations in each SES category.

**Similarities.** For further understanding of similarities among the social processes across the range of SES schools, the following findings were noted:

- 1) Evidence of social processes with highest numbers of frequencies across all SES schools were worktime, teacher asks questions, classroom management, teacher modeling, and rapport.
- 2) Evidence of little or no social processes with lowest numbers of frequencies across all SES schools were power sharing talk, teacher to student informal talk, talk about the upcoming state tests, students telling stories, culturally conscious awareness talk, students managing classroom, and teachers telling stories.

**Differences:** The differences that we found among the three categories of SES were illuminated by those codes that were evidenced most often in one of the three SES categories. Also codes that were statistically significant in variance are marked with an asterisk.

- 1) High SES classrooms were dominated by observations of humor\*, information given\*, power sharing\*, and teacher–student informal talk.
- 2) Mid SES classrooms were dominated by observations of inquiry\*, cultural awareness talk, teacher modeling, teacher-student questions and answer codes and students telling stories.
- 3) Low SES classrooms were observed to have student-student informal talk\*, student-student question and answer, test talk, and teacher telling stories more frequently than in the high or mid SES categories.

We observed that teachers in high SES classrooms significantly gave more time to providing in-depth information about topics, they used humor and inquiry approaches significantly more often, they shared power in the form of governance and allowed choices about learning with their students significantly more often, and they gave some time to teacher-student informal talk and student stories. Observations of talk about the upcoming state tests were not noted. We wondered if high SES students “drive” these particular social processes by their response to the teacher’s instruction? The interesting dance that we observed in the high SES classrooms appeared to be an instructional mix of providing large amounts of in-depth information for students, with intentional times for indirect instruction using an inquiry or discovery approach.

The primary social processes coded in mid SES classrooms were verbal interactions that centered on teachers modeling how to do assignments as well as the code TSQA (teacher-student question answer). The frequency of the teacher modeling code observed was significant. This particular social process is one that involves effective pedagogical theory (Vygotsky 1978). A knowledgeable teacher uses the model as a scaffold to further the students’ learning.

Observations of social processes in the low SES classrooms gave little evidence of inquiry talk. Students did not receive in-depth or large amounts of information from the teacher, little humor was present, and students were not encouraged to share governance or given choices about learning. Significantly, low SES students engaged most frequently in informal talk with each other. They also questioned each other most. The teachers in these classrooms mentioned the state tests most often and were the only teachers we observed who told stories (observed 3 times). The interesting phenomenon in the low SES



classrooms was the frequency of student talk. We wondered if students in these classrooms were more vocal in general, used verbalization as a tool for learning, and/or were granted or took more freedom to talk. One supposition was that students who talked informally with each other more frequently were exhibiting off task behavior. But the other side of such a supposition was that there was a purpose for their communication. Examining the context of the observations revealed both answers to be correct. We wondered if low SES students “drive” social processes that permit them more verbal freedom and/or use?

We also questioned instructional directionality. Do high SES students receive greater amounts of in-depth information, more time for inquiry and choice, because the teacher perceives that such modes of learning are more appropriate to these students, and indirectly, their parents, or do the high SES students lead the teacher in these instructional directions because of the social processes of their socio-economic status? Why would we observe that low SES students receive less information and less choice in learning and governance? Do teachers follow the lead of low SES students who do not use or are not given the latitudes of social processes such as inquiry, choice, and informative conversations, or do teachers in low SES schools follow curriculum mandates more closely, which may limit time for information, governance, or choice?

In our study, we found no evidence of major disparity among the range of SES third grade classrooms. Rather, we found caring teachers who were using similar instructional approaches across the range of SES classrooms. The high SES classrooms did demonstrate a slightly wider variety of instructional strategies. These processes may reflect a directionality of instruction—further study and more observations in additional classrooms are needed.

For those of us in teacher education, reflection on our candidates’ instructional practice with all SES groups is imperative. We must re-examine coursework, required field experiences, theory and practical applications with teacher candidates in order to amplify that there is more to “doing school” than conceding large amounts of time where teachers ask questions and expect answers, where students work on assignments, and where everyone routinely moves through the rhythms of a school day and year, with encouragement and rapport. If our lens realistically reflects particularly how low SES students may spend years of their lives attending to the “school’s social process” and to large amounts of time preparing for state-mandated tests, while not experiencing in-depth information, choice, inquiry and problem-based instruction, social processes of humor and engaging conversations about relevant topics, then those students may not become the successful citizens that we aspire for them to be. Future teachers need to be grounded in sound theory and pedagogy that will help them to provide high quality instruction and social processes with all SES students, whether there are state-mandated tests or not.

### **Reflection and Further Study**

Understanding what is effective instruction and what describes an effective teacher became foremost in our minds, as we concluded this investigation. It seems that effectiveness is an issue of perspective. From a principal’s perspective, an effective teacher is one who instructs so that curriculum goals are met, as evidenced by passing or even high scores on state-mandated tests. As an aside, a school leader is pleased and highly complimentary when a teacher also works well with parents, with colleagues, and provides a meaningful,

engaging environment for learners. But the factor for judging effectiveness that receives the most attention is that of passing scores on state examinations.

Based on our observation of effective teachers, teachers also believe that effectiveness is evidenced in the state exam scores. Following district guides and curriculum sequence charts provide a road-map to successful scores, and we observed teachers who were not willing to veer too often from the road-map. In fairness, the curriculum now imposed in schools is content heavy and leaves little time for teachers to problem-pose, share jokes, facilitate philosophical discussions, hear students' stories or tell stories themselves. That the teachers in higher SES schools presented more information to their students may be indicative of the content heavy curriculum, and they purposefully made time to explain and elucidate the curriculum topics for the children.

From the perspective of teacher educators, we tend to want it all when effectiveness is concerned. We want teachers, whose students score well on state tests, to frequently hold meaningful, engaging discussions during the school day. We want teachers who instruct students well regarding the content of the state examinations and how to answer the questions found therein, and we also want teachers who model and instruct so that children learn how to be productive individuals and reflective citizens. We want teachers who teach so that their students remember that the "social process" of school is one of safety, joy and rigorous, challenging thinking about the world.

Future research involves understanding the perspective of the child and the parent regarding teacher effectiveness. How do children rate their teachers, and how do parents perceive effectiveness of their children's teachers? We also want to ask, and more fully understand, if a difference among SES children and parents is held regarding perceptions of effectiveness. We continue to be interested in the directionality of instruction – who leads, who follows as instruction occurs in the classroom environment.

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**Table 1. Codes and Descriptions of Social Processes**

CCA	Culturally-conscious awareness talk, cultural discourse
CM	Classroom management directions given by the teacher, behavior talk, directions given orally, routines management
HUM	Humor expressed, jokes, natural expressions, street expressions, laughter
INF	Information given by teacher, content explained, curriculum alert
INQ	Inquiry talk, "I wonder," "why" statements, problems posed, puzzlements, informal or purposeful talk around an issue or situation
POWER	Verbal sharing of decision-making power, allowing students to make decisions and choices about their learning
RAP	Rapport building communication, positive feelings expressed, emotional comfort and trust from teacher to students expressed or shown
SCM	Student manages the classroom behavior, rather than the teacher
SSI	Student to student talk, an informal exchange
SSQA	Student to students asking questions and expecting answers, student directed IRE (initiation, response, evaluation)
S-stories	Student tells stories
TEST	Specific talk about upcoming state or district tests
T Models	Teacher models thinking, assignment, or activity; shows, makes, draws, models the task or thinking needed
TSI	Teacher to student talk, an informal exchange
TSQA	Teacher to students asking questions and expecting answers, teacher directed IRE (initiation, response, evaluation)
T-stories	Teacher tells stories
Worktime	Students work independently, or collaboratively, while teacher monitors, helps, may talk individually, quiet voices may be heard

**Table 2: Summary of School Descriptors and Teacher Observed**

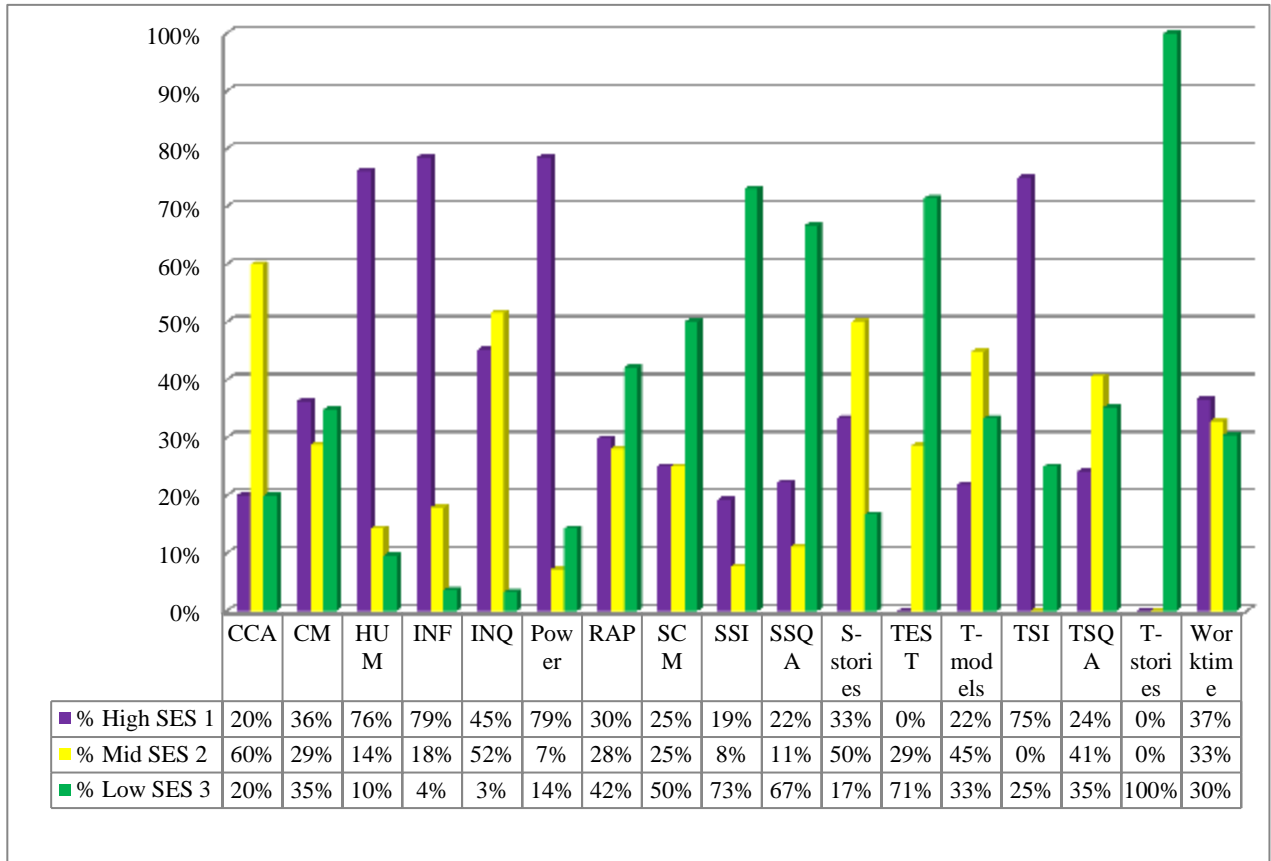
<b>School</b>	<b>Size</b>	<b>Title I</b>	<b>Grade levels</b>	<b>Areas Commended</b>	<b>% Economically disadvantaged</b>	<b>% LEP</b>	<b>% Mobility 2009-2010</b>	<b>% At-Risk</b>	<b>3<sup>rd</sup> Grade Teacher</b>
<b>S.</b>	<b>820</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>EC - 5</b>		<b>94.3</b>	<b>73.5</b>	<b>16.1</b>	<b>77.6</b>	<b>Ms. S</b>
<b>J.</b>	<b>472</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>EC -5</b>		<b>87.5</b>	<b>61.4</b>	<b>17.9</b>	<b>65.3</b>	<b>Ms. J</b>
<b>C.</b>	<b>344</b>	<b>yes-chart er</b>	<b>PK-3</b>	<b>Reading/E LA</b>	<b>61.9</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>Ms. C</b>
<b>L.</b>	<b>520</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>EC-5</b>	<b>Math, Science</b>	<b>39.6</b>	<b>18.8</b>	<b>12.1</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>Ms. L</b>
<b>B.</b>	<b>652</b>	<b>no</b>	<b>K-5</b>	<b>Reading/E LA Writing Math Science</b>	<b>14.3</b>	<b>.9</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>34.8</b>	<b>Ms. B</b>
<b>T.</b>	<b>692</b>	<b>no</b>	<b>K-6</b>	<b>Reading/E LA Writing Science</b>	<b>13.0</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>16.2</b>	<b>Ms. T</b>

**Table 3: Frequency of Observations in High, Low, and Mid SES**

Code	Description	1	2	3	Total	High SES 1	Mid SES 2	Low SES 3
CCA	Culturally Conscious Awareness	1	3	1	5	20%	60%	20%
CM	Classroom Management	53	42	51	146	36%	29%	35%
HUM	HUMor	16	3	2	21	76%	14%	10%
INF	INFormation	22	5	1	28	79%	18%	4%
INQ	INQuiry	14	16	1	31	45%	52%	3%
Power	Power sharing	11	1	2	14	79%	7%	14%
RAP	RAPport	17	16	24	57	30%	28%	42%
SCM	Student Classroom Manages	1	1	2	4	25%	25%	50%
SSI	Student Student Informal talk	5	2	19	26	19%	8%	73%
SSQA	Student Student Question Answer	6	3	18	27	22%	11%	67%
S-stories	S-tells stories	2	3	1	6	33%	50%	17%
TEST	TEST talk	0	2	5	7	0%	29%	71%
T-models	Teacher-Models	19	39	29	87	22%	45%	33%
TSI	Teacher Student Informal talk	9	0	3	12	75%	0%	25%
TSQA	Teacher Student Question Answer	41	69	60	170	24%	41%	35%
T-stories	T-tells stories	0	0	3	3	0%	0%	100%
Worktime		77	69	64	210	37%	33%	30%
<b>TOTALS</b>		<b>294</b>	<b>274</b>	<b>286</b>	<b>854</b>	<b>34%</b>	<b>32%</b>	<b>33%</b>



**Table 4. All Observations in All SES Categories**



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